

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

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## REMARKS

The reader is reminded the following:

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

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## SUMMARY

**Topic:** Expectations and satisfaction with the SAPS in the Klerksdorp area

**Key terms:** South African Police Service; Community; Expectations; Satisfaction; Job Satisfaction; Job Stress; Burnout; Work Engagement

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. Citizen satisfaction is jointly used with job satisfaction, job stress, the possibility of burnout and work engagement within the police as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters. The objectives of this study were to determine the expectations and satisfaction of the community and the police as well as the congruence between the community's expectations and the police's perceptions regarding policing in the Klerkdorp area of the North West Province. A further objective was to determine if there were any differences between Afrikaans-, English- and Tswana- speaking members of the community. The relationship between job satisfaction, stress, burnout and engagement of police members was also investigated.

A cross-sectional survey design was used. The study population ( $N = 597$ ) includes samples of uniformed police personnel in the Klerksdorp area ( $n = 109$ ), as well as a sample of the community ( $n = 488$ ). Two different measuring batteries were compiled, the one for community members consisted mainly of the Public Attitude Survey (PAS), and the one for police members of the Public Attitude Survey (PAS), Job Satisfaction Survey (MSQ), Police Stress Survey (PSS), Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) and Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data.

The results indicate that both the SAPS and the community perceive the present and preferred priorities of the police to be the investigation of crime, with the exception that the public expect the police to make the giving of advice a higher priority. Correlations were found between police members' intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction and professional efficacy; police stressors and exhaustion; and between the dimensions of

engagement. It appears that the community experienced the SAPS as neat and respectful but not really trustworthy. Accordingly, the police do not truly trust the community to co-operate with them.

Recommendations for future research were made.

## OPSOMMING

**Onderwerp:** Verwagtinge van en tevredenheid met die SAPD in die Klerksdorp area.

**Sleutelwoorde:** Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie diens; Gemeenskap; Verwagtinge; Tevredenheid; Werkstevredenheid; Werkstres; Uitbranding; Werksbegeesting

Vir effektiewe verhoudinge met die gemeenskap is dit belangrik dat die polisie 'n duidelike idee het wat die publiek dink die polisie tans doen en wat hulle verkies die polisie moet doen. Gemeenskapstevredenheid is gesamentlik met werkstevredenheid, werkstres, werksbegeesting en die moontlikheid van uitbranding binne die polisie gebruik om die kontak tussen die polisie en gemeenskap te beoordeel. Die doel van die huidige studie was dan om te bepaal wat die verwagtinge en tevredenheid van die publiek sowel as die polisie is, asook die kongruensie tussen die gemeenskap se verwagtinge en die polisie se persepsies ten opsigte van polisiëring in die Klerksdorp-area van die Noordwes-Provinsie. 'n Verdere doel was om te bepaal of daar enige verskille bestaan tussen Afrikaans-, Engels- en Tswana-sprekende individue in die gemeenskap, en om die verband tussen werkstevredenheid, stres, uitbranding en begeesting van polisiebeamptes vas te stel.

'n Dwarsdeursnee-opnameontwerp is as navorsingsontwerp gebruik. Die studiepulasie ( $N = 597$ ) bestaan uit steekproewe van polisiepersoneel in die Klerksdorp-area ( $n = 109$ ), sowel as van die publiek ( $n = 488$ ). Twee verskillende toetsbatterye is saamgestel, die een vir die gemeenskap het uit die Publiekehouding-vraelys (PAS) bestaan en die een vir die SAPD uit die Publiekehouding-vraelys (PAS), Werkstevredenheidvraelys (MSQ), Polisiestres-vraelys (PSS), Maslach-uitbrandingsinventaris – Algemene Vraelys (MBI-GS) en Utrecht-werksbegeestingsvraelys (UWES). Beskrywende en inferensiële statistiek is gebruik om die data te analiseer.

Die resultate toon dat beide die publiek en die SAPD meen die huidige en verkieslike prioriteite van die polisie is om misdaad te ondersoek, behalwe dat die gemeenskap verwag dat die polisie meer aandag moet skenk aan die gee van advies. Korrelasies is gevind ten opsigte van polisielede se intrinsieke werkstevredenheid en ekstrinsieke werkstevredenheid tesame met professionele effektiwiteit; polisiestressors en uitputting, en tussen die dimensies

van werksbegeestering. Die gemeenskap beskou die SAPS as netjies en respekvol, maar nie werklik betroubaar nie. Die polisie weer vertrou nie werklik die gemeenskap om met die SAPD saam te werk nie.

Aanbevelings vir toekomstige navorsing is aan die hand gedoen.

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

This mini-dissertation deals with the expectations and satisfaction with the South African Police Services (SAPS) in the Klerksdorp area in the North West Province.

In this chapter the problem statement is discussed. The research objectives are set out and the research method is explained. Finally, the division of chapters is given.

### **1.1 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Since 1993, the South African Police Services (SAPS) adopted Community Policing as its operational philosophy to meet the safety and security requirements of all people in South Africa (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). A major objective of community policing is to establish active partnerships between the police and the community, especially at local level, through which crime, service delivery and community-police relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

Due to the situation that prevailed in South Africa prior to 1993, which included open conflict situations in the form of public unrest, riots, terrorism-related attacks and attacks on policemen, which were the order of the day, the former police force realised that the traditional style of policing was not the answer to address crime and other related problems of social order effectively. The police were regarded as agents of the government who in turn enforced many laws that were of a nature discriminatory and attempted to suppress the majority of residents of this country (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

An effective and efficient police service is very important in creating the circumstances necessary for economic development in South Africa. The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been,

and continues to be, crime and violence (Lim, Thompson & See, 2000). Therefore, fundamental transformations are necessary to ensure that the SAPS develops into a community-oriented policing service which adopts a consultative approach to meeting the safety and security needs of the communities it serves; a service which becomes more accessible and acceptable and more efficient and effective.

Every definition of 'community policing' shares the idea that the police and the community must work together to define and develop solutions to problems. This is also true for the SAPS and its definition of community policing. According to the SAPS's Manual on Community Policing (Department of Safety and Security, 1997), community policing is the following:

- It is a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies.
- It emphasises the establishment of police-community partnerships and a problem solving approach responsive to the needs of the community.
- It is based on the objectives of the SAPS, namely the prevention, combating and investigation of crime; the maintenance of public order; the provision of protection and security to the inhabitants of the country and their property; and upholding and enforcing the law, all of which can only be achieved through the collaborative effort of the SAPS, other government institutions, the organisations and structures of civil society, and individual citizens.
- A major objective of community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented. This, however, requires that the Police should consciously strive to create an atmosphere in which potential community partners are willing and able to co-operate with the police.

But community policing is not without its problems. One apparent problem, according to Radelet (1980), is the 'mistake' of giving the police full responsibility and accountability for public safety. Police have thus "over-professionalised" themselves and their mission, and as a

result, systematically overlook many pressing community concerns because these lie outside their narrowly defined mandate. There is little doubt that the police today are under much closer public scrutiny than in the past. Public pressure has increased for more effective service and for higher professional standards in matters involving the treatment of offenders, racial and sexual bias, corruption, and the use of deadly force (Radelet, 1980), but also to recognise various critical needs of their community.

Another problem associated with the definition of community policing, is the question whether a distinction should be drawn between what really *is* a problem, and what people *think* is a problem (Radelet, 1980). The positions taken by various segments of the population are clearly based upon differing perceptions. Individuals believe something because they see it as being so. As in any other area of human relations, some attitudes are based on fact and some on assumption, and some assumptions are incorrect.

People, according to their own conviction, behave in a rational, purposeful, logical manner, depending upon how they perceive the objective world. Every person responds to the world according to the way he/she perceives it. Yet, according to Radelet (1980), every person will behave rationally *within that framework*. The basis of our individual point of view is the nature of the self, as we have seen, and not necessarily what really happens in the world outside the self. Because perception is a behavioural process, it is well to be aware of the sources of perceptual distortion. Some important ones are the following, their relative importance varying with individuals and situations (Radelet, 1980):

- Personal rigidity or dogmatism; relative difficulty in adjusting to the forces of change.
- Emotional "loading". Perceptual shift or displacement takes place.
- Experiential limitations – difficult sometimes to recognise and accept realistically – but part of the human condition.
- Cultural myopia – sometimes called "tunnel vision". The attitudes, beliefs and values we accept as part of our ethnic, racial, social class and other similar affiliations weight our perceptions.

Outside perceptions of a particular profession or occupation act as a sensitising influence affecting the behaviours and work attitudes of job incumbents when they interact with others.

With respect to policing, police officers' beliefs about the public's perceptions of their profession provide them with cues and information on how members of the public evaluate them as a result of their associations with the police force (Lim, 2000).

Beck, Boni and Packer (1999) suggest that there is a different understanding within the general public of the present police role than is found among the police themselves. This may be due to the lack of personal experience that individuals have with the full range of police services, and of the focus of media portrayals of police on crime-related and advisory activities. It is therefore important to also determine the police's expectations and satisfaction of the SAPS.

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. The identification of discrepancies between current and preferred priorities is the first step in the consultation process, as it identifies areas in which the public seems to desire change. The second step is to determine the level of consensus between the police and public about the appropriate role for the police, since consensus is essential if the co-operative effort they are undertaking to address crime and safety issues is to be effective. It is interesting, therefore, that there is no research determining the public's understanding of current police priorities, and almost no research examining how police officers perceive their role and what they believe their role should be (Beck et al., 1999).

To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the public. The study of the public opinion of the police is important for at least three reasons. Firstly, because the public is the consumer of police services, it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively. Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence.

During the last few years, increased efforts have been made to measure citizen satisfaction with police services and the quality of interactions between citizens and the police. Efforts have also been made to develop programmes that emphasise citizen participation in the

provision of police services. Programmes encouraging citizens to report crimes committed in their neighbourhoods are being recognised by law enforcement agencies as a potentially valuable aid to their own crime prevention and apprehension activities. As resources for the provision of police services diminish in relation to the demands for such services, increasing emphasis is being placed on ways to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of police departments. One indicator of the performance of law enforcement agencies is the extent to which they are responsive to citizens' perceived needs (Poister & McDavid, 1978).

Judgements regarding public satisfaction are usually based on the findings of surveys of general populations or of more specialised samples such as victims of crime or those who have had some other type of recent contact with the police. Respondents are typically asked in direct fashion how satisfied they are with their local police, how good a job they think the police are doing or how effective they perceive the police to be. Respondents who have had a recent encounter with the police might be asked if they were satisfied with the outcome; whether the officers with whom they had contact were 'polite' or 'courteous' or if they had behaved in a 'professional' manner (Poister & McDavid, 1978).

Like any complicated term, there has been considerable debate over what a term like satisfaction actually means. Community involvement in community policing is frequently justified by pointing to the growing 'customer orientation' of public service agencies. Thus, the community can be seen as customers or clients with needs, and these needs have to be satisfied. But when are these clients satisfied? It seems that it is a function of expectation. Customer satisfaction is customers' perception that a supplier has met or exceeded their expectations (Hill, 1998). Again, the key word is 'perception'. Customer satisfaction is in the customer's mind and may or may not conform with the reality of the situation. We know that people form attitudes quickly, but change them only slowly. Hill (1998) explains that customer satisfaction measurement is therefore about measuring how customers perceive the performance of the organisation as a 'supplier'.

Little quantitative research has been published on public expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service. Furthermore, little attention has been paid in the academic literature to the issue of the relationship between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), dissatisfaction of the public in the United Kingdom sprang from misunderstanding within the police about what the public wanted from the service. There was

more interest in the so-called 'caring' side of policing and the effectiveness of forces was measured in terms of personal contacts with police officers. Police services started to concentrate research on 'customers', often defined as those members of the public who had recent interaction with the police. Performance indicators reflected levels of customer satisfaction with various aspects of police activity, such as frequency of patrols, speed of response and how well an incident was dealt with. The move towards assessing the quality of service encouraged the use of survey research.

If citizen satisfaction is used as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters on the one hand, then job satisfaction and the possibility of burnout within the police should also be used as a joint performance measure of police-citizen encounters. An employee's perception of the workplace influences his attitude towards his job and the people that he encounters while on duty. Police work requires participants to enter into dangerous, strenuous and stressful situations on a routine basis. Therefore, it is important to determine the level of job satisfaction and burnout of police officers in order to establish whether or not the police are functioning as an effective and efficient unit.

For years, scholars and managers alike have recognised that employees' perceptions of their working environment have significant implications for work productivity. This belief underwrote decades of research and thousands of studies focused on job satisfaction, organisation commitment, work stress and similar topics (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Schuler, 1980). Officers' perceptions of how members of the public assess members of the police force affect their pride and confidence as members of that profession. Consequently, such feelings of pride and confidence influence their ability to function effectively and to maintain law and order in society (Lim et al., 2000).

Job satisfaction has been conceptualised and operationalized as both a global construct and a multifaceted construct. Simply put, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is an important attitude for several reasons. For employees, job satisfaction has ramifications for subjective well-being (Judge & Hulin, 1993) and life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993).

