An Evaluation of Police Service Delivery to the Mamotintane Community

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DECLARATION

I Bheka Mfundo Hopewell Khumalo hereby declare that the dissertation hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo, for the degree of Master of Arts in Criminology, is my original work through the professional guidance of my supervisors and to the best of my knowledge, this study has never been submitted for any award of a degree in any university or any other institution of higher learning. All information utilised has been acknowledged.

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Bheka Mfundo Hopewell Khumalo   Date

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late father Ncoko Bikky Khumalo who gave me all the support from day one when I started this this journey .This study is also dedicated to my mother Sindile Theko who is my source of strength and my pillar of life, who motivated me to complete this study throughout all the challenges went I went through.

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ABSTRACT

The study focused on Community Policing Forums (CPFs), sector policing and visible policing which are the policing strategies that are currently used to bring police officers closer to the community in order to identify and address the root causes of crime. These strategies are also meant to improve police service delivery which will satisfy and meet the community's expectations about police services. The study also focused on factors which affect the lack of police service delivery to the community. Quantitative research design was used to evaluate Mamotintane community's level of satisfaction with police service delivery. Non-probability sampling was used in which purposive or judgmental sampling methodology was used to select the 120 community members from Mamotintane Village. A fixed-response questionnaire that was written in English then translated in Sepedi which is the language commonly used by the target population was used in the study. A Statistical Package for Social Science (IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22) software was then used to analyse the data which was presented in a form of graphs and tables.

Summary of the empirical findings are that a large number of 33% community members disagree that CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community. A large number of 43% respondents strongly agree that police corruption has a negative impact to the community.

KEY CONCEPTS

Community

Service delivery

LIST OF DIAGRAMMES

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Policing has undergone a transformation over recent years in many countries globally after Sir Robert Peel developed a new policing principle that broadened the mission of the police. South Africa and other countries adopted his policing principles in order to improve police service delivery that will reduce the high rate of crime including fear of crime, social and physical disorder, drugs and other conditions that are underlying crime problem. According to Vuma (2011:1) South African police comprehensively embraced Sir Robert Peel's policing principles from 1994. The implementation of these principles by the South African Police Service (SAPS) led to a dramatic change in the manner in which the police interact with the public. This new philosophy further broadened the mission of the police from a narrow focus on law enforcement to a broader one of crime prevention.

Changes in policing led the South African government to define new roles of police officers in order to deal with the high rate of crime and provide affective police services to citizens in the country. According to Naidoo (2004:18), the SAPS is responsible to ideally provide a service to the inhabitants of South Africa, which includes; "To prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law" in terms of chapter 11, section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996). However the SAPS cannot achieve the above mentioned responsibilities on their own in order to provide an affective police service delivery which will meet the public's expectations and satisfactions about police services.

Community policing should not merely be a new structure but it should predominantly be a new philosophy of policing requiring a change of attitude, approach, planning, organisation, execution and feedback, involving the police and public in an equal partnership (Roelofse, 2007:77). Police service delivery is still a problem as some members of the community are still not satisfied with the police-community partnership

in reducing the high level of crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder in the community. As a result the SAPS adopted Community Policing Forums (CPFs), sector policing and visible policing which are the policing strategies that are currently used to bring police officers closer to the community in order to identify and address the root causes of crime. These strategies are meant to improve police service delivery which will satisfy and meet the community's expectations about police services. However there is a need to determine the satisfaction of the community with the above policing strategies as communities in South Africa are still experiencing poor police service delivery. The Mamotintane Village is still affected by the high rate of crime including fear of crime, social and physical disorder, drugs and other conditions that are underlying crime problem.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The Mamotintane Village is a rural area that is situated within the Limpopo Province. Majority of community members are of low socio economic status and the environment is considered as threatening because of the high rate of crime in this community. Community members are still concerned about, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, drugs and conditions underlying crime problem, which can be an evidence of poor service delivery. Community policing within the context of the SAPS is seen as a philosophy that guides police management styles and operational strategies and emphasise the establishment of police–community partnerships and problem-solving approaches responsive to the needs of the South African community. However Community policing in some other areas especially in rural communities is still a philosophy that lack implementation and as a result community members are still experiencing poor police service delivery.

The establishment of CPFs at police stations was done to build trust and legitimacy, particularly in those areas in which the relationship between the police and the community had been characterised by mistrust and conflict (White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998:35). However, Community members from Mamotintane Village seem to

be having negative perceptions of the police as corrupt people who cannot be trusted with any information regarding certain crimes in the community.

With regards to sector policing, there seem to be a lack of contact between the police and the community where police officers are supposed to be assigned to patrol their own sector at the Mamotintane Village. Mahuntse (2007:24) argues that the assigned police members should regularly patrol their own sector or may be permanently posted or stationed there, depending on the size of the police agency, demographic and geographic factors, resources, etc. According to the Green Paper on Policing (2013: 25), for visible policing to be effective, front-line police officers need to assertively and fairly perform their policing functions. However, there seem to be a lack of police visibility in the community and as a result community member might be living in fear because there are no police officers to help them when they need immediate assistance.

1. 3. OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

13.2 Community

Community refers to the specific geographic area served by a police department or law enforcement agency and the individuals, organisation and agencies within that area (Van Vuuren, 1996:102). In this research community refers to the inhabitant of Mamotintane Village in the Limpopo Province.

1.3.3 Service delivery

Service delivery implies, "the way in which public services are provided and specifically about improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the way in which services are delivered" (Naidoo, 2004:1). In this research service delivery refers to the services which are rendered by police officer at Mamotintane Village which are, to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the village and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law.

1. 4. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

1.4.1. Aim of the study

The study aims to evaluate the community's sense of satisfaction with police service delivery.

1.4.2. Research objectives

- To assess the community's sense of satisfaction of police service delivery;
- To evaluate policing strategies that are meant to improve police service delivery to the community;
- To establish factors affecting lack of police service delivery to the community;

1. 5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1. 5.1. Research design

The researcher used a formative type of evaluation, given that the policies have already been proposed for local government to be involved in crime prevention (Trochim, 2006:01). Formative evaluation examines programme implementation including the design, and the extent to which a programme is being delivered. It can provide input to future planning and implementation, thus forming the project's future.

This kind of evaluation forms the programme, meaning that it helps to improve the programme at those points where the programme does not seem to meet the criteria originally set by its initiators (Maxfield & Babbie, 2005:23). Process and impact approach was used. This is the most common approach to crime prevention evaluation. It seeks to answer two questions: has the programme been implemented as planned process and is the programme achieving its intended objectives (impact)? (Fetterman, 2000:12).

The study used quantitative research design to evaluate Mamotintane community's level of satisfaction with police service delivery. Quantitative research design puts more emphasis on the quantification of constructs, by measuring the properties of a

phenomenon through assigning numbers to the perceived quality of things. Its emphasis on precise measurement of a phenomenon, that is, accompanied by questions related to how much, how often, how many, when, and who (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:198). Quantitative methodology allowed the researcher to use fixed-response questionnaires to obtain information from the targeted population in order to be able to analyse it systematically and present it in a form of graphs and tables.

1.5.2. Population and sampling

Population was comprised of Mamotintane community members which is situated within the Limpopo Province. According to Babbie and Mouton (2009:100), it is not possible for a researcher to study all members of the population that are of interest to him or her and observation of all members is not achievable. In every case, a sample from among the data that might be collected and studied should be selected.

The non-probability sampling was used as the selection of a population element. The researcher selected respondents, who are considered to be typical of the wider population, to be part of the sample based in some part on the judgment of the researcher. A sample of 120 community members was used in the study. According to Champion (2006:178) purposive or judgmental sampling involves hand picking elements from some target population. The researcher's intentions were to ensure that certain elements were included in the resulting sample. Purposive or judgmental sampling methodology was used to select community members who participated in the study. The major advantage of judgmental sampling is that certain elements will definitely be included in the resulting sample.

1.5.3. Data collection

The researcher used fixed-response questionnaires that were written in English. There was also a questionnaire translated in Sepedi which is the language commonly used by the target population, the purpose was for them to understand the questions and be able to answer them with ease. The fixed-response questionnaires were then distributed

to community members at Mamotintane Village in order to collect data. This type of a questionnaire is less time consuming, easy to respond and it also simplifies coding, analysis and interpretation of data. Fixed-response questionnaires consist of items (question or statements) that have a finite list of alternative responses. Respondents are asked to select from among a number of fixed choices and check the responses that best fit them (Champion, 2006:211).

1.5.4. Data analysis

Quantitative method use numerical representation and manipulation of observation for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that those observations reflect (Babbie, 2011:420). The data collected from community members using fixed-response questionnaires was analysed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22) software. The respondents' information was converted into numerical form in order to subject it to statistical analysis which presented the data in a form of graphs and tables which was then interpreted by the researcher.

1.6. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The approval to conduct the research was sought from the School of Social Sciences Higher Degree Committee and Research Proposal and also from Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities at the University of Limpopo before the researcher collected data at Mamotintane Village.

1.6.1. Informed Consent

Respondents were informed about the nature of the study; they were also given a choice of either participating or not participating in the study. Respondents who agreed to take part in the study were informed of their right to withdraw from it at any time if they wished not to continue with the study. For the purpose of this study the researcher

explained the nature and the main aim of the study to all respondents at Mamotintane as they voluntarily participated.

1.6.2. Anonymity and Confidentiality

The researcher made sure that all respondents are protected by keeping and maintained both confidentiality and anonymity of respondents at Mamotintane Village or community. Respondents were not required to reveal their identity during the data collection process. According to Khumalo (2006:83), maintaining anonymity implies that a researcher does not know who the respondents of the study are. Confidentiality means that the researcher knows who the respondents are, but that their identity will not be revealed in any way in the resulting report. It is for these reasons that researchers must always consider how they will achieve the anonymity and confidentiality of their respondents.

1.7. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The SAPS adopted community policing as an approach to improve police service delivery by addressing the high rate of crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, drugs and the conditions underlying crime problem in South African communities. The main objective of the police is to form partnership with the community in order to address the roots causes of crime. CPFs, sector policing and visible policing are the strategies that are currently implemented in South Africa in order to divide areas within the community and assign police officers to work with the community in identifying conditions underlying crime. The question lies whether these strategies improve police service delivery and meets the community's satisfaction and expectations of police services or its just philosophy without implementation.

An evaluation of police service delivery and the strategies that are implemented to improve police services might help SAPS to be able to see whether their policing strategies that are currently being implemented are working or not, and if not what can be done to improve police service delivery to the Mamotintane Village.

Community members are the ones who face daily problems of crime such as fear of crime, social and physical disorder, drugs and they know the conditions underlying crime problem in their community. They know their environment better than the police, as a result the police might realise the importance of community–police partnership in addressing crimes in the community from this study. This study will also be used as reference for researchers who wish to embark on studies of evaluation of police service delivery to the community and anyone who wants to know more about CPFs, sector policing and visible policing which are the strategies that are currently implemented in South Africa.