One of the most common causes of job dissatisfaction, is job stress. A preponderance of studies have documented both job ambiguity and job conflict as sources of global job dissatisfaction across a variety of occupational groups (Brief & Aldag, 1976; House & Rizzo,

1972; Johnson & Stinson, 1975; Oliver & Brief, 1978; Paul, 1974). Job stressors consist of job ambiguity, job overload and job conflict. Job ambiguity is uncertainty, stemming from the lack of availability of information for adequate job performance or task completion. Job overload is the conflict of priorities resulting from expectations that a person performs a wide variety of tasks which are impossible to complete within the given time limits. Job conflict is psychological conflict experienced by an individual (focal person) as a result of conflicting pressures exerted by role senders (Kahn et al., 1964).

There is a growing body of evidence which links the effects of burnout on job satisfaction, performance, and job stress (Blix et al., 1994; Gmelch et al., 1984; Keller, 1975). Stressful situations that occur in the workplace have a significant effect on employee service delivery (Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Kafry, 1978). As a result, burnout has become a significant issue in various organisations. In society today, public service professionals constantly interact with people who have numerous problems and needs. Such interactions are becoming increasingly demanding, both at the physiological and psychological levels (Hawkins, 2001). Onyett et al. (1997) found high levels of exhaustion in members of several professions within community mental health teams, accompanied by high levels of job satisfaction, and personal accomplishment. Schaufeli, Leiter, and Kalinmo (1995) found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload, and job stress at work. Professional efficacy was related to satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement. In studies of public contact workers, Maslach and Jackson (1984) and Jackson, Schwab, and Schuter (1986) noted that high burnout scores were correlated with the expressed intention to leave one's job. Another outcome of burnout is the impairment of one's relationship with people in general, both on and off the job (Maslach, 1978).

## **1.2 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

The specific objectives of the research are:

- to determine what the community in the Klerksdorp area expect from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members;
- to determine police personnel in the Klerksdorp area's perceptions of their functions;

- to determine the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions;
- to determine the relationship between police personnel in the Klerksdorp area's job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement and to determine the implications thereof for service rendering;
- to make recommendations on how community policing in the Klerksdorp area, as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS could be improved.

### **1.3 RESEARCH METHOD**

The research method consists of a literature review and an empirical study.

#### **1.3.1 Empirical study**

The empirical study consists of the research design, study population, measuring battery and statistical analysis.

##### **1.3.1.1 Research design**

A qualitative design (interviews and focus groups) is used to identify items that could be used in questionnaires. A cross-sectional survey design is then used to describe the information collected of the population at that time. This design (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997) can also be used to evaluate interrelationships among variables within a population. According to Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1997), this design is also ideal to describe and predict functions associated with correlation research.

##### **1.3.1.2 Study population**

The study population consists of community and police members in the Klerksdorp area in the North West Province. Stratified, random samples are taken.

### **1.3.1.3 Measuring instruments**

Two different measuring batteries are compiled, one for community members and one for police members. The measuring battery for the community is constructed as follows: Section A – Biographical Details, Section B – Contact with the South African Police Service (SAPS), Section C – Neighbourhood Concerns, Section D – Confidence in the South African Police Service (SAPS), Section E – Public Attitude Survey (PAS). The community measuring battery is translated into three languages, namely, Afrikaans, Tswana and English.

The measuring battery for police members differ from that of the community and is constructed as follows: Section A – Biographical Details, Section B – Contact with the Community, Section C – Public Attitude Survey (PAS), Section D – Job Satisfaction Survey (MSQ), Section E – Police Stress Survey (PSS) (Part A – Amount of stress & Part B – Frequency of stress), Section F – Maslach Burnout Inventory – General Survey (MBI-GS) and Section G – Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES). Although various language groups are included, the police measuring battery are compiled only in English.

### **1.3.1.4 Statistical analysis**

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

T-tests and analysis of the variance are used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. Pearson product-momentum correlation coefficients are used to specify the relationships between the variables. In the case where the distribution of scores is skew, Spearman correlation coefficients are computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) are computed to indicate effect sizes.

## **1.4 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS**

The chapters are presented as follows in this mini-dissertation:

Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 2: Research article

Chapter 3: Conclusions, shortcomings and recommendations.

## **1.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the problem statement and motivation were discussed. The specific objectives of the research were formulated the method of research was described as well as the way in which the statistical analysis was performed.

A research article of the expectations of, and satisfaction with the South African Police Services in the Klerksdorp Area is presented in Chapter 2.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **RESEARCH ARTICLE**

# EXPECTATIONS OF AND SATISFACTION WITH THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE IN THE KLERKSDORP AREA\*

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## ABSTRACT

The objectives of this study were the determination of citizen satisfaction and expectations together with job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement within the police, as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters regarding the SAPS in the Klerksdorp area. A cross-sectional survey design was used. The study population included a sample of uniformed police personnel in the Klerksdorp area ( $n = 109$ ), as well as a sample of the community ( $n = 488$ ). The results indicated that both the SAPS and the community perceived the present and preferred priorities of the police to be the investigation of crime, with the exception that the public expected the police to make the giving of advice a higher priority. Correlations were found between police members' intrinsic job satisfaction, and extrinsic job satisfaction and professional efficacy; police stressors and exhaustion; and between the dimensions of engagement.

## OPSOMMING

Die doelstelling van hierdie navorsing was om gemeenskapstevredenheid en verwagtinge tesame met werkstevredenheid, -stres, uitbranding en begeestering binne die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie diens in die Klerksdorp-area te bepaal. 'n Dwarsdeursnee-opnameontwerp is as navorsingsontwerp gebruik. Die studiepopulasie het bestaan uit 'n steekproef van polisiepersoneel in die Klerksdorp-area ( $n = 109$ ), sowel as 'n steekproef van die algemene publiek ( $n = 488$ ). Die resultate toon dat beide die publiek en die SAPD meen die huidige en verkieslike prioriteite van die polisie is om misdaad te ondersoek, behalwe dat die gemeenskap verwag dat die polisie meer aandag aan die gee van advies moet skenk. Korrelasies is gevind ten opsigte van polisielede se intrinsieke werkstevredenheid en ekstrinsieke werkstevredenheid tesame met professionele effektiwiteit; polisiestressors en uitputting; en tussen die dimensies van werksbegeestering.

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\* The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF) towards this research is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the National Research Foundation.

Since 1993, the South African Police Services (SAPS) adopted Community Policing as its operational philosophy to meet the safety and security requirements of all people in South Africa (Department of Safety and Security, 1997). A major objective of community policing is to establish active partnerships between the police and the community, especially at local level, through which crime, service delivery and community-police relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

Due to the situation that prevailed in South Africa prior to 1993, which included open conflict situations in the form of public unrest, riots, terrorism-related attacks and attacks on policemen, which were the order of the day, the former police force realised that the traditional style of policing was not the answer to address crime and other related problems of social order effectively. The police were regarded as agents of the government who in turn enforced many laws that were of a nature discriminatory and attempted to suppress the majority of residents of this country (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

An effective and efficient police service is very important in creating the circumstances necessary for economic development in South Africa. The most significant feature of South Africa's transition from a racially divided apartheid government to democracy has been the peaceful nature of the transformation in the form of negotiation as opposed to revolution. However, one of the dominant features of the transformation over the past years has been, and continues to be, crime and violence (Lim, Thompson & See, 2000). Therefore, fundamental transformations are necessary to ensue that the SAPS develops into a community-oriented policing service which adopts a consultative approach to meeting the safety and security needs of the communities it serves; a service which becomes more accessible and acceptable and more efficient and effective.

Every definition of 'community policing' shares the idea that the police and the community must work together to define and develop solutions to problems. This is also true for the SAPS and its definition of community policing. According to the SAPS's Manual on Community Policing (Department of Safety and Security, 1997), community policing is the following:

- It is a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies.

- It emphasises the establishment of police-community partnerships and a problem solving approach responsive to the needs of the community.
- It is based on the objectives of the SAPS, namely the prevention, combating and investigation of crime; the maintenance of public order; the provision of protection and security to the inhabitants of the country and their property; and upholding and enforcing the law, all of which can only be achieved through the collaborative effort of the SAPS, other government institutions, the organisations and structures of civil society, and individual citizens.
- A major objective of community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented. This, however, requires that the Police should consciously strive to create an atmosphere in which potential community partners are willing and able to co-operate with the police.

But community policing is not without its problems. One apparent problem, according to (Radelet, 1980), is the 'mistake' of giving the police full responsibility and accountability for public safety. Police have thus "over-professionalised" themselves and their mission, and as a result, systematically overlook many pressing community concerns because these lie outside their narrowly defined mandate. There is little doubt that the police today are under much closer public scrutiny than in the past. Public pressure has increased for more effective service and for higher professional standards in matters involving the treatment of offenders, racial and sexual bias, corruption, and the use of deadly force (Radelet, 1980), but also to recognise various critical needs of their community.

Another problem associated with the definition of community policing, is the question whether a distinction should be drawn between what really *is* a problem, and what people *think* is a problem (Radelet, 1980). The positions taken by various segments of the population are clearly based upon differing perceptions. Individuals believe something because they see it as being so. As in any other area of human relations, some attitudes are based on fact and some on assumption, and some assumptions are incorrect.

People, according to their own conviction, behave in a rational, purposeful, logical manner, depending upon how they perceive the objective world. Every person responds to the world according to the way he/she perceives it. Yet, according to Radelet (1980), every person will behave rationally *within that framework*. The basis of our individual point of view is the nature of the self, as we have seen, and not necessarily what really happens in the world outside the self. Because perception is a behavioural process, it is well to be aware of the sources of perceptual distortion. Some important ones are the following, their relative importance varying with individuals and situations (Radelet, 1980):

- Personal rigidity or dogmatism; relative difficulty in adjusting to the forces of change.
- Emotional "loading". Perceptual shift or displacement takes place.
- Experiential limitations – difficult sometimes to recognise and accept realistically – but part of the human condition.
- Cultural myopia – sometimes called "tunnel vision". The attitudes, beliefs and values we accept as part of our ethnic, racial, social class and other similar affiliations weight our perceptions.

Outside perceptions of a particular profession or occupation act as a sensitising influence affecting the behaviours and work attitudes of job incumbents when they interact with others. With respect to policing, police officers' beliefs about the public's perceptions of their profession provide them with cues and information on how members of the public evaluate them as a result of their associations with the police force (Lim et al., 2000)

Beck et al. (1999) suggest that there is a different understanding within the general public of the present police role than is found among the police themselves. This may be due to the lack of personal experience that individuals have with the full range of police services, and of the focus of media portrayals of police on crime-related and advisory activities. It is therefore important to also determine the police's expectations and satisfaction of the SAPS.

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. The identification of discrepancies between current and preferred priorities is the first step in the consultation process, as it identifies areas in which the public

seems to desire change. The second step is to determine the level of consensus between the police and public about the appropriate role for the police, since consensus is essential if the co-operative effort they are undertaking to address crime and safety issues is to be effective. It is interesting, therefore, that there is no research determining the public's understanding of current police priorities, and almost no research examining how police officers perceive their role and what they believe their role should be (Beck et al., 1999).

To help with the successful implementation of community policing, it is necessary to determine the opinions of the recipients of police services, namely the public. The study of the public opinion of the police is important for at least three reasons. Firstly, because the public is the consumer of police services, it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received (Flanagan, 1985). Secondly, positive images of the police are necessary for the police to function effectively. Negative attitudes towards the police, in contrast, result in mutual ill feelings, lack of respect, disorder and inefficient police functioning (Radelet, 1986). Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence.

During the last few years, increased efforts have been made to measure citizen satisfaction with police services and the quality of interactions between citizens and the police. Efforts have also been made to develop programmes that emphasise citizen participation in the provision of police services. Programmes encouraging citizens to report crimes committed in their neighbourhoods are being recognised by law enforcement agencies as a potentially valuable aid to their own crime prevention and apprehension activities. As resources for the provision of police services diminish in relation to the demands for such services, increasing emphasis is being placed on ways to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of police departments. One indicator of the performance of law enforcement agencies is the extent to which they are responsive to citizens' perceived needs (Poister & McDavid, 1978).

Judgements regarding public satisfaction are usually based on the findings of surveys of general populations or of more specialised samples such as victims of crime or those who have had some other type of recent contact with the police. Respondents are typically asked in direct fashion how satisfied they are with their local police, how good a job they think the police are doing or how effective they perceive the police to be. Respondents who have had a recent encounter with the police might be asked if they were satisfied with the outcome;

whether the officers with whom they had contact were 'polite' or 'courteous' or if they had behaved in a 'professional' manner (Poister & McDavid, 1978).

Like any complicated term, there has been considerable debate over what a term like satisfaction actually means. Community involvement in community policing is frequently justified by pointing to the growing 'customer orientation' of public service agencies. Thus, the community can be seen as customers or clients with needs, and these needs have to be satisfied. But when are these clients satisfied? It seems that it is a function of expectation. Customer satisfaction is customers' perception that a supplier has met or exceeded their expectations (Hill, 1998). Again, the key word is 'perception'. Customer satisfaction is in the customer's mind and may or may not conform with the reality of the situation. We know that people form attitudes quickly, but change them only slowly. Hill (1998) explains that customer satisfaction measurement is therefore about measuring how customers perceive the performance of the organisation as a 'supplier'.