CHAPTER 2

POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the general orientation of the study wherein the problem was stated, aim and objectives of the study were highlighted and the research methodology was introduced. This chapter highlight the nature and extend of the SAPS service delivery specifically in crime prevention and control. According to Singh (2004:86), as a nascent democracy, South Africa is emerging from an apartheid rule where the police were expected to actively enforce heinous laws relating to racial segregation and state security. The human rights violations that characterised the apartheid era, of which police brutality was an integral feature, are still remembered by a majority of the people.The researcher is of the opinion that some police officers still use brutality to combat crime in the community and this can be set as a reminder of the apartheid era to community members. William and Pruitt (2010:117) state that apartheid was a system of government that separated the people of South Africa based on race and controlled major functions of a person's life. William and Pruitt (2010:117) argue that during this period the police were expected to maintain order and neutralise any hostility. In essence the police were responsible for keeping apartheid rule dominant for nearly fifty years.

During the height of apartheid rule the police were divided into several separate, locally controlled units. The country was essentially broken down into eleven "homelands" where the ethnic majority in that region was promised self-determination. The homeland divisions further divided the country among "coloureds," Indians, and whites. Policing became decentralised and homeland police forces began to take prominence in the execution of police powers (William & Pruitt, 2010:117). William and Pruitt (2010:117) state that part of the South African Police (SAP) during apartheid was composed of what was known locally as kitskonstabels. This translates literally to "instant constable" in Afrikaans. The kitskonstabels were black officers trained in six weeks and then

allowed to police the townships. While granted full police powers, the kitskonstabels were not granted full police membership kitskonstabels were not allowed to wear the same uniform as white officers, they could not give any order to a white officer, and they could not deal with cases that involved white suspects.

2.2. LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK OF SAPS

There are various policies pertaining to the functioning of the SAPS and below is a synopsis of them:

2.2.1. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 200 of 1993

According to Nkwenyane (2011:20), the transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 200 of 1993, is a supreme law of the land (in the Republic of South Africa providing for the Bill of Rights and a basis for structural being of the government and state machinery. That is, community policing approach lies at the heart of constitutional (transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 200 of 1993) vision and in section 214 (1), which provides for the establishment of community-police forums at all police stations. According to section 221 (1) (2) of the transitional Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 200 of 1993, on local policing, the Act referred to in section 214 (1) shall provide for the establishment of community- police forums in respect of police stations. Therefore 221 (2) the functions of community-police forums referred to in section 214 subsection (1) may include-

- the promotion of accountability of the Service to local communities and co-operation of communities with the Service;

- the monitoring of the effectiveness and efficiency of the Service; advising the Service regarding local policing priorities;

- the evaluation of the provision of visible police services;

- the provision, sitting and staffing of police stations;

- the reception and processing of complaints and charges;

- the provision of protective services at gatherings;

- the patrolling of residential and business areas; and

- the prosecution of offenders; and

- Requesting enquiries into policing matters in the locality concerned.

2.2.2. South Africa Police Service Act No. 68 of 1995

The SAPS Act No. 68 of 1995 was passed in early 1995. The Act tried to give structure to some of the principles and guidelines for a new South African democracy inserted in the Interim Constitution, was a comprehensive attempt at defining and setting up "a new look" policing service for South Africa, with a new approach to crime prevention, crime reduction and combating of crime (Minnaar, 2010:192).

According to the Police Act of 1995, the police in South Africa must become more service orientated. This Act also stipulates that community policing must be incorporated into the police service (Morrison, 2011:146). According to Morrison (2011:145), the Police Service Act No. 68 of 1995 (Chapter 7: Section 8), states that the South African Police Service (SAPS) shall liaise with the community through Community Police Forums (CPFs), as well as area and provincial Community Police Boards (CPBs). The researcher is of the opinion that the implementation of the act is still a challenge especially in rural communities as community members lack knowledge about Community Police Forums and Community Police Boards which may help the community to fight against crime. Morrison (2011:145) argues that section 215 of the Constitution, in accordance with sections 19, 20 and 21 states that the SAPS shall also establish and maintain a partnership with the community, promote communication between the police and the community, as well as promote co-operation between them and the community by inter alia fulfilling the needs of the community with regard to their policing expectations.

Minnaar (2010:192) states that the Act provided for an accountable, impartial, transparent, community-oriented and cost-effective police service. The Act also provided for a civilian ministerial secretariat, community police forums (CPFs), an Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD) (all issues inserted into the Interim Constitution) and the institution of the National Secretariat for Safety and security largely staffed with civilians such as academics and practitioners from other branches of the criminal justice system. Minnaar (2010:192) argues that the National Secretariat resided directly under the Minister of Safety and Security, i.e. did not report to the new National Commissioner of the SAPS.

2.2.3. The Constitution of the republic of South Africa act 106 of 1996

According to Baloyi (2013:18, section 205 (3) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) lays the basis for policing in South Africa and gives the SAPS its constitutional mandate to address crime. This is firstly, through crime prevention initiatives to combat and investigate crime, secondly, by maintaining public order, thirdly, by protecting and securing the inhabitants of the Republic and their property and, finally, by upholding the Constitution (RSA, 1996) and enforcing the law.

2.2.4. The Green Paper on Safety and Security

According to Minnaar (2010:192), as early as the end of 1994 and building on the Interim Constitution, a Green Paper on Safety and Security was issued as a policy guide for policing in the "new democratic" South Africa. Minnaar (2010:192) states that this outlined the principles such as community policing, democratic control, and accountability, as well as introducing a new style of policing that required a demilitarised approach whereby civilian values would inform every aspect of the new policing services. This latter was an important concept within the context of the past way of policing (pre-1994) in South Africa.