Little quantitative research has been published on public expectations of and satisfaction with the South African Police Service. Furthermore, little attention has been paid in the academic literature to the issue of the relationship between the police and the public from the viewpoints of the police clientele and the police themselves. According to Fosam and Grimsley (1998), dissatisfaction of the public in the United Kingdom sprang from misunderstanding within the police about what the public wanted from the service. There was more interest in the so-called 'caring' side of policing and the effectiveness of forces was measured in terms of personal contacts with police officers. Police services started to concentrate research on 'customers', often defined as those members of the public who had recent interaction with the police. Performance indicators reflected levels of customer satisfaction with various aspects of police activity, such as frequency of patrols, speed of response and how well an incident was dealt with. The move towards assessing the quality of service encouraged the use of survey research.

If citizen satisfaction is used as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters on the one hand, then job satisfaction and the possibility of burnout within the police should also be used as a joint performance measure of police-citizen encounters. An employee's perception of the workplace influences his attitude towards his job and the people that he encounters while on duty. Police work requires participants to enter into dangerous, strenuous and

stressful situations on a routine basis. Therefore, it is important to determine the level of job satisfaction and burnout of police officers in order to establish whether or not the police are functioning as an effective and efficient unit.

For years, scholars and managers alike have recognised that employees' perceptions of their working environment have significant implications for work productivity. This belief underwrote decades of research and thousands of studies focused on job satisfaction, organisation commitment, work stress and similar topics (Brayfield and Crockett, 1955; Schuler, 1980). Officers' perceptions of how members of the public assess members of the police force affect their pride and confidence as members of that profession. Consequently, such feelings of pride and confidence influence their ability to function effectively and to maintain law and order in society (Lim et al., 2000).

Stressful situations that occur in the workplace have a significant effect on worker productivity (Maslach & Pines, 1977; Pines & Kafry, 1978). As a result, burnout has become a significant issue in various organisations. In society today, public service professionals constantly interact with people who have numerous problems and needs. Such interactions are becoming increasingly demanding, both at the physiological and psychological levels (Hawkins, 2001). Schaufeli, Leiter and Kalimo (1995) found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload, and role conflict at work. Professional efficacy was also related to satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement.

The objectives of this study were to determine what the community in the Klerksdorp area expect from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members; as well as to determine the perceptions of police personnel in the Klerksdorp area of their functions, and the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions. Lastly, this study attempted to determine the relationship between the job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement of police personnel in the Klerksdorp area and to determine the implications thereof for service rendering, making recommendations on how community policing in the Klerksdorp area as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS could be improved.

## **Expectations of and satisfaction with police services**

Since 1993, the SAPS adopted Community Policing as its operational philosophy to meet the safety and security requirements of all people in the country. Due to the situation that prevailed in this country prior to 1993, which included open conflict situations in the form of public unrest, riots, terrorism-related attacks and attacks on policemen which were the order of the day, the former police force realised that the traditional style of policing was not the answer to address crime and other related problems of social order effectively. The police were regarded as agents of the government who in turn enforced many laws that were of discriminatory nature and attempted to suppress the majority of residents of this country (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

According to the SAPS's Manual on Community Policing (Department of Safety and Security, 1997), community policing is the following:

- Community policing is a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies.
- It emphasises the establishment of police-community partnerships and a problem-solving approach.
- It is based on the objectives of the SAPS, namely the prevention, combating and investigation of crime; the maintenance of public order; the provision of protection and security to the inhabitants of the Republic and their property; and upholding and enforcing the law, which can only be achieved through the collaborative effort of the SAPS, other government institutions, the organisations and structures of civil society, and individual citizens.
- A major objective of community policing is to establish an active partnership between the police and the community through which crime, service delivery and police-community relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented. This however requires that the police should consciously strive to create an atmosphere in which potential community partners are willing and able to co-operate with the police.

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. The identification of discrepancies between current and preferred priorities is the first step in the consultation process, as it identifies areas in which the public seems to desire change. The second step is to determine the level of consensus between the police and the public about the appropriate role for police, since consensus is essential if the co-operative effort they are undertaking to address crime and safety issues is to be effective (Beck, et al., 1999).

At a general level, community needs assessments or surveys "are a widely used means to determine what bothers the public and what goals it sees and seeks" (Marenin, 1989). However, as Flanagan (1985) points out, consumer perspectives of the police role have largely been ignored. Although a great deal is known about the public's general attitudes toward the police, relatively little is known about their assessment of specific police activities. He suggests that researchers need to get beyond studying public support for the police and focus on consumer preferences for specific police policies and practices. In Flanagan's view (1985), the failure to do so could lead to diminished support for the police. Also, present efforts to evaluate community policing programmes will continue to be inadequate until researchers begin to measure the level of community involvement as an important contextual variable in defining a programme's level of success.

A concept that seems to be especially applicable to police-community encounters is *expectancy disconfirmation*. The expectancy disconfirmation model hypothesises that consumer satisfaction is a response to the congruency between an individual's expectations and the actual performance of a product (Oliver, 1981). Applied to policing, then, satisfaction may be viewed as a function of the interrelationship between what citizens expect from the police and their perceptions of police performance (i.e. services rendered).

The expectancy disconfirmation model can be conceptualised as a four-stage process. First, the consumer formulates expectations (which vary across consumers) regarding a product. Secondly, the individual makes certain attributions regarding the performance of that product, and thirdly compares his/her perception of the product's performance against his/her initial expectations. The final stage in the expectancy disconfirmation process is the consumer's determination of how well the product 'measures up' to his/her initial expectations (Reisig &

Stroshine Chandek, 2001). Here, expectations offer a baseline from which to evaluate perceptions of product performance. Accordingly, the individual may judge the product performance to be better than, worse than, or equal to what he/she expected. The extent to which perceptions of performance 'match' expectations dictates the type of disconfirmation the consumer experiences, and has a direct effect on satisfaction (Oliver, 1980).

The expectancy disconfirmation model not only explains satisfaction with product performance, but also service satisfaction (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982; Oliver, 1980, 1981; Oliver & DeSarbo, 1988; Oliver & Swan, 1989; Tse & Wilson, 1988). Reisig and Stroshine Chandek (2001) determined in their analyses of the expectancy disconfirmation model when applied to the policing context that citizen satisfaction with police encounters is a product of the congruence between individual expectations of service and the perceptions of the actual service rendered. This can then also determine the level of willingness on the community's part to become involved in various community policing activities.

Outside perceptions of a particular profession or occupation act as a sensitising influence affecting the behaviours and work attitudes of job incumbents when they interact with others. With respect to policing, police officers' beliefs about the public's perceptions of their profession provide them with cues and information on how members of the public evaluate them as a result of their associations with the police force (Lim, et al., 2000). Beck et al. (1999) suggest that there is a different understanding within the general public of the present police role than that which is found among the police themselves. This may be due to the lack of personal experience that individuals have with the full range of police services, and of the focus of media portrayals of police on crime-related and advisory activities.

### **Job satisfaction, job stress, burnout and engagement among police officers**

If citizen satisfaction is used as a performance measure of police-citizen encounters, then job satisfaction, job stress, the possibility of burnout and work engagement within the police should also be used as a joint performance measure of police-citizen encounters. An employee's perception of the workplace influences his attitude towards his job and the people whom he encounters while on duty. Police work requires participants to enter into dangerous, strenuous and stressful situations on a routine basis. Therefore it is important to determine the

level of job satisfaction, job stress, burnout and work engagement of police officers in order to establish whether or not the police are functioning as an effective and efficient unit.

Job satisfaction has been conceptualised and operationalised as both a global and a multifaceted construct. Simply put, job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction is an important attitude for several reasons. For employees, job satisfaction has ramifications for subjective well-being (Judge & Hulin, 1993) and life satisfaction (Judge & Watanabe, 1993). One presumable advantage of multi-dimensional measures of job satisfaction is that the components may relate differently to other variables of interest in a manner that advances the science and practice of industrial-organisational psychology. Spector (1997) identified the 20-item short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1967) as a popular facet measure that is frequently used in job satisfaction research. One advantageous feature of the MSQ short form is that it can be used to measure two distinct components: intrinsic job satisfaction and extrinsic job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction refers to how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, whereas extrinsic job satisfaction concerns how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself (Spector, 1997).

Winfree, Guiterman and Mayes (1997) found in their study of work assignments and the police that gender and education had little effect on job satisfaction, but officers in supervisory ranks expressed higher levels of satisfaction with the workplace than officers in either patrol or detective ranks. One of the hypotheses Winfree et al. (1997) made was that the greater the number of tasks performed, the greater the job satisfaction. But this hypothesis was not supported – the data showed the opposite: the more tasks officers performed, the less satisfied they were. It also seemed that officers who do a lot of paperwork and are involved in a lot of public safety activities, express negative perceptions of their workplace (Winfree, Guiterman & Mayes, 1997).

Two categories of potential stressors in police work are often distinguished (Alexander, Walker, Innes & Irving, 1993; Biggam, Power, MacDonald, Carcary & Moodie, 1997; Brown & Campbell, 1990, 1994; Evans & Coman, 1993). These are, firstly, various aspects of the very nature of police work, such as physical threat, violence, exposure to danger and facing the unknown, and secondly, organisational stressors, for example management style, poor

communication and lack of support. Findings indicate that the latter are more prevalent compared to the former.

Biggam et al. (1997) confirmed the findings of the comparable police studies of Brown and Campbell (1990, 1994) and Alexander et al. (1993) and concluded that the highest levels of associated stress are related to organisational factors. These stressors include staff shortages (mentioned by 81% of police officers), inadequate resources (78%), time pressure (74%), lack of communication (70%) and work overload (71%). Operational stressors, such as arresting a violent person (49%), appearing in court (44%) and the use of force (40%), were mentioned less often. Hence, job stress in policing is produced first and foremost by the organisation and management, and to a lesser degree by task-related factors or routine operational duties. This phenomenon is also observed in other occupations such as teaching (Cox, Boot, Cox & Harrison, 1988), nursing (Hingley & Cooper, 1986) and management (Davidson & Cooper, 1983), where the most frequently reported causes of stress are work overload, time pressure and deadlines, and staff shortages. These findings suggest that job stressors are more often to be found in the job context than in the job content (Evans & Coman, 1993). Rewarding aspects of a job will be found more in the job content, because this is often the reason why one chose a profession in the first place. This might be particularly true for police work, as 'making money' will not be a main motive here. To get a balanced picture of these stressors and their effects, it is important to look at both stressful and rewarding aspects of police work. Studies on stress in police work are typically limited to the (potential) stressors, thereby neglecting (potential) rewards (Kop, Euwema & Schaufeli, 1999).

Job stressors consist of job ambiguity, job overload and job conflict. Job ambiguity is uncertainty, stemming from the lack of availability of information for adequate job performance or task completion. Job overload is the conflict of priorities resulting from expectations that a person performs a wide variety of tasks that are impossible to complete within the given time limits. Job conflict is psychological conflict experienced by an individual (focal person) as a result of conflicting pressures exerted by role senders (Kahn et al., 1964). One of the most common organisational outcomes of job stress is job dissatisfaction. A preponderance of studies have documented both job ambiguity and job conflict as sources of global job dissatisfaction across a variety of occupational groups (Brief

& Aldag, 1976; House & Rizzo, 1972; Johnson & Stinson, 1975; Oliver & Brief, 1978; Paul, 1974).

Burnout is conceived as a set of negative psychological experiences, reflecting a 'wearing out' from prolonged exposure to the stresses of work (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). Burnout has been recognised as a serious problem, particularly for human service professionals (Maslach, 1982, 1993). Working with people may put an emotional strain on them. The issue of demanding recipient contacts has frequently been dealt with in burnout research. Police work is also a service job and thus vulnerable to burnout. Burnout in general is viewed as a syndrome consisting of three dimensions: *exhaustion*, which refers to the depletion or draining of emotional resources; *cynicism*, which is a negative, callous and cynical attitude towards recipients (e.g. civilians); and *professional efficacy*, i.e. the tendency to evaluate oneself negatively with regard to one's accomplishments at work.

Research over the past two decades has shown that burnout is related not only to negative outcomes for the individual, including depression, a sense of failure, fatigue, and loss of motivation, but also to negative outcomes for the organisation, including absenteeism, turnover and poor productivity (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998). Only a few studies on burnout among police officers are known to the authors (Burke, 1997; Cannizzo & Liu, 1995; Golembiewski & Kim, 1990; Golembiewski, Sun, Lin & Boudreau, 1995; Johnson, 1991; Stearns & Moore, 1993).

There is a growing body of evidence that links the effects of burnout to job satisfaction, performance and job stress (Blix et al., 1994; Gmelch et al., 1984; Keller, 1975). Onyett et al. (1997) found high levels of exhaustion in members of several professions within community mental health teams, accompanied by high levels of job satisfaction and personal accomplishment. Schaufeli, Leiter and Kalinmo (1995) found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload and job stress at work. Professional efficacy was related to satisfaction, organisational commitment and job involvement. In studies of public contact workers, Maslach and Jackson (1984) and Jackson, Schwab, and Schuter (1986) noted that high burnout scores were correlated with the expressed intention to leave one's job. Another outcome of burnout is the impairment of one's relationship with people in general, both on and off the job (Maslach, 1978).

According to Schaufeli, Salanova and Bakker (in press), the positive pole of employees' welfare and happiness should also be considered, bearing in mind that most research focuses solely on the negative pole. Therefore job engagement (the opposite of burnout), which is one such a model, should be included in this study. Schaufeli et al. (in press) defined engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption". Vigour can be described as intellectual flexibility while working, possessing a high capacity for doing work, as well as motivation to put in an effort and to persevere, even when times are hard. Dedication can be seen as complete and wholehearted reliability, as well as the act of binding oneself intellectually or emotionally to a course of action. And lastly, Absorption implies total engagement of one's mind and attention in one's work, resulting in time passing by quickly, so that difficulty in detaching oneself from one's work can be experienced. It also includes focused thought, a clear mind, mind and body harmony, unproblematic attentiveness, absolute control, loss of embarrassment, distortion of time, and built-in satisfaction (Csikszetmihalyi, 1990).

## **METHOD**

### **Research design**

A survey design was used to reach the research objective. The specific design is the cross-sectional design, whereby a sample is drawn from a population at one time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 1997).

### **Participants**

The sample consists of uniformed police personnel as well as community members in the Klerksdorp area in the North West Province.

The sample of uniformed police personnel ( $n = 109$ ) consisted mainly of constables ( $n = 4$ ), sergeants ( $n = 8$ ), inspectors ( $n = 66$ ) and captains ( $n = 18$ ), with a total of 70 males, while 38 were females. Various language groups were included in the study, namely Afrikaans ( $n = 63$ ), Tswana ( $n = 25$ ), English ( $n = 6$ ) and others ( $n = 13$ ), with a mean age of 33,77. About 20,39% of the participants worked in Crime Prevention, 39,81% in the Detective Service and

Crime Intelligence, 28,16% in Administration and 11,65% worked in the Operational Response Service. A total of 79,82% were married.

The sample of the community ( $N = 488$ ) consisted mainly out of English ( $n = 184$ ), Afrikaans ( $n = 81$ ) and Tswana ( $n = 223$ ) speaking people, of which 224 were males and 258 were females between the ages of 13 and 83. About 21,97% were students, 34,52% were full time employed and 21,97% were unemployed. Approximately 32,02% of the sample have had contact with the SAPS. About 31,95% said that they generally do not see police officers in their neighbourhood, whereas 25,93% said that they see them more than 10 times per week. Approximately 87,74% would go to their police station first for help if a crime were committed against them. The most popular medium was information about the police was acquired, were the radio ( $n = 218$ ), newspapers ( $n = 161$ ) and television ( $n = 243$ ). Only 21,67% has knowledge of Community Policing Forums.

### **Measuring instruments**

- The *Public Attitude Survey*. As was done by Beck et al. (1999), parallel forms of the Public Attitude Survey were developed to measure both the public and the police's perceptions and expectations of police events. For the purpose of this study, 38 police activities were selected to cover the major police functions of crime prevention, peacekeeping and service provision. The activities were adapted during consultation with senior and operational police officers and include questions like "Advice people on personal safety", "Respond to emergencies", "Deal with sexual violence and crime against women and children." The 38 activities were divided into seven dimensions, namely advice, investigate, station duties, crime prevention, assistance, family issues and security (Rothmann et al., 2002).

The survey was then divided into two sections. In the first section, namely, "At present", respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low to 5 = very high) what priority they think police currently give to each of the 38 activities. In the second section, namely, "Preferred" respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point scale (1 = very low to 5 = very high) what priority they think police should give to each of the 38 activities. The aim of this survey was to determine what respondents (public and police) believe police priorities are at present; what respondents (public and police) think police

priorities should be; and what is the level of consensus between perceptions of the police and the public (Beck et al., 1999).

- The *Minnesota Satisfaction Survey (MSQ)* indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied respondents are, by asking respondents to rate themselves on 20 questions by using a five-point scale (1 = very dissatisfied to 5 = very satisfied). The survey included questions like: “Being able to keep busy all the time”; “The chance to be ‘somebody’ in the community”; “The way my supervisor handles his/her workers”; “The praise I get for doing a good job.” A simple factor analysis was conducted to identify the number of factors for a sample of 450 police members in the North West Province. Two factors interrelated factors were extracted by using the Oblique method with a promax rotation. These factors were labelled Extrinsic Job Satisfaction (10 items;  $\alpha = 0,89$ ) and Intrinsic Job Satisfaction (9 items;  $\alpha = 0,84$ ).
- The *Police Stress Survey (PSS)* was developed to measure the job stress of participants. The PSS focuses on common work events that often results in psychological strain. Pienaar (2002) subjected the PSS to a factor analysis on a sample of 2500 police members and extracted three factors, namely Job Demands (17 items), Lack of Job Resources (14 items) and Police Stressors (8 items). The alpha coefficients were 0,92 (Job Demands), 0,92 (Lack of Job Resources) and 0,89 (Police Stressors), which indicate highly acceptable internal consistency of the three factors. The questionnaire is divided in two parts. Part A, consisting of 39 stressful job-related events, focus mainly on the amount of stress. Respondents were asked to rate themselves on a nine-point scale (1 = low to 9 = high). Part B consists of the same 39 stressful job related events as was used in part A, but this time the participant were asked to evaluate the frequency of the stressful event in the last six months on a nine-point scale.
- The *Maslach Burnout Inventory-General Survey (MBI-GS)* (Maslach et al., 1996) was used to measure burnout. The MBI-GS has three subscales: Exhaustion (Ex) (five items; e.g. “I feel used up at the end of the workday”), Cynicism (Cy) (five items; e.g. “I have become less enthusiastic about my work”) and Professional Efficacy (PE) (six items; e.g. “In my opinion, I am good at my job”). Together the subscales of the MBI-GS provide a three-dimensional perspective on burnout. Internal consistencies (Cronbach coefficient

alphas) reported by Schaufeli et al. (1996) varied from 0,87 to 0,89 for Exhaustion, 0,73 to 0,84 for Cynicism and 0,76 to 0,84 for Professional Efficacy. Test-retest reliabilities after one year were 0,65 (Exhaustion), 0,60 (Cynicism) and 0,67 (Professional Efficacy) (Schaufeli et al., 1996). All items are scored on a 7-point frequency rating scale ranging from “0”: (never) to “6” (daily). High scores on Ex and Cy, and low scores on PE are indicative of burnout. Storm (2002) confirmed the 3-factor structure of the MBI-GS in a sample of 2396 SAPS members, but recommended that Item 13 should be dropped from the questionnaire. They confirmed the structural equivalence of the MBI-GS for different race groups in the SAPS. The following Cronbach alpha coefficients were obtained for the MBI-GS: Exhaustion: 0,88; Cynicism: 0,79; Professional Efficacy: 0,78 (Storm, 2002).

- The *Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)* (Schaufeli et al., in press) was used to measure the levels of engagement of the participants. The UWES includes three dimensions, namely, vigour, dedication and absorption, which is conceptually seen as the opposite of burnout and is scored on a seven-point scale. It ranges from ‘0’ = never to ‘6’ = every day and include questions like “I am bursting with energy every day in my work”; “Time flies when I am at work” and “My job inspires me”. The UWES is scored on a seven-point frequency rating scale, varying from 0 (“never”) to 6 (“always”). The alpha coefficients for the three sub-scales varied between 0,68 and 0,91. The alpha coefficient could be improved ( $\alpha$  varies between 0,78 and 0,89 for the three sub-scales) by eliminating a few items without substantially decreasing the scales internal consistency. Storm (2002) obtained the following alpha coefficients for the UWES in a sample of 2396 members of the SAPS: Vigour: 0,78; Dedication: 0,89; Absorption: 0,78.

## **Procedure**

The study, which formed part of a larger project on attitudes towards community policing in the North West Province, was initiated during October 2000 after discussions with the Strategic Management Services of the SAPS in Pretoria. During 2001, the project was planned and funding for the project was obtained from the National Research Foundation. During January 2002 the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education and the University of North West (UNW) implemented the project. The project proposal was

presented to the Provincial Commissioner of the SAPS in the North West Province as well as the Area Commissioner in the Mooirivier area to get the support and collaboration of the SAPS. Literature searches were done and interviews as well as focus groups (including police experts) were conducted to develop the measuring instruments.

The English questionnaires were developed and translated into Afrikaans and Tswana by language experts. A process of back-translation was followed to ensure that the meaning of the words in the different languages was the same. Next, they were presented to members of the police and the community to check for face validity and final changes were made to them. The measuring battery of the police was only compiled in English. A total of 12 field workers (who were able to speak Afrikaans, English and/or Tswana) were used to administer the questionnaires. The researchers assisted by language experts trained the field workers prior to the start of fieldwork.

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

### **Data analysis**

The data analysis was carried out with the help of the SAS-program (SAS Institute, 2000). Principle factors extraction with Varimax rotation was performed through SAS FACTOR on 38 items of the PAS, 20 items of the MSQ, 44 items of the PSS, 16 items of the MBI-GS and 16 items of the UWES (Rothmann, 2002). Principle components extraction was used prior to principal factors extraction to estimate the number of factors, presence of outliers and factorability of the correlation matrices.

Cronbach-alpha coefficient and inter-item correlation coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of the measuring instruments (Clark & Watson, 1995). Coefficient alpha conveys important information regarding the proportion of error variance contained in a scale. According to Clark and Watson (1995), the average inter-item correlation coefficient

(which is a straightforward measure of internal consistency) is a useful index to supplement information supplied by coefficient alpha. However, unidimensionality of a scale cannot be ensured simply by focusing on the mean inter-item correlation – it is also necessary to examine the range and distribution of these correlation's. Descriptive statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data. T-tests and one-way analysis of the variance (ANOVA) were used to determine differences between the sub-groups in the sample. The following formula was used to determine the practical significance of differences (*d*) when t-tests were used (Steyn, 1999):

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

where

*Mean<sub>A</sub>* = Mean of the first group

*Mean<sub>B</sub>* = Mean of the second group

SD<sub>MAX</sub> = Highest standard deviation of the two groups

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

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

where

*Mean<sub>A</sub>* = Mean of the first group

*Mean<sub>B</sub>* = Mean of the second group

Root MSE = Root Mean Square Error

A cut-off point of 0,50 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of differences between means.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to specify the relationships between the variables. In the case where the distribution of scores was skew, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed. Effect sizes (Cohen, 1988) were computed to assess

the practical significance of findings. A cut-off point of 0.30 (medium effect, Cohen, 1988) was set for the practical significance of correlation coefficients.

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

## **RESULTS**

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients of the MSQ, JSS, MBI, UWES and PAS of the SAPS.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients And Inter-Item Correlation Coefficients Of The Measuring Instruments of the SAPS (N = 109)*

Measuring instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>Interitem r</i>	$\alpha$
<b>MSQ</b>						
Extrinsic Job Satisfaction	31.24	8.08	-0.15	-0.49	0.36	0.85
Intrinsic Job Satisfaction	34.72	5.98	-0.51	-0.09	0.35	0.83
Total Job Satisfaction	65.93	12.69	-0.18	-0.36	0.29	0.88
<b>JSS</b>						
Job Demands	88.83	22.89	-0.3	-0.23	0.31	0.88
Lack_Resources	82.51	21.73	-0.38	-0.06	0.38	0.89
Police_Stressors	45.56	15.49	-0.47	-0.83	0.45	0.87
<b>MBI</b>						
Emotional_Exhaustion	12.37	7.68	0.34	-0.7	0.55	0.86
Cynicism	8.08	5.54	0.77	0.27	0.45	0.76
Professional_Efficacy	26.56	7.79	-0.81	-0.09	0.41	0.79
<b>UWES</b>						
Vigor	25.96	7.66	-0.79	-0.17	0.50	0.85
Dedication	23.45	6.79	-1.14*	0.68*	0.74	0.93
Absorption	25.73	7.17	-0.89	0.97	0.43	0.81
<b>PAS - Present</b>						
Advice	19.61	5.46	-0.11	-0.43	0.54	0.87
Investigation	38.81	8.15	-0.34	0.92	0.48	0.91
Station duties	19.79	4.97	-0.11	-0.31	0.39	0.79
Crime prevention	12.10	3.71	-0.23	-0.18	0.46	0.77
Assisting	8.69	2.76	0.13	-0.51	0.46	0.72
Family Issues	16.93	4.46	-0.41	0.01	0.50	0.83
Security	10.40	3.12	-0.28	-0.78	0.46	0.74
<b>PAS - Preferred</b>						
Advice	26.49	3.89	-1.52*	2.76*	0.64	0.91
Investigation	51.28	4.71	-1.57*	1.69*	0.42	0.87
Station duties	26.82	3.06	-0.67	-0.49	0.35	0.76
Crime prevention	18.19	1.91	-0.91	0.31	0.48	0.77
Assisting	13.28	1.84	-0.93	0.19	0.51	0.75
Family Issues	22.01	2.88	-0.78	-0.11	0.31	0.69
Security	12.61	2.75	-0.90	-0.44	0.44	0.72

\* High skewness and kurtosis

Table 1 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.72 to 0.93 were obtained for most of the scales (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The mean inter-item correlations of all the scales are also acceptable ( $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.50$ , Clarke & Watson, 1994).