2.2.5. The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) 1996

The NCPS document was approved by Cabinet in May 1996 and represented the first time ever that South Africa had formulated such a national policy or strategy which

clearly identified crime prevention as a national priority. The NCPS motivated for a change from the previous exclusive focus on law enforcement to now include crime prevention (Minnaar, 2010:193). The researcher states that crime prevention is still a major problem at Mamotintane Village as police officers still focuses on combating crime than preventing it. Minnaar (2010:193) further states that other important changes envisaged in the NCPS which impacted extensively on the future way of policing in South Africa, were looking at crime as a "social issue" and that responsibility for dealing with it be shared by all agencies; a movement away from the emphasis on a state-centered criminal justice system to that of a victim-centered restorative justice system.

According to Baloyi (2013:22), the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) holds a proposal which can be interpreted as a move away from the provisions of section 205(3) of the Constitution (RSA, 1996) in as far as the mandate relating to crime prevention is concerned. The strategy propagates for public education and awareness campaigns intended to ensure community participation in crime prevention. The researcher assumes that if the SAPS can focus more on public education and awareness campaigns about crime prevention especial in rural communities, the Mamotintane Village could be a safer place. Baloyi (2013:22) further stated that the NCPS seeks to encourage communities to assume the responsibility of crime prevention in the form of neighbourhood-watch, information-sharing and joint problem identification and solving. Unlike the Constitution, the NCPS does not place the crime prevention responsibility on the police alone but rather confers a shared responsibility where the community takes the lead.

The NCPS of 1996 was South Africa's multi-agency policy on crime prevention. It was intended to be the guiding framework for a wide range of interdepartmental programs aimed at increasing safety. The four "pillars" of the NCPS covered improving criminal justice functioning, environmental design, community values and education, and transnational crime. At its peak, the NCPS was seen as one of six pillars of the country' National Growth and Development Strategy, a far-sighted move that recognised the vital role safety plays in development (Govender, 2012:6). Minnaar (2010:193) argues that although the NCPS was of necessity wide-ranging, covering the whole criminal justice

system many of the issues raised in this document focused more on the role of the police in operationalising these needs in fighting crime than on operational aspects of Community Policing.

2.2.6. The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)

The Minister of Safety and Security approved the development of a White Paper in June 1997, with the main aim of reviewing existing policies and programmes and finally to set the policy framework for the next five years. Prior to the actual release of the White Paper in 1998 the Department for Safety and Security had released a detailed document titled: Policy Framework and Guidelines for Community Policing, in April 1997(Minnaar, 2010:193).

The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998), presented the following broad definition of crime prevention which was "all activities which reduce, deter or prevent the occurrence of specific crimes firstly, by altering the environment in which they occur, secondly by changing the conditions which are thought to cause them, and thirdly by providing a strong deterrent in the form of an effective criminal justice system." At a national level, the White Paper called for the establishment of a National Crime Prevention Centre to provide a central point at which research and learning around crime prevention initiatives could be housed. It was envisaged that this structure would provide support to the provincial and local tiers of government as they undertook crime prevention initiatives. In particular the White Paper more clearly defined the roles of provincial and local governments in crime prevention (Newham, 2006:6).

In the White Paper the emphasis had shifted towards improved service delivery, at the heart of which was the principle that "a partnership between the police and communities is essential to effective service delivery". The White Paper went on to propose certain interventions for "a safer and more secure society" in two main areas, namely law enforcement; and social crime prevention (Minnaar, 2010:193). Nkwenyane (2011:23) states that, accordingly social crime prevention needs much broader participation by government and community members. It implies that social crime prevention should be an integral part of good urban management and not something that is added on to

existing functions. According to Nkwenyane (2011:23), the White Paper on Safety and Security (September 1998) provides that local government should play a significant role in establishing working relations with community policing forums.

Baloyi (2013:24) argues that the Draft White Paper on Safety and Security formally seeks to establish Community Safety Forums (CSFs) which do not aim to replace or duplicate any existing structure or forum at local level. Baloyi (2013:24) states that the purpose of establishing CSFs is to create a comprehensive coordinating mechanism of all activities and all role-players with regard to the safety of communities at local government levels. According to Baloyi (2013:24), the aims of the CSFs include ensuring integrated service delivery, multi-agency collaboration and community participation along with a commitment to the sharing of resources, accountability, responsiveness, openness and transparency.

The White Paper provides the means of realising the vision and mission of improving the safety of the citizens. At the heart of the White Paper (1994) lives the challenge of enhancing the transformation of the police so that they are able to function effectively within the new democracy. Kgomokaboya (2011:12) argues that this requires, on the other hand, focusing on issues relating to the role of the police within the constitutional order, their legitimacy and the delivery of an effective service to the public. Similarly this also requires a dedicated focus on victims of crime. The researcher is of the opinion that victims of crime are not well treated at police stations as police officers usually blame them for their victimisation than empowering them with knowledge on how to prevent further victimisation.

Minnaar (2010:193) argues that while the 1998 White Paper of the Department for Safety and Security emphasises the role and involvement of other new role-players outside of the SAPS within a framework of social crime prevention programmes, this White Paper did not spell out how this would be implemented in practical terms for other role-players (e.g. private security industry) in South Africa. According to Minnaar (2010:193), in terms of partnerships, the White Paper merely states that, with reference to visible policing, the "capacity to implement visible policing is augmented through partnerships with local government". The implication here is that this would be done in

conjunction with the proposed metropolitan or municipal policing structures. Minnaar (2010:193) argues that the White Paper does not provide a practical guide to private-public policing even though it explicitly mentions the private security industry in terms of being a "partner" in the fight against crime.

Finally, the White Paper refers only to areas of intervention to ensure effective crime prevention by way of Community Crime Prevention where: These interventions involve communities taking responsibility for crime prevention in their own neighbourhoods. Such interventions involve localised programs, which mobilise a range of interest groups to address crime prevention on a town or city basis. Projects could include improving surveillance through schemes such as car guards or community marshals (Minnaar, 2010:194).

Minnaar (2010:193) argues that as a consequence the White Paper made little operational reference to Community Policing per se, other than to mention that the SAPS policing approach continued to be underpinned by the philosophy of community policing " and that this focus was "directly in line with international trends in policing which demonstrate that the participation of communities and community policing form the bedrock of effective law enforcement".

2.2.7. National Crime Combating Strategy (NCCS), 2000

The NCPS was largely drafted by a panel of civilians and was widely distributed for comment. The NCCS, on the other hand, was produced in-house by the South African Police Service (SAPS) and has never been issued as a public document (Govender, 2012:7). According to Govender (2012:7), the NCCS has two elements. The first element focuses on the selection of geographic areas with the highest recorded crime levels. Police resources are directed to these areas, largely in the form of high density, search-and-seizure type operations. The aim was also to improve service delivery in these areas and, once crime has been "stabilised," to initiate medium-term social crime prevention programs. The second element of the NCCS focuses on organised crime and involves the investigation of syndicates by task teams of experienced detectives. The researcher assume that if the NCCS could be implemented at Mamotintane Village,

crime can be combated as police officers will be conducting search-and-seizure type operations to create a safer community without any fear of crime.

The strategy brought a new focus to the parts of the country where most crime occurs, especially organised crime. The focus on service delivery is also critical to improving public confidence. An opinion survey in central Johannesburg showed that the high-density visible police operations characteristic of the NCCS made people feel safer (Govender, 2012:7).

2.3 THE EVOLUTION OF THE SAPS

Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:21) argue that during the pre-democratisation times, by 1990, the SAP had become "... totally committed to the fight against those organisations and people who were committed to ending apartheid ... it was an inefficient and ineffective police force, which had lost the confidence of the South African public". Under the apartheid rule the police force (SAP) lacked legitimacy and functioned as an instrument of control rather than as a police service dedicated to ensuring the safety of all citizens (Minnaar, 2010:191). Minnaar (2010:191) argues that such authoritarian policing has few, if any, systems of accountability and oversight and does not require public legitimacy in order to be effective. Thus, with the advent of democracy in South Africa, systems of police accountability and oversight were not present.

Minnaar (2010:191) states that there were a number of structural problems facing the SAP among which was the militaristic-type of training they received; top-heavy management structures staffed largely by white officers; overcoming public perceptions of them being used by the previous (pre-1994) regime largely for political repression and the forceful suppression of township protest actions (as the tool of oppression by the apartheid white government).

The largely politicised struggle activities were all but put an end to it by 1988 with the then government's use of the Emergency Regulations powers to suppress all political dissent and public protest. However, a number continued to perpetrate anti-crime

vigilante acts in trying to self-police their neighbourhoods in a covert manner. The subsequent large increase in violent political protest all but halted formal policing in many areas with the exception where shows of massive force were implemented – all in an effort to bring down the political violence rather than crime control initiatives. In addition, during the period up to 1994 the activities (political community control) of the so-called Self Defence Units (SDUs – African National Congress (ANC) aligned) and the Self Protection Units (SPUs – Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) aligned) also formed part of this self-protection ethos in the townships (Minnaar, 2010:190).

2.3.1 The establishment of SAPS in South Africa

With the election of Nelson Mandela, South Africa entered a new stage of its history. The country was experiencing democracy for the first time after many decades and the police had to adapt to this situation. In 1995 the South African legislature passed the SAPS Act 68. This Act established community policing as a new goal for the reorganised SAPS. As part of the new community based policing, each community was to have an SAPS officer stationed in the area to be the residents' main contact with the police and to allow residents to express problems or concerns directly to the police officer (William & Pruitt, 2010:119). The researcher states that since the establishment of the SAPS, there are no police officers who are stationed at Mamotintane Village were community members can have constant contact with the police officer in order to report any criminal activities.

According to Steyn (2006:145), the SAPS was established on 27 January 1995 in terms of the Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1993. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996, consequently makes provision under section 205 for the establishment of a National Police Service that is transparent, accountable, representative, legitimate and impartial. The Constitution further prescribes community policing as the style of policing to be adopted by the SAPS as a vehicle to improve police–community relations and in general service delivery.

According to Minnaar (2010:1), one of the legacies of the pre-1994 apartheid style repressive and authoritarian policing was the lack of trust by black citizens of SAP. The poor public image of the police and lack of credibility in terms of policing and crime reduction obviously required a drastic change, not only in the mindset of police members themselves, but also in the way the new SAPS policed communities in the newly-democratic South Africa. This had to occur within the new democratic-oriented and rights dispensation as outlined initially in the Interim Constitution of 1993 and the final Constitution (1996).

Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:24) are of the opinion that South Africa is generally considered a heartening success. Following the 1994 elections, the first truly free and representative elections in South African history, the Mandela government initiated not just reform but what is described as a 'transformation' of the police. Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:24) state that the transformation involved increasing the representation of blacks at senior ranks, developing a national-crime prevention strategy, introducing community policing, emphasising responsive service delivery, reforming public order policing, promoting affirmative action for women and minorities, and strengthening internal discipline and accountability.