It is evident from Table 1 that most of the scores on the various measuring instruments are relatively normally distributed, with low skewness and kurtosis. The exception is Dedication, and the preferred items Advice and Investigation, which show relatively high skewness and kurtosis.

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics, Cronbach alpha coefficients and inter-item correlation coefficients of the PAS of the Klerksdorp area's community.

Table 2  
*Descriptive Statistics, Alpha Coefficients And Inter-Item Correlation Coefficients Of The Measuring Instruments of the Community (N = 488)*

Measuring instrument	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>	<i>Interitem r</i>	$\alpha$
<b>PAS – Present</b>						
Advice	14.44	5.07	0.26	-0.61	0.54	0.87
Investigation	29.78	9.30	0.04	-0.43	0.48	0.91
Station duties	16.35	4.86	0.14	-0.28	0.39	0.79
Crime prevention	9.30	3.82	0.54	-0.30	0.46	0.77
Assisting	7.11	2.86	0.29	-0.54	0.46	0.72
Family Issues	14.27	4.69	-0.13	-0.51	0.50	0.83
Security	8.57	2.98	0.05	-0.55	0.46	0.74
<b>PAS – Preferred</b>						
Advice	27.93	3.21	-1.90*	3.73*	0.64	0.91
Investigation	52.04	5.03	-2.97*	14.65*	0.42	0.87
Station duties	27.74	3.24	-1.79*	3.73*	0.35	0.76
Crime prevention	17.73	2.17	-2.12*	4.87*	0.48	0.77
Assisting	13.87	1.95	-2.07*	4.69*	0.51	0.75
Family Issues	23.67	2.44	-2.78*	11.79*	0.31	0.69
Security	13.78	1.94	-1.96*	4.85*	0.44	0.72

\* High skewness and kurtosis

Table 2 shows that acceptable Cronbach alpha coefficients varying from 0.69 to 0.91 were obtained for most of the scales (see Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). The mean inter-item correlations of all the scales are also acceptable ( $0.15 \leq r \leq 0.50$ , Clarke & Watson, 1994).

It is evident from Table 2 that the scores on the PAS – Present Priorities for the community, regarding the present priorities of the SAPS, are relatively normally distributed, with low

skewness and kurtosis. Whereas the scores on PAS – Preferred Priorities (preferred priorities of the SAPS according to the community) shows relatively high skewness and kurtosis.

The differences between present and preferred priorities of the PAS in the Klerksdorp area are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

*Differences Between Present and Preferred Priorities of the PAS in the Klerksdorp Area*

	Community Members' Perceptions					Police Members' Perceptions (N = 101)				
	Present		Preferred		d	Present		Preferred		d
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Advise businesses	2.13	1.19	4.61	0.73	1.74**	3.27	1.01	4.28	0.79	0.97**
Advise people	2.43	1.21	4.63	0.74	1.39**	3.31	1.15	4.42	0.74	0.53*
Organise meetings	2.33	1.28	4.61	0.79	1.27**	3.70	1.19	4.45	0.72	0.04
Advise local schools	2.92	1.38	4.76	0.56	0.52*	3.28	1.17	4.46	0.82	0.53*
Support victims	2.42	1.16	4.64	0.77	1.58**	3.04	1.07	4.49	0.70	1.16**
Advice on home security	2.21	1.21	4.67	0.67	1.64**	3.00	1.22	4.39	0.85	0.59*
Take statements	2.68	1.22	4.70	0.62	1.17**	3.66	1.09	4.64	0.64	0.59*
Collect information	2.58	1.25	4.69	0.64	1.17**	3.33	0.98	4.70	0.55	0.75*
Collect evidence	2.62	1.24	4.68	0.69	1.15**	3.61	1.07	4.67	0.68	0.75*
Protect crime scenes	2.54	1.36	4.70	0.63	0.91**	3.40	1.13	4.78	0.52	0.83**
Interview suspect	2.88	1.29	4.70	0.66	0.76*	3.52	1.02	4.66	0.59	1.05**
Arrest offenders	3.01	1.37	4.79	0.60	0.48	3.69	0.94	4.81	0.53	1.43**
Respond to emergencies	2.31	1.28	4.77	0.59	1.41**	3.58	0.97	4.79	0.48	1.36**
Investigate crime	2.65	1.16	4.73	0.58	1.42**	3.67	0.82	4.79	0.48	2.17**
Prepare cases for court	2.51	1.22	4.68	0.67	1.32**	3.64	0.98	4.75	0.50	1.21**
Handle lost/found property	2.44	1.14	4.69	0.47	1.67**	3.48	1.05	4.57	0.55	0.87**
Find stolen property	2.40	1.23	4.73	0.61	1.44**	3.13	1.09	4.63	0.59	1.12**
Transport prisoners	3.10	1.31	4.69	0.66	0.48	3.63	1.14	4.46	0.78	0.28
Check offenders out on bail	2.99	1.29	4.23	1.29	0.28	2.73	1.19	4.18	1.01	0.78*
Give formal warnings	2.82	1.21	4.68	0.71	1.04**	3.03	1.14	4.28	0.88	0.72*
Patrols other than on foot	2.37	1.33	4.79	0.56	1.23**	3.24	1.23	4.67	0.53	0.56*
Deal with disturbances	2.49	1.24	4.64	0.70	1.25**	3.28	1.17	4.31	0.82	0.40
Patrol on foot	1.98	1.27	4.67	0.73	1.69**	2.58	1.16	4.31	0.76	1.13**
Search people/cars/places	2.59	1.32	4.63	0.78	0.91**	3.25	1.12	4.64	0.57	0.89**
Gun licences	2.37	1.27	4.63	0.79	1.27**	3.03	1.29	4.57	0.80	0.51*
Control vice	2.05	1.22	4.61	0.85	1.72**	2.55	1.25	4.43	0.80	0.99**
Control liquor licences	2.57	1.34	4.61	0.85	0.87**	2.85	1.16	4.54	0.59	1.06**
Issue restraining orders	2.57	1.22	4.63	0.84	1.23**	2.81	1.10	4.34	0.86	1.13**
Death messages	3.18	1.44	4.76	0.61	0.13	3.37	1.17	4.06	1.13	0.10
Family violence	2.89	1.33	4.73	0.67	0.67*	3.59	1.03	4.51	0.68	0.78*
Traffic accidents	3.36	1.29	4.76	0.61	0.33	3.76	1.12	4.25	1.05	0.03
Missing persons	2.69	1.29	4.73	0.61	0.98**	3.28	1.08	4.29	0.87	0.69*
Police community centres	2.74	1.31	4.77	0.63	0.90**	3.45	1.15	4.57	0.82	0.52*
Protect important people	3.42	1.38	4.47	1.06	0.18	3.42	1.42	3.89	1.30	0.68*
Control crowds	2.46	1.31	4.74	0.64	1.16**	3.36	1.29	4.16	1.26	0.13
Take care of prisoners	2.69	1.27	4.57	0.93	0.91**	3.63	1.14	4.55	0.74	0.36
Deal with sexual violence	2.94	1.29	4.82	0.53	0.79*	3.87	1.15	4.81	0.43	0.31
Give feedback to victims	2.47	1.25	4.75	0.62	1.33**	3.28	1.08	4.55	0.61	0.93**

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

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

Table 3 indicates that the public obtained practically significant higher scores on most of the PAS items, except for Advise local schools, Check offenders out on bail, Protect important people, and Family violence, where the police scored practically significant higher scores of

medium effect and they (the SAPS) also obtained practically significant higher scores of large effect on Interview suspects, Arrest offenders, Investigate crime, Give formal warnings, and Control liquor licences.

The results show that the public believe that the present priorities of the police are attending traffic accidents, delivering death messages, arresting offenders, and transporting prisoners. The activities that they would prefer the police give more attention to include advising businesses, giving more advice on home security, patrolling on foot and controlling vice. Furthermore, the results show that police members believe that their present priorities are to deal with sexual violence incidents, attending to traffic accidents, arresting offenders and taking statements. The priorities that the police prefer they'd do, appear to be investigating crime, responding to emergencies and preparing cases for court.

The end result indicates that there is congruence between the priorities of the community and those of the SAPS in the following areas of activity: advising businesses and local schools, supporting victims and protecting crime scenes, and responding to emergencies

The differences between the present and preferred priorities in the SAPS according to the community based on language are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

*Differences Between Present and Preferred Priorities of the PAS According to the Community Based on Language (n = 327)*

Item	Mean – English (n = 86)	Mean – Afrikaans (n = 55)	Mean – Tswana (n = 190)	p	Root MSE
<b>PAS – Present</b>					
Advice	12.87 <sup>a</sup>	15.55 <sup>b</sup>	14.82	0.00*	5.00
Investigation	26.49 <sup>a</sup>	31.09 <sup>b</sup>	30.88	0.00*	9.12
Station duties	15.71	16.67	16.55	0.36	4.86
Crime prevention	8.67	8.95	9.68	0.09	3.80
Assisting	6.78	7.49	7.15	0.34	2.86
Family issues	12.50 <sup>a</sup>	14.25	15.08 <sup>b</sup>	0.00*	4.58
Security	8.57	8.69	8.54	0.95	2.98
<b>PAS – Preferred</b>					
Advice	27.31	27.15	28.44	0.00*	3.17
Investigation	51.89	50.55	52.53	0.03*	5.00
Station duties	26.08 <sup>c</sup>	26.93 <sup>b</sup>	28.72 <sup>a</sup>	0.00*	3.03
Crime prevention	18.37 <sup>b</sup>	18.05	19.08 <sup>a</sup>	0.00*	2.14
Assisting	13.71	13.24 <sup>b</sup>	14.12 <sup>a</sup>	0.01*	1.93
Family issues	23.48	23.09	23.93	0.05*	2.43
Security	13.38	12.98 <sup>b</sup>	14.19 <sup>a</sup>	0.00*	1.88

a Practically significant difference from area (in row) where b (medium effect,  $d \geq 0.50$ ) or c (large effect,  $d \geq 0.80$ ) are indicated

\* Statistical significant  $p \leq 0.05$

Table 4 shows practical significant differences of medium effect between English- and Afrikaans-speaking community members regarding how they currently view the police in terms of Advice and Investigation. Table 4 also shows practical significant differences of medium effect between English- and Tswana-speaking community members regarding their present perception of Family Issues. Furthermore, Table 4 shows no practical significant differences of how Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking community members view the police at present.

Table 4 also shows practical significant differences of medium and large effect between Tswana-, English- and Afrikaans-speaking community members of how they expect the police to perform their Station Duties. Table 4 also shows that a practical significant difference of medium effect was obtained between Tswana- and English-speaking community members regarding their expectations of how the police should prevent crime. Table 4 also indicates that there were practical significant differences of medium effect of

how the Tswana- and Afrikaans-speaking community members expect the police to assist and secure their neighbourhoods.

Table 5 report how the police in the Klerksdorp area perceive the community, as well as how they expect them to co-operate.

Table 5

*Contact with the Community for Police in the Klerksdorp Area (N = 109)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Level of trust in the community to co-operate</b>		
Very low – low	35	32
Average	53	49
High – very high	20	19
<b>Satisfying the needs of the community</b>		
Very low – low	5	5
Average	56	53
High – very high	45	42
<b>Overall performance of the SAPS in serving the community</b>		
Very low – low	8	7
Average	51	48
High – very high	48	45
<b>Media reliability</b>		
Very low – low	36	34
Average	51	47
High – very high	20	19

Table 5 indicate that 32% of the police trust the community not to co-operate at all, whereas 49% trust the community to co-operate only to a certain extent and only 19% trust the community to co-operate in full. Five percent of the police believe that they do not satisfy the needs of the community, whereas 42% believe that they do satisfy the needs of the community. Forty eight percent of the police members indicated that they serve the community only to a certain extent. As much 34% of the police regard the media as unreliable in reporting crime, whereas 19% indicate that the media is reliable in reporting crime.

Perceptions of the community who had contact with the SAPS during the previous 12 months, are displayed in Table 6.

Table 6

*Community Members in the Klerksdorp Area who had Contact with the SAPS (N = 161)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Level of competence</b>		
Very low – low	53	34.20
Average	65	41.94
High – very high	37	23.87
<b>Helpfulness</b>		
Very low – low	64	39.75
Average	43	26.71
High – very high	54	33.54
<b>Interest in situation</b>		
Very low – low	71	44.38
Average	42	26.25
High – very high	47	29.38
<b>Courtesy respectfulness</b>		
Very low – low	55	34.16
Average	50	31.06
High – very high	56	34.78
<b>Overall attitude</b>		
Very low – low	57	35.63
Average	61	38.12
High – very high	42	26.25
<b>Fairness</b>		
Very low – low	54	23.76
Average	51	31.88
High – very high	45	34.38
<b>Level of trust</b>		
Very low – low	72	44.72
Average	42	26.09
High – very high	47	29.20
<b>Satisfaction with service provided</b>		
Very low – low	117	71.34
Average	27	16.46
High – very high	20	12.20
<b>Satisfaction with responding officer</b>		
Very low – low	111	69.37
Average	31	19.37
High – very high	18	11.26
<b>Reasons for dissatisfaction</b>		
Slow response time	47	
Officer seemed not to care	31	
Officer did not follow up	32	
Officer did not listen to victim	9	
Officer was rude	12	
No arrest	21	
Other	7	

Table 6 shows that 34% of the community members, who had contact with the police during the previous 12 months, perceived them as incompetent, whereas 24% perceived them as

competent. However, 42% indicates that the police are only competent to a certain extent. Only 33% of the community members experienced the police to be helpful, while as much as 44% perceived the police not to be interested in the situation. Thirty-one percent of the community members perceived the police to be only courteous and respectful to a certain extent and 35% perceived their overall attitude as substandard. Thirty-four percent of the community members regard the police to be fair. Consequently, 45% of the community members indicated that they do not trust the police, whereas 36% indicated that they trust the police only to a certain extent.

Table 6 shows that only 12% of the community members were satisfied with the service provided, and only 11% indicated that they were satisfied with the responding officer. When the question was asked why they were dissatisfied, 47 of respondents implied that the response were very slow, 32 were of meaning that the officers did not follow up the incident, and 21 of the respondents indicated that no arrests were made.

Table 7 indicates neighbourhood concerns, confidence in the SAPS, as well as the sources of information about the police for community members in the Klerksdorp area.

Table 7

*Neighbourhood Concerns, Confidence in and Information about the SAPS for Community Members (N= 488)*

Item	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Visibility of police</b>		
Generally not seen	154	31.95
1 – 3 times per week	132	27.39
4 – 10 times per week	71	14.73
More than 10 times per week	125	25.93
<b>Safety and security of the neighbourhood</b>		
Very unsafe – unsafe	157	32.64
Fairly safe	203	42.20
Safe – Very safe	121	15.16
<b>Neighbourhood safety</b>		
Less safe	128	27.12
About as safe	244	51.69
More safe	100	21.18
<b>Confidence</b>		
Police	415	87.74
Private security company	25	5.29
Local civic	13	2.75
CPF	11	2.33
Other	9	1.90
<b>Information</b>		
Radio	218	
Newspapers	161	
TV	243	
Friends/relatives	46	
Police friends/relatives	55	
CPF	26	
Community meetings	41	
Local police stations	83	

The results in Table 7 shows that the visibility of the police may differ from one subsection of the community to another. The results in Table 7 shows that 32% of the community members do not generally see the police in their neighbourhood, whereas 26% see them more than 10 times per week. Forty-two percent of the community members perceive the safety and security of their neighbourhood to be fairly safe, furthermore 52% feel that their neighbourhood is about as safe as other neighbourhoods. Regarding confidence in the SAPS, it seems that if a crime were committed against members of the community, 88% of the community would go to the police for help. The results show that 218 (radio), 161 (newspaper) and 243 (television) of the respondents obtain their information from the media. Only 26 of the respondents indicated that they obtain their information about the police at Community Policing Forums (CPF's).

Table 8 shows stressful job related events regarding police work, with a cut-off point of 20 for Job Demands and Lack of Resources, and 10 for Police Stressors in order for the data to be of practical significant value.

Table 8  
*Stressfull Job Related Events (N = 109)*

Item	Mean JSA (Frequency)	Mean JSB (Intensity)	Seriousness
<b>Job Demands</b>			
Frequent changes from boring to demanding activities	5.41	4.53	24.51
Assignment of increased responsibility	5.19	4.52	23.46
Making critical on-the-spot decisions	5.27	4.38	23.08
Dealing with crises situations	5.67	4.09	23.19
Excessive paperwork	6.20	5.98	37.08
Covering work for another employee	5.68	4.66	26.47
Working overtime	5.52	5.29	29.20
Frequent interruptions	5.47	4.93	26.97
Performing tasks not in job description	5.64	4.44	25.04
<b>Lack of Resources</b>			
Insufficient personnel to handle an assignment	6.29	5.28	33.21
Inadequate or poor quality equipment	6.18	5.04	31.15
Lack of recognition for good work	5.66	4.13	23.37
Fellow workers not doing their job	6.21	5.29	32.85
Inadequate support by supervisor	5.76	3.68	21.19
Experiencing negative attitudes towards the organisation	5.58	4.79	26.72
Lack of opportunity for advancement	5.66	4.01	22.69
Poorly motivated co-workers	5.83	5.02	29.26
Inadequate salary	6.64	5.32	35.32
Staff shortages	6.82	5.98	40.78
Lack of participation in policy-making decisions	5.68	3.63	20.61
Competition for advancement	5.82	3.63	21.12
<b>Police Stressors</b>			
A forced arrest or being physically attacked	5.61	2.48	13.91
Having to handle large crowds/mass demonstration	5.08	2.59	13.15
Racial conflict	5.86	3.33	19.51
Delivering a death message or bad news to someone	5.12	2.04	10.44
Seeing criminals go free	7.14	3.94	28.13

Table 8 indicates that, regarding Job Demands, police members seem to work overtime and handle excessive paperwork frequently and intensively, which could produce unnecessary Job Stress. The frequency of interruptions and covering work for another employee, appear also to be of serious nature. Concerning Lack of Resources as a dimension of Job Stress, it seems as if the shortage of staff and inadequate salaries and equipment are serious causes of

Job Stress in the police. Whereas the lack of participation in policy-making decisions, competition for advancement and inadequate support by supervisors do not seem to have a too serious impact on Job Stress in the police. Regarding Police Stressors, the two most serious police stressors seem to be seeing criminals go free and dealing with racial conflict.

The product-moment correlation coefficients between Extrinsic Job Satisfaction, Intrinsic Job Satisfaction, Job Demands, Lack of Resources, Police Stressors, Exhaustion, Cynicism, Professional Efficacy, Vigour, Dedication and Absorption are reported in Table 9. In the case of Dedication and other constructs, Spearman correlation coefficients were computed because of the skewed distribution of the dedication scores. Table 9 also shows the Spearman correlation coefficients between Dedication and the other constructs.

Table 9  
*Correlation Coefficients Between The MSQ, JSS, MBI And UWES (N = 109)*

Items	Extrinsic job satisfaction	Intrinsic job satisfaction	Job demands	Lack of resources	Police stressors	Exhaust	Cynicism	Prof. efficacy	Vigour	Ded.
Intrinsic job satisfaction	0,61 <sup>+++</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Job demands	-0.13	0.04	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lack of resources	-0.19	0.09	0.69 <sup>+++</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Police stressors	0.00	0.18	0.58 <sup>+++</sup>	0.64 <sup>+++</sup>	-	-	-	-	-	-
Exhaustion	-0.27 <sup>*</sup>	-0.14	0.56 <sup>+++</sup>	0.39 <sup>+</sup>	0.32 <sup>++</sup>	-	-	-	-	-
Cynicism	-0.27 <sup>*</sup>	-0.20 <sup>*</sup>	0.26 <sup>*</sup>	0.27 <sup>*</sup>	0.19 <sup>*</sup>	0.55 <sup>+++</sup>	-	-	-	-
Professional efficacy	0.17	0.50 <sup>+++</sup>	0.30 <sup>+</sup>	0.27 <sup>*</sup>	0.31 <sup>++</sup>	0.07	-0.08	-	-	-
Vigour	0.39 <sup>+</sup>	0.38 <sup>+</sup>	-0.02	-0.04	0.17	-0.22 <sup>*</sup>	-0.34 <sup>*</sup>	0.45 <sup>++</sup>	-	-
Dedication	0.42 <sup>+</sup>	0.45 <sup>++</sup>	0.09	-0.16	0.07	-0.20 <sup>*</sup>	-0.35 <sup>*</sup>	0.45 <sup>++</sup>	0.82 <sup>+++</sup>	-
Absorption	0.37 <sup>++</sup>	0.39 <sup>++</sup>	0.01	0.02	0.17	-0.05	-0.20 <sup>*</sup>	0.45 <sup>++</sup>	0.81 <sup>+++</sup>	0.73 <sup>+++</sup>

\* Statistically significant:  $p \leq 0.05$

+ Practically significant:  $r > 0.30$  (medium effect)

++ Practically significant  $r > 0.50$  (large effect)

Table 9 shows practically significant (negative) correlation coefficients of medium effect between the following: Cynicism on the one hand and Vigour and Dedication on the other hand; Extrinsic and Intrinsic with Vigour, Dedication and Absorption; Job Demands and Professional Efficacy; and Lack of Resources and Exhaustion. The following correlation coefficients were practically significant of large effect: Intrinsic on the one hand and Extrinsic and Professional Efficacy on the other hand; Job Demands and Lack of Resources, Police Stressors and Exhaustion; Lack of Resources and Police Stressors; Exhaustion and

Cynicism; Vigour on the one hand, and Dedication and Absorption on the other hand; and Dedication and Absorption.

Canonical correlation was performed between a set of Job Stress and Burnout, Job Stress and Work Engagement, Burnout and Work Engagement, as well as Job Satisfaction and Burnout using SAS CANCORR. Shown in the tables are correlations between the variables and canonical variates, standardised canonical variate coefficients, within-set variance accounted for by the canonical variates (percent of variance), redundancies and canonical correlations.

The results of the canonical analysis between job stress and burnout are reported in Table 10.

Table 10

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Stress and Burnout (n = 109)*

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Stressor set</b>		
Job Demands	0.99	0.89
Lack of Resources	0.74	0.03
Police Stressors	0.67	0.14
Percent of Variance	0.66	
Redundancy	0.26	
<b>Burnout set</b>		
Exhaustion	0.89	0.87
Cynicism	0.43	-0.02
Professional Efficacy	0.51	0.44
Percent of Variance	0.42	
Redundancy	0.16	
Canonical correlation	0.62	

The first canonical correlation was 0.62 (39% overlapping variance). The other two canonical correlations were 0.21 and 0.09. With all three canonical correlations included  $F(9, 248.39) = 6.91, p < 0.0001$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was only somewhat related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the stressor set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Job Demands, Lack of Resources, and Police Stressors. Among the burnout variables, Exhaustion, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy correlated with the

first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that job demands (0.99), lack of resources (0.74) and police stressors (0.67) are associated with exhaustion (0.89), cynicism (0.43) and professional efficacy (0.51).

The results of the canonical analysis of Job Stress and Work Engagement are shown in Table 11.

Table 11

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Stress and Work Engagement (n = 109)*

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Stressor set</b>		
Job Demands	0.24	1.06
Lack of Resources	-0.49	-1.47
Police Stressors	0.05	0.37
Percent of Variance	0.10	
Redundancy	0.02	
<b>Work Engagement set</b>		
Vigour	0.23	-0.70
Dedication	0.61	2.07
Absorption	0.10	-1.04
Percent of Variance	0.16	
Redundancy	0.02	
Canonical correlation	0.37	

The first canonical correlation was 0.37 (14% overlapping variance). The other two canonical correlations were 0.26 and 0.07. With all three canonical correlations included  $F(9, 243.52) = 2.54, p < 0.0084$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was moderately related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the Stressor set that were correlated with the first canonical variate was Lack of Resources. Among the Work Engagement variables, Dedication correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that a low score on lack of resources (-0.49) is associated with low dedication.

The results of the canonical analysis of Burnout and Work Engagement are shown in Table 12.

Table 12

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Burnout and Work Engagement (n = 109)*

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
<b>Burnout set</b>		
Exhaustion	-0.38	-0.13
Cynicism	-0.67	-0.53
Professional Efficacy	0.79	0.75
Percent of Variance	0.41	
Redundancy	0.15	
<b>Work Engagement set</b>		
Vigor	0.91	0.42
Dedication	0.97	0.88
Absorption	0.75	-0.32
Percent of Variance	0.78	
Redundancy	0.29	
Canonical correlation	0.60	

The first canonical correlation was 0.60 (37% overlapping variance). The other two canonical correlations were 0.25 and 0.11. With all three canonical correlations included  $F(9, 245.96) = 6.70, p < 0.0001$ . Subsequent F-tests were not statistically significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of canonical variates was somewhat related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the Burnout set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Exhaustion, Cynicism, and Professional Efficacy. Among the Work Engagement variables, Vigour, Dedication and Absorption correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that low exhaustion (-0.38), low cynicism (-0.67) and professional efficacy (0.79) are associated with vigour (0.91), dedication (0.97) and absorption (0.75).

The results of the canonical analysis of Job Satisfaction and Burnout are shown in Table 13.