According to Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008.24), the shift from a heavily militarised police agency enforcing the apartheid regime's policies to a police agency that strives to teach democratic norms of policing, emphasise service orientation, adopt the community-policing initiatives, and substantially increase the representation of previously underreported racial groups among its rank and file is a significant achievement by all means. William and Pruitt (2010:116) are of the opinion that an important component of the new South Africa is the transformed SAPS. From a history of brutal and indiscriminate violence, the new police system is attempting to transition into a respectable democratic police organisation. William and Pruitt (2010:116) argue that the Initial transformation began in 1994, soon after the fall of apartheid government band has continued until the present. The researcher is the opinion that transformation within the SAPS is still major challenge as the community members are still not satisfied about police services and the way police officers handle their cases.

Another aspect of the changing police was a buy-out package for those officers who felt that they could not serve under the new Mandela administration. Many of the officers who took this offer were able to find jobs in the growing private security field. Those who remained were faced with a new goal for the police. In addition, the police had to adapt to new cosmetic changes aimed at bringing it closer to a democratic force. Prior to 1994 the homeland police units used military ranks and titles for their officers. With the new SAPS, those titles were discarded in favor of more civilianised. Former titles based on military titles included soldier and general, but the new titles, including constable, inspector, and captain, were equivalent to other police agencies titles. Further cosmetic changes included new uniforms and new colors for the police vehicles (William & Pruitt, 2010:121). Since 1995, there has been four new National Commissioners who provided strategic leadership to the SAPS. They included George Fivaz from 1995 to 1999, Jackie Selebi from 2000 to 2008, Bheki Cele from 2009 until 2012 and Riah Phiyega who is the current National Commissioners.

Each provided strategic leadership as the executive head of the SAPS. Hence, different crime combating strategies have been implemented since 1995 to-date. The SAPS vision, mission and objectives as mentioned in the Constitution requires policing to prevent, combat and investigate crime, protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, uphold and enforce the law and to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa (Govender, 2012:1).

2.3.2. Challenges of the SAPS during its transformation

Since democratisation, the government has granted the police greater permission to detain crime suspect longer, broader search and seizure rules, and the ability to conduct undercover surveillance as an attempt to increase crime solving. Most interrogations are done without oversight by superiors and police tend to resort to violence when they feel it is needed (William & Pruitt, 2010:126). William and Pruitt (2010:126) argue that there is still a belief that says respecting human rights is an impediment to crime prevention. This belief will lead some police officers to resort to pre-democratic policing techniques to solve crimes despite the expanded legal powers best owed by the government.

The new SAPS had a poorly developed, historically disadvantaged, criminal detection capability (unlike the police in other democratic societies) because of the previous apartheid form of policing. The collection, collation and presentation of evidence to secure the prosecution of criminals were underdeveloped in the past. This was reflected by, among other indicators, the training levels and experience of the detective component of the new SAPS (Minnaar, 2010:191).

According to Minnaar (2010:191), the problems regarding criminal detection were also mirrored in the area of crime intelligence. Intelligence gathering structures prior to 1994 were also orientated towards the covert surveillance of political opponents of the apartheid state. All of this impacted severely on perceptions about their legitimacy and led to high levels of distrust which in turn led to ordinary township citizens being reluctant to report crime to the police.

A decade after the fall of apartheid, the police morale was found to be entirely questionable. The police faced death on a daily basis, saw human misery each day, and worked under the threat of violence. These working conditions were troublesome and the new regulations of the SAPS added to that situation. The salary of the police was inadequate in comparison to the private security industry. There continued a view of discrimination against some officers that led to those officers not feeling the desire to fulfill their responsibilities. These conditions meant that most police officers were not encouraged to report to duty and engage the community as they had been instructed (William & Pruitt, 2010:127).

2.4. THE ROLE OF SAPS

According to Banks (2004:26), a police officer acts as an official representative of government who is required and trusted to work within the law. The officer's powers and duties are conferred by statute. The fundamental duties of police officers include serving the community; safeguarding lives and property; protecting the innocent; keeping the peace; and ensuring the rights of all to liberty, equality and justice. In contrary, the researcher assumes that community members from Mamotintane Village are still

concerned about theft and robbery in the community and as a result, the duties of police officers are being questioned in this community.

Baloyi (2013:20) states that the SAPS Code of Conduct seeks to compel members of the SAPS within a given community to strive towards the creation of a safe and secure environment, and to do so by taking part in all efforts aimed at: addressing the root causes of crime; preventing any action which may threaten the safety and security of the community; investigating any action which has threatened the safety and security of the community and arresting perpetrators thereof and bringing them to justice.

Stout, Yates and Williams (2008:52) argue that the role and actions of the police, whose conduct is linked to maintaining the value set of the majority, is inherently closely aligned to the community they serve as they are protecting the interests of the mass. This would suggest that the role of the police should not simply be detached as mechanistic law enforcement and social control but be substantially linked to proactive community-focused policing measures.

The police should abide not only to the rule of law in general, but should also have an affirmative obligation to protect their citizens' civil rights, from the freedom of speech and association to the freedom from arbitrary arrest and search. Their obligation extends to the protection of the constitutionally or legally guaranteed procedural rights, provided to protect the interests of the suspect or defendant in a case under investigation or in a trial (Sauerman & Ivkovic, 2008:23). According to Mofomme and Barnes (2004:11), the police are expected to be sensitive towards victims of crime, comfort them, show empathy and provide good quality service. They must provide a more victim-friendly service. This will help restore a sense of equilibrium in the crime victim. It will also enable the victim to heal and move on with the least possible harm.