Table 13

*Results of the Canonical Analysis: Job Satisfaction and Burnout (n = 109)*

	First Canonical Variate	
	Correlation	Coefficient
Satisfaction set		
Extrinsic	0.46	-0.23
Intrinsic	0.98	1.12
Percent of Variance	0.35	
Redundancy	0.10	
Burnout set		
Exhaustion	-0.18	-0.19
Cynicism	-0.30	-0.12
Professional Efficacy	0.96	0.97
Percent of Variance	0.59	
Redundancy	0.17	
Canonical correlation	0.54	

The first canonical correlation was 0.54 (30% variance). The other canonical correlation was 0.28. With both canonical correlations included  $F(6, 208) = 8.34, p < 0.0001$ . Subsequent *F*-tests were not statistically significant ( $p < 0.0001$ ). The first pair of canonical variates, therefore, accounted for the significant relationships between the two sets of variables. Total percent of variance and total redundancy indicate that the first pair of variables somewhat related.

With a cut-off correlation of 0.30 the variables in the Job Satisfaction set that were correlated with the first canonical variate were Extrinsic and Intrinsic job satisfaction. Among the Burnout variables, Cynicism and Professional Efficacy correlated with the first canonical variate. The first pair of canonical variates indicates that extrinsic (0.46) and intrinsic job satisfaction (0.98) are associated with low cynicism (-0.30) and professional efficacy (0.96).

## DISCUSSION

Community policing can be described as an attempt to establish an active partnership between the police and the community, especially at local level through which crime, service delivery and community-police relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

With this in mind, it was the objective of this study to community-police relations regarding the expectations and satisfaction of the community members towards the SAPS in the Klerksdorp area, observing if there is any differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members, as well as to examine the determine police personnel's perceptions of their functions. In addition to this, comparisons were made in order to establish if there were any congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions.

According to the *expectancy disconfirmation* model, consumer satisfaction is a response to the congruency between an individual's expectations and the actual performance of a product. When applied to policing, citizen satisfaction may be viewed as a function of the interrelationship between what citizens expect from police and their perceptions of police performance (i.e. services rendered).

The PAS survey was used to collect data about what the community believe are and should be the priorities assigned by the police service to a range of police activities. The data collected with this survey were used to identify discrepancies between what the community believe are police priorities at present and what they would like police priorities to be, and between what the community and police believe are and should be police priorities.

The results obtained from the PAS showed that the public believed that the present priorities of the police are attending traffic accidents, delivering death messages, arresting offenders, and transporting prisoners. The activities that they would prefer the police give more attention to, would be advising businesses, giving more advice on home security, patrolling on foot and controlling vice. These findings is partly inconsistent with other studies of this type. Beck et al. (1999) found that the public sees and wants the investigation of crime to be the highest priority for police, but in this study the investigation of crime is combined with giving advice.

Why then does the community in the Klerksdorp area's perceptions and expectations differ from those in other countries? First of all one can look at the perception of the public of the present priorities of the South African Police Service. The violent society in which South Africans live is reflected daily in the media. Dispite the disapproval of some forms of violent action, it is also characteristic of modern society that certain forms of violent behaviour are accepted as normal. When the consequences of serious traffic offences in terms of the extent

of injuries and deaths are taken into account, it becomes apparent that this form of violence has become a general occurrence. According to Van den Berg en Pretorius (2001), on average 10 000 persons die annually on South African roads, 50 000 are seriously injured, while a further 150 000 are lightly injured. It could be argued that traffic accidents have a unique place in the South African society, and that it could be expected that the public would perceive the attendance of traffic accidents, and in effect the delivering of death messages, as a present priority of the police.

Postapartheid South Africa is going through a period in its history where excessive high levels of crime are being experienced. This 'bull-run' in crime is of great concern to citizens as well as the police. The perception that South Africa is subjected to a pervasive culture of violence – some would even typify the country as *the* most violent society in the world – has gained considerable momentum over the past few years. Violence has indeed characterised South African society over many decades of repression and resistance. Thus, when taking the previous statement into account, it is expected that the public would also view the arresting and transporting of offenders by police as a present priority.

When looking at the expectations of the public towards the service delivered by the police, it is understandable that members of the community would like to be advised on certain safety and security measures that can be applied in businesses - commercial crimes has an impact on profit margins with dire consequences for the national economy; and at home – your "home is where your heart is" rightly implicates the location of that which you hold dear, for example your family, your possessions, etc. Thus, this giving of advice on home and business security, would lead to proactive crime prevention in large parts of the community. Crime prevention could also be furthered through increased patrolling on foot by the police – as expected by the community.

According to the results, the only significant difference between Afrikaans- and Tswana speaking community members, was how they expected the police to help/assist them and secure their neighborhoods. As mentioned in the beginning of the article, people, according to their own conviction, behave in a rational, purposeful, logical manner, depending upon how they perceive the objective world. Every person responds to the world according to the way he/she perceives it. Thus, what the Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking community members separately believe the concept 'assisting' mean, would influence the way in which they

expect to be helped. The same would count for the way they expect the police to secure their neighbourhoods. The type of neighbourhoods differ between the two language/culture groups. In this study, most of the Tswana-speaking community members lived in the townships in the Klerksdorp area. The culture in the townships on its own differs in this instance that there is a different occurrence of crime. Thus, what people in Afrikaans communities experience as high crime risks, may vary to that which is experienced as high crime risks in the Tswana communities. In effect, the way in which the two different language groups expect the police to secure their various neighbourhoods, will not be the same.

The results gathered through the PAS from the police showed that they perceived their present priorities to be dealing with sexual violence incidents, attending traffic accidents, arresting offenders and taking statements. The priorities that the police prefer they do, appear to be investigating crime, responding to emergencies and preparing cases for court. It seems then that the dimension of Investigating Crime is perceived by the police as both present and preferred priority. This is also consistent with other studies of this type, where Beck et al. (1999) found that the police believed the investigation of crime is their most important role.

The end result indicates that there is congruence between the priorities of the community and those of the SAPS in this sense that both the SAPS and the community perceive the present and preferred priorities of the police to be the investigation of crime, with the exception that the public expect the police to make the giving of advice a higher priority. This would in effect strengthen the relationship between the police and the community, establishing a firm proactive partnership between the two groups and accordingly reaching its objectives for community policing.

Bearing in mind that the success of community policing are also determined by the service delivery of the police, the relationship between police personnel in the Klerksdorp area's job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement were also examined, determining the implications thereof for service rendered.

Law enforcement is one of the professions where stress has been a special concern. This study ascertained that staff shortages and inadequate salaries are two of the most dominant causes of police stress. In addition to this, working overtime, the frequent handling of

excessive paperwork and seeing criminals go free, appear to be also main sources of police stress. These findings correlate predominantly with the comparable police studies of Brown and Campbell (1990, 1994) and Alexander et al. (1993), who established that staff shortages, inadequate resources, time pressure, lack of communication and work overload are the stressors that cause the highest levels of police stress.

It is understandable that staff shortages and inadequate salaries two of the most dominant police stressors in the SAPS. Our country is going through a period where there is a lack of resources regarding the police service. There is not enough police members to effectively handle and prevent crime, not enough financial resources to acquire more police personnel or to provide better salaries for the existing police personnel. This will evidently have an effect on the service delivery of the police, as Maslach and Pines (1977) and Pines and Kafry (1978) stated that stressful situations that occur in the workplace have a significant effect on worker productivity.

The results of this study showed that there were correlations between intrinsic job satisfaction on the one hand and extrinsic job satisfaction and professional efficacy on the other hand. Job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). It is thus perceptible that how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, would show a relationship with how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself and how they evaluate themselves with regard to their accomplishments at work.

Correlations were also found between Police Stressors and Exhaustion, which refers to the depletion or draining of emotional resources. This is consistent with a study done by Schaufeli, Leiter, and Kalinmo (1995), where they found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload, and job stress at work. Seeing criminals go free is a dimension of Police Stressors that causes police stress. The police are very involved in the criminal justice process. Because it is their responsibility to apprehend criminals and do the preliminary preparation of cases for the court, the perception may be formed with the police members that some of the sentences are too light or not appropriate. Koortzen (1996) found that this perception can have a demoralising effect on police members, which again confirms the correlation between Police Stressors and Exhaustion.

Schaufeli et al. (in press) defined engagement as “a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption”, and in this study, correlations were found between Vigour on the one hand, and Dedication and Absorption on the other hand. It has been said by people from other countries that South Africans are hard-working people that are committed to their jobs. This seem to be true, especially among police members. Policing is not your average nine to five job, but entails life threatening situations and a variety of actions that has to be performed daily, which differs each day. If one looks at the type of person that choose law enforcement as a profession, it becomes evident that he/she has to have a certain amount of motivation to wield effort in their work and perseverance even when times are hard. As well as having focused thought, clear minds, mind and body harmony, unproblematic attentiveness and absolute control in their work situation in order to experience job satisfaction. It becomes apparent then that there would be a link between vigour, dedication and absorption.

Burnout is conceived as a set of negative psychological experiences, reflecting a ‘wearing out’ from prolonged exposure to the stresses of work (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). In this study, there is a correlation between exhaustion (the depletion or draining of emotional resources) and cynicism (a negative, callous and cynical attitude towards recipients). Police members have to work with people every day, and this may put an emotional strain on them, which has an effect on and is influenced by their conduct towards the community.

The above mentioned results can be linked to the results obtained regarding the view those of the community who had contact with the police, who considered their lowest attributes to be ‘level of trust’, ‘interest in situation’ and ‘overall attitude’. One could make the assumption that because of the cynical attitude of members of the police, it would be understandable that the public feel that police members are not interested in their situation and that they are not really trustworthy. Though it is noteworthy that most of the police members only trust the community to co-operate with them to a certain extent.

Despite the fact that the community experienced the level of trust, interest in situation and overall attitude of the police negatively, it appears as if the police’s courtesy and respectfulness and fairness are experienced as positive. The most recurrent reasons for being dissatisfied with the police seems to be ‘slow response time’, ‘officer seemed not to care’ and ‘officer did not follow up’. This can be linked to the lack of resources that the SAPS

experience at the moment. Police members do not possess the necessary resources to respond in time or to follow up complaints. In spite of the seemingly negative attitude of the community towards the police, the results obtained through this study shows that if a crime were committed against members of the community, most of them would still go to the police for help.

The media have a vested interest in crime, criminal victimisation, policing and the general well-being of society in terms of safety and security. They "...have a responsibility to inform the public of critical issues and make a profit" (Radelet & Carter, 1994). According to the results obtained from the community, the media (radio, TV, newspapers) are their main source of information about the police. But according to the results obtained from this study, a large portion of the police regard the media as unreliable in reporting crime. Potgieter and Mersham (2002) found in their study of the role of the media in community policing that the police respondents in the Durban police area perceive the media to be too critical of how they perform their job. This in turn, may exert a negative influence on police service delivery as well as police image. The sensationalising of criminal events in this police area may increase fear of crime among law-abiding citizens.

Perhaps the most serious limitations of this research is the reliance on cross-sectional, perceptual measures. Data collected through self-report measures at one point in time have the potential to inflate the observed relationships spuriously, introducing what is termed *common method variance*. Another limitation was that a non-probability sample has been used, which implies that the findings cannot be generalised to other settings. The sample size was relatively small, limiting the generalisation of findings to other areas in the North West Province. Most of the questionnaires were distributed across the Klerksdorp area, to be collected at a later time. The result was that not all of the questionnaires were collected, causing that only a section of the Klerksdorp area's expectations and satisfactions with the SAPS being interpreted. Another limitation of the present study is the nature of the community sample. Care must be taken to ensure that any "community" sample is not prejudiced towards one section of the community to the disadvantage of another. In the present study, the sample was selected at random from the citizens of the Klerksdorp area in the North West Province. Their responses may differ from people who live in other towns in the Province, or from the citizens of other countries, and for whom different law enforcement issues are important.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. Therefore, the police need to balance their commitment to the community across the complete set of functions and activities they undertake. To support this commitment, some police organizations may need to modify their structure and reward systems to encourage operational officers to be more involved in the non-crime related activities that the public see as high priority (e.g. providing advise on business and home security and patrolling on foot). This would result in better police ties with the community, a better understanding within the community of the police role, and more realistic expectations on both sides of the outcomes of policing.

Regarding burnout, job satisfaction and stress and work engagement within the SAPS, the practical implications of this study are that police personnel management should pay serious attention to burnout in general and exhaustion among police officers in particular. Police departments should place greater emphasis on improving their organizational health. Although it is important to assist individual police officers whose psychological well-being is affected by their work, an organizational rather than an individual approach is more likely to be effective, as most stressors were found to be at an organizational level. In police forces, teams are the most important organizational units, and should therefore be the focus of interventions.

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## CHAPTER 3

### CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the conclusions regarding the literature review and results of the empirical study are made. The limitations of the research are discussed, followed by recommendations for the organisation and further research.

#### 3.1 CONCLUSIONS

Community policing can be described as an attempt to establish an active partnership between the police and the community, especially at local level through which crime, service delivery and community-police relations can be jointly analysed and appropriate solutions designed and implemented (Department of Safety and Security, 1997).

With this in mind, it was the objective of this study to community-police relations regarding the expectations and satisfaction of the community members towards the SAPS in the Klerksdorp area, observing if there is any differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members, as well as to examine the determine police personnel's perceptions of their functions. In addition to this, comparisons were made in order to establish if there were any congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions.

The first objective of this study was to determine what the community in the Klerksdorp area expect from the SAPS, to assess their satisfaction with the SAPS and to determine differences between the expectations and satisfaction of Afrikaans, English and Tswana speaking members. According to the *expectancy disconfirmation* model, consumer satisfaction is a response to the congruency between an individual's expectations and the actual performance of a product. When applied to policing, citizen satisfaction may be viewed as a function of the interrelationship between what citizens expect from police and their perceptions of police performance (i.e. services rendered).

The PAS survey was used to collect data about what the community believe are and should be the priorities assigned by the police service to a range of police activities. The data collected with this survey were used to identify discrepancies between what the community believe are police priorities at present and what they would like police priorities to be, and between what the community and police believe are and should be police priorities.

The results obtained from the PAS showed that the public believed that the present priorities of the police are attending traffic accidents, delivering death messages, arresting offenders, and transporting prisoners. The activities that they would prefer the police give more attention to, would be advising businesses, giving more advice on home security, patrolling on foot and controlling vice. These findings is partly inconsistent with other studies of this type. Beck et al. (1999) found that the public sees and wants the investigation of crime to be the highest priority for police, but in this study the investigation of crime is combined with giving advice.

Why then does the community in the Klerksdorp area's perceptions and expectations differ from those in other countries? First of all one can look at the perception of the public of the present priorities of the South African Police Service. The violent society in which South Africans live is reflected daily in the media. Despite the disapproval of some forms of violent action, it is also characteristic of modern society that certain forms of violent behaviour are accepted as normal. When the consequences of serious traffic offences in terms of the extent of injuries and deaths are taken into account, it becomes apparent that this form of violence has become a general occurrence. According to Van den Berg en Pretorius (2001), on average 10 000 persons die annually on South African roads, 50 000 are seriously injured, while a further 150 000 are lightly injured. It could be argued that traffic accidents have a unique place in the South African society, and that it could be expected that the public would perceive the attendance of traffic accidents, and in effect the delivering of death messages, as a present priority of the police.

Postapartheid South Africa is going through a period in its history where excessive high levels of crime are being experienced. This 'bull-run' in crime is of great concern to citizens as well as the police. The perception that South Africa is subjected to a pervasive culture of violence – some would even typify the country as *the* most violent society in the world – has gained considerable momentum over the past few years. Violence has indeed characterised

South African society over many decades of repression and resistance. Thus, when taking the previous statement into account, it is expected that the public would also view the arresting and transporting of offenders by police as a present priority.

When looking at the expectations of the public towards the service delivered by the police, it is understandable that members of the community would like to be advised on certain safety and security measures that can be applied in businesses - commercial crimes has an impact on profit margins with dire consequences for the national economy; and at home – your “home is where your heart is” rightly implicates the location of that which you hold dear, for example your family, your possessions, etc. Thus, this giving of advice on home and business security, would lead to proactive crime prevention in large parts of the community. Crime prevention could also be furthered through increased patrolling on foot by the police – as expected by the community.

According to the results, the only significant difference between Afrikaans- and Tswana speaking community members, was how they expected the police to help/assist them and secure their neighborhoods. As mentioned in the beginning of the article, people, according to their own conviction, behave in a rational, purposeful, logical manner, depending upon how they perceive the objective world. Every person responds to the world according to the way he/she perceives it. Thus, what the Afrikaans- and Tswana-speaking community members separately believe the concept ‘assisting’ mean, would influence the way in which they expect to be helped. The same would count for the way they expect the police to secure their neighbourhoods. The type of neighbourhoods differ between the two language / culture groups. In this study, most of the Tswana-speaking community members lived in the townships in the Klerksdorp area. The culture in the townships on its own differs in this instance that there is a different occurrence of crime. Thus, what people in Afrikaans communities experience as high crime risks, may vary to that which is experienced as high crime risks in the Tswana communities. In effect, the way in which the two different language groups expect the police to secure their various neighbourhoods, will not be the same.

The second objective of this study was to determine police personnel in the Klerksdorp area’s perceptions of their functions. The results gathered through the PAS from the police showed that they perceived their present priorities to be dealing with sexual violence incidents,

attending traffic accidents, arresting offenders and taking statements. The priorities that the police prefer they do, appear to be investigating crime, responding to emergencies and preparing cases for court. It seems then that the dimension of Investigating Crime is perceived by the police as both present and preferred priority. This is also consistent with other studies of this type, where Beck et al. (1999) found that the police believed the investigation of crime is their most important role.

A third objective for this study was to determine the congruence between the community's expectations of the SAPS and police officials' perceptions of their functions. The end result indicates that there is congruence between the priorities of the community and those of the SAPS in this sense that both the SAPS and the community perceive the present and preferred priorities of the police to be the investigation of crime, with the exception that the public expect the police to make the giving of advice a higher priority. This would in effect strengthen the relationship between the police and the community, establishing a firm proactive partnership between the two groups and accordingly reaching its objectives for community policing.

Bearing in mind that the success of community policing are also determined by the service delivery of the police, the relationship between police personnel in the Klerksdorp area's job satisfaction, stress, burnout and work engagement were also examined as a fourth objective for this study, determining the implications thereof for service rendered.

Law enforcement is one of the professions where stress has been a special concern. This study ascertained that staff shortages and inadequate salaries are two of the most dominant causes of police stress. In addition to this, working overtime, the frequent handling of excessive paperwork and seeing criminals go free, appear to be also main sources of police stress. These findings correlate predominantly with the comparable police studies of Brown and Campbell (1990, 1994) and Alexander et al. (1993), who established that staff shortages, inadequate resources, time pressure, lack of communication and work overload are the stressors that cause the highest levels of police stress.

It is understandable that staff shortages and inadequate salaries two of the most dominant police stressors in the SAPS. Our country is going through a period where there is a lack of resources regarding the police service. There is not enough police members to effectively

handle and prevent crime, not enough financial resources to acquire more police personnel or to provide better salaries for the existing police personnel. This will evidently have an effect on the service delivery of the police, as Maslach and Pines (1977) and Pines and Kafry (1978) stated that stressful situations that occur in the workplace have a significant effect on worker productivity.

The results of this study showed that there were correlations between intrinsic job satisfaction on the one hand and extrinsic job satisfaction and professional efficacy on the other hand. Job satisfaction is the extent to which people like their jobs (Spector, 1997). It is thus perceptible that how people feel about the nature of the job tasks themselves, would show a relationship with how people feel about aspects of the work situation that are external to the job tasks or work itself and how they evaluate themselves with regard to their accomplishments at work.

Correlations were also found between Police Stressors and Exhaustion, which refers to the depletion or draining of emotional resources. This is consistent with a study done by Schaufeli, Leiter, and Kalinmo (1995), where they found that exhaustion was associated with mental and physical strain, work overload, and job stress at work. Seeing criminals go free is a dimension of Police Stressors that causes police stress. The police are very involved in the criminal justice process. Because it is their responsibility to apprehend criminals and do the preliminary preparation of cases for the court, the perception may be formed with the police members that some of the sentences are too light or not appropriate. Koortzen (1996) found that this perception can have a demoralising effect on police members, which again confirms the correlation between Police Stressors and Exhaustion.

Schaufeli et al. (in press) defined engagement as "a positive, fulfilling, work related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption", and in this study, correlations were found between Vigour on the one hand, and Dedication and Absorption on the other hand. It has been said by people from other countries that South Africans are hard-working people that are committed to their jobs. This seems to be true, especially among police members. Policing is not your average nine to five job, but entails life threatening situations and a variety of actions that has to be performed daily, which differs each day. If one looks at the type of person that choose law enforcement as a profession, it becomes evident that he/she has to have a certain amount of motivation to wield effort in their work and perseverance even when times are hard. As well as having focused thought, clear minds,

mind and body harmony, unproblematic attentiveness and absolute control in their work situation in order to experience job satisfaction. It becomes apparent then that there would be a link between vigour, dedication and absorption.

Burnout is conceived as a set of negative psychological experiences, reflecting a 'wearing out' from prolonged exposure to the stresses of work (Maslach & Schaufeli, 1993). In this study, there is a correlation between exhaustion (the depletion or draining of emotional resources) and cynicism (a negative, callous and cynical attitude towards recipients). Police members have to work with people every day, and this may put an emotional strain on them, which has an effect on and is influenced by their conduct towards the community.

The above mentioned results can be linked to the results obtained regarding the view of those of the community who had contact with the police, who considered their lowest attributes to be 'level of trust', 'interest in situation' and 'overall attitude'. One could make the assumption that because of the cynical attitude of members of the police, it would be understandable that the public feel that police members are not interested in their situation and that they are not really trustworthy. Though it is noteworthy that most of the police members only trust the community to co-operate with them to a certain extent.

Despite the fact that the community experienced the level of trust, interest in situation and overall attitude of the police negatively, it appears as if the police's courtesy and respectfulness and fairness are experienced as positive. The most recurrent reasons for being dissatisfied with the police seem to be 'slow response time', 'officer seemed not to care' and 'officer did not follow up'. This can be linked to the lack of resources that the SAPS experience at the moment. Police members do not possess the necessary resources to respond in time or to follow up complaints. In spite of the seemingly negative attitude of the community towards the police, the results obtained through this study show that if a crime were committed against members of the community, most of them would still go to the police for help.

The media have a vested interest in crime, criminal victimisation, policing and the general well-being of society in terms of safety and security. They "...have a responsibility to inform the public of critical issues and make a profit" (Radelet & Carter, 1994). According to the results obtained from the community, the media (radio, TV, newspapers) are their main

source of information about the police. But according to the results obtained from this study, a large portion of the police regard the media as unreliable in reporting crime. Potgieter and Mersham (2002) found in their study of the role of the media in community policing that the police respondents in the Durban police area perceive the media to be too critical of how they perform their job. This in turn, may exert a negative influence on police service delivery as well as police image. The sensationalising of criminal events in this police area may increase fear of crime among law-abiding citizens.

Community policing is, in essence, collaboration between the police and the community that seeks to identify and solve community problems. In this way, the police are no longer the sole guardians of law and order. All members of the community become active allies in the effort to improve the safety and quality of life in the various communities. According to this research, the results suggest that the public has a different understanding of policing than police members. However, what they prefer police to do is similar to that of the police, both giving higher priorities to almost all of the activities.

### **3.2 LIMITATIONS**

This research had the following limitations:

- Perhaps the most serious limitations of this research is the reliance on cross-sectional, perceptual measures. Data collected through self-report measures at one point in time have the potential to inflate the observed relationships spuriously, introducing what is termed *common method variance*.
- A non-probability sample has been used, which implies that the findings cannot be generalised to other settings.
- The sample size was relatively small, which implies that findings cannot be generalised to other areas in the North West Province
- Most of the questionnaires were distributed across the Klerksdorp area, to be collected at a later time. The result was that not all of the questionnaires were

collected, causing that only a section of the Klerksdorp area's expectations and satisfactions with the SAPS being interpreted.

- Another limitation of the present study is the nature of the community sample. Care must be taken to ensure that any "community" sample is not prejudiced towards one section of the community to the disadvantage of another. In the present study, the sample was selected at random from the citizens of the Klerksdorp area in the North West Province. Their responses may differ from people who live in other towns in the Province, or from the citizens of other countries, and for whom different law enforcement issues are important.

### **3.3 RECOMMENDATION**

The final objective of this study was to make recommendations on how community policing in the Klerksdorp area, as well as the effectiveness of the SAPS could be improved.

To effectively consult with the community, police managers should have a good understanding of what the public thinks that the police currently do and what they would prefer the police to do. Therefore, the police need to balance their commitment to the community across the complete set of functions and activities they undertake. To support this commitment, some police organisations may need to modify their structure and reward systems to encourage operational officers to be more involved in the non-crime related activities that the public see as high. This would result in better police ties with the community, a better understanding within the community of the police role, and more realistic expectations on both sides of the outcomes of policing.

It is suggested that the SAPS need to give more attention to providing the public with advise on business and home security.

Another recommendation would be that the police officers should patrol the streets more often, heightening the visibility of the SAPS and enhancing the interaction between the community and the SAPS.

Regarding burnout, job satisfaction and stress and work engagement within the SAPS, the practical implications of this study are that police personnel management should pay serious attention to burnout in general and exhaustion among police officers in particular. Police departments should place greater emphasis on improving their organisational health. Although it is important to assist individual police officers whose psychological well-being is affected by their work, an organisational rather than an individual approach is more likely to be effective, as most stressors were found to be at an organisational level. In police forces, teams are the most important organisational units, and should therefore be the focus of interventions.

Recommendations for future research would entail the following:

- Larger samples that represent more of the community could be used.
- A national study in all the major areas in South Africa about the expectations of and satisfaction with the SAPS could be done.
- Research on how job satisfaction among police personnel in the SAPS can be improved.
- The questionnaires for the SAPS can be translated into the different languages, in order to obtain a higher degree of consequential results.
- Programmes in order to inform the public about the functions of the SAPS can be developed and evaluated.
- The relationship between personality preferences and dimensions on the one hand, and job satisfaction and burnout on the other hand should be researched within the SAPS.
- The effect of interpersonal relationships on job satisfaction and work engagement within the SAPS could also be researched.

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