2.4.1 Police behaviour

Kumar (2012:401) maintains that courtesy and good behaviour by police is an important factor in assessing the functioning of police. Rude and indifferent behaviour by police officers discourage the public from approaching police for services, increases the division between police and public, and creates a social environment that makes

prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of order difficult. Banks (2004:27) argues that police officers should perform all duties impartially, without favour or affection or ill will and without regard to status, sex, race, religion, political belief or aspiration. All citizens will be treated equally with courtesy, consideration and dignity. The researcher assumes that since Mamotintane Village is a rural community police officers may excise some form of favour with regard to status because other police officers tend to underestimate people of low socio economic status.

2.4.2 Police accountability

Nkwenyane (2011:13) refers the relations of the police to civil society and to the state. That is the police should not see themselves in the end as an autonomous and self-controlled, whether that claim is based on expertise, professional skills, power or merely rejection of outsiders looking over their shoulder. Nkwenyane (2011:13) argues that the police must accept that they have to explain themselves, what they do and fail to do, to outsiders who pay their salaries, supply their resources and suffer the consequences of their work. That is, the police need to accept their political status, not directly as a partisan agency of rule and repression, but as a government organisation constrained by democratic values and practices.

The police should not solely be responsible for policing themselves, nor should they be placed directly under the control of the ruling party, as was the case in South Africa's apartheid regime because it might further worsen the legitimacy crisis in the SAPS. The researcher is of the opinion that police officers in South Africa are still being influenced by the ruling political party as some members of the community receives special attention when a certain crime is committed against them. Govender (2010:81) states that police accountability should be seen as a process consisting of judicial and parliamentary control linked to societal control. According to Govender (2010:81), there should be a relationship between the independence of the police and their accountability to the public or democratically elected bodies. Legitimacy, operational independence, use of discretion and police accountability is still a challenge to police officers.

Accountability is the most important aspect of the SAPS that has been altered and there is a continuing process to achieve full accountability. It has not been a smooth process for the SAPS to learn and adapt to the new situation in South Africa. Over the past several years of democratic rule in South Africa problems have developed for the SAPS. Their reaction to these problems will serve as an indicator of how far the organisation has come to a democratic police force (William & Pruitt, 2010:124).

2.5. POLICING STRATEGIES MEANT TO IMPROVE POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY TO THE COMMUNITY

There are various strategies that were developed by the SAPS to deliver quality and efficient service to the communities. Below is a summary of the strategies:

2.5.1 COMMUNITY POLICING

2.5.1.1 The broad definition of community policing

Over the last two decades new styles of policing have emerged globally in order to keep up with democracy, and community policing is one of them. The words 'community policing' have become a catch phrase. This term generally refers to increased accountability to, and co-operation with the members of society (Morrison, 2011:146).

According to Kumar (2012:338), community policing is "a new philosophy of policing, based on the concept that police officers and private citizens working together in creative ways can help solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder, and neighborhood decay". According to Moolman (2003:33), community policing is a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems. It is founded on close, mutually beneficial ties between police and community members.

Nkwenyane (2011:8) defines community policing as a systematic approach to policing with the paradigm of instilling and fostering a sense of community responsibility, within a geographical neighbourhood, in order to improve the quality of life, through decentralisation of the police and implementation of a synthesis of three key components being, the distribution of traditional police resources, the interaction of police and all community members to reduce crime and the fear of crime through indigenous proactive programs, and a concerted effort to tackle the causes of crime problems rather than put band-aids on the symptoms.

2.5.1.2. The function of community policing

Kumar (2012:338) states that community policing rests on the belief that only by working together will people and the police be able to improve the quality of life in the community, with the police not only as enforcers, but also as advisors, facilitators, and supporters of new community-based, police-supervised initiatives. The police and community are therefore seen as co-producer of safety. This is a marked change in strategy and process of policing. Moolman (2003:31) argues that Community Oriented Policing (COP) does not free the community police officers (CPOs) from other police duties which requires suppressive actions such as arrest, but additionally requires the CPOs to be more proactive by also paying attention to community concerns, such as fear of crime, and addressing conditions underlying the crime problem. The researcher is of the opinion that police service delivery is still a problem as some members of the community are still not satisfied about the police-community partnership in reducing the high level of crime, fear of crime, social and physical disorder in the community

Effective community policing has a positive impact on reducing neighbourhood crime, helping to reduce fear of crime and enhancing the quality of life in the community. It accomplishes these things by combining the efforts and resources of the police, local, provincial and national government, and community members (Moolman, 2003:33). According to Kumar (2012:399), instead of waiting for the public to come to police stations for service or call for assistance over the telephone, community policing entails deployment of resources in the field to actively engage with the community and identify problems and issues requiring police attention. This involves face-to-face interaction

between CPOs and community members, interaction during house visits, public meetings, and so on. The researcher states that police officers still wait for community members to go to police stations for service or call for assistance over the telephone than deploying their resources in order to work with community members to prevent crime.

The community policing model was adopted for three main reasons. First, community policing was seen as a new corporate strategy for the police. This was meant to replace the former strategy of maintaining the status quo at whatever cost. Second, community policing was an instrument of change for the new SAPS. A new form of policing in South Africa would have to be different and would have to change from what it had been; community policing was the bridge to the new policing format. Finally, community policing was a method of providing proactive policing. Much of apartheid era policing was reactive to protests and demonstrations (William & Pruitt, 2010:120).

According to Nkwenyane (2011:10), there are three major dimensions of community policing being: firstly, the philosophical dimension which addresses a broader interpretation of policing incorporating citizen input and policing tailored to local needs, secondly the strategic dimension which incorporates the operational aspects and as such translates the philosophy to action, and lastly, the programmatic dimension which translates philosophies and strategies into programs, tactics, and behaviour.

The Department of Safety and Security as well as SAPS (1996) view of serving the community better through Community Policing, would inter alia involve more effective management of both direct and indirect victims and witnesses of crime as a vital part of successful police investigations. This was in fact integral to the accepted community policing philosophy (that the SAPS subscribed to in the guidelines document) which sought to build relationships between the police and local communities. There was thus, a further acceptance of the link between victim support and successful investigations being critical to improving service delivery and therefore to enhancing public confidence in the police (Minnaar, 2010:193).The researcher assume that community members lack confidence in police officers due to the delay in investigation of their cases as they are not being updated about the progress of the investigation.

Steyn (2006:146) is of the opinion that community policing is based on the assumption that 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, can only be achieved through the collaborative effort of the SAPS; other government institutions; the organisations and structures of civil society; and individual citizens.

2.5.1.3 Police-community partnerships in community policing

According to Minnaar (2010:201), one of the accepted tenets of Community Policing in the South African context had been the aim of the establishment of active partnerships between the police and the public through which crime and community safety issues can be jointly addressed. Minnaar (2010:201) argues that In South Africa these partnerships were largely structured through the CPFs and under the premise of fulfilling the Community Policing approach of recognising "the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community in establishing safety and security".

Kumar (2012.399) is of the opinion that partnership means to understand public's definition of their problems and be aware of day-to-day issues bothering them. Kumar (2012.399) argues that often people are more concerned about threatening and fear provoking environment than individual illegal events. Though the two are intricately connected, the existence of threatening environment is a continuing problem that impacts quality of life and causes great anxiety among the public.

A combined effort by all citizens and the police is needed in order to combat the high level of crime in the country. The result will be a partnership founded on mutual trust and respect. However, as partnerships are never easy to sustain, recognition must be given to the need for changes to take place, both in attitudes and procedures of the professional service within the community (Morrison, 2011:152).The researcher states that partnership between the police and the community can have a major impact in fighting crime at Mamotintane Village because community members have more information about the types of crimes that are being committed in this community.

Morrison (2011:152) argues that community policing may deliver a new set of policing services and a new approach to crime prevention techniques and control. The police, in partnership with the community, should give serious attention to the prevention of crime, the solution of other policing-related problems, and addressing the causes of crime and disorder, whether these are social or environmental.

2.5.1.4 Building trust in the community

Community policing also aims at building trust in police among community members and ensuring support for police among the people. The trust and support has two-way influence of an increased feeling among the public that the police will ensure safety and security in the community, and in turn community trust and confidence greatly assists in police tasks of public order maintenance, and crime prevention and detection (Kumar, 2012.399). According to Kumar (2012.399), the development of greater trust among the public is mainly through a process of continuous and sustained community contact and greater levels of communication. Kumar (2012.399) argues that while traditional policing focuses more on crime and criminal events, community policing has a much broader focus on society as a whole. ''. . . Community policing broadens the focus to solicit information from the law-abiding people, through both formal and informal contacts''.

2.5.1.5 Community involvement in community policing

The actual nature of community policing is the involvement of the community in policing. After democratisation community policing became the buzzword in policing. The South African Police (SAP) was changed to SAPS and this new service was to deprive of military character and place under civil control. Furthermore, organisational decentralisation, an expansive problem-oriented police mandate and a commitment to consultation with, responding to as well as a priority to work alongside the public to set priorities, develop tactics and co-producing safety were some of the outcomes that were expected from community policing. It was thought that the community would get involved in policing matters and that the police would provide a service to the community. In doing this it was hoped that the community would get involved with the police in problem solving in their different areas (Bezuidenhout, 2008:55).

According to Morrison (2011:145), an awareness that something could be done about the crime situation in South Africa, but that community involvement is of the utmost importance for it to succeed. Nkwenyane (2011:10) states that the most basic element of community policing philosophy is the assumption that the public has something to contribute to policing, the police and communities should work together to solve community problems and reduce crime to improve the quality of life. Morrison (2011:145) argues that the criminal situation in South Africa remains serious with crime levels continuing at worryingly but unacceptably high levels. However, if the police and the community work together in unity, benefits such as a reduction in fear of crime, reduction in opportunities for crime and an improved quality of life is likely to be the result.

Moolman (2003:33) argues that community policing is a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems. It is founded on close, mutually beneficial ties between police and community members. According to Morrison (2011:145), the community lies at the heart of effective policing and therefore community policing is a style of policing in which the safety and security of the local area is not only the priority of the police alone. Morrison (2011:145) further explains that community policing encompasses the building of bridges between the community and the police. It is necessary to concentrate the attention of not only the police, but also local government, social services as well as churches and teachers, to produce a better and safer environment.

According to Moolman (2003:33), community policing offers a way for law enforcement to help re-energise communities. Developing strong, self-sufficient communities is an essential step in creating an atmosphere in which serious crime will not flourish. Nkwenyane (2011:20) argues that for community policing to be successful, it is important for members of the community to realise and accept that they also have a social and moral obligation to assist and support the SAPS in the fight against crime and other forms of social disorder. With the support and involvement of the community, the police will be in a position to meet the safety and security needs of the country.

Morrison (2011:145) argues that the community and the police should share a common understanding and vision of how they are going to tackle the problem of crime in South Africa. The researcher assumes that the lack of support from community members is a major problem for the SAPS to deploy their resources to prevent crime in the community.

Kumar (2012:399) is of the opinion that people cooperate with the police not only because of legal requirements, but also because they view the police as a legitimate authority. ''A legitimacy based strategy of policing increases cooperation with the law by drawing on people's feeling of responsibility and obligation''. The advantage of such a strategy lies in its ability to facilitate voluntary cooperation.

2.5.1.6 The implementation and challenges of community policing in South Africa

The community policing approach was introduced as a mainstream policing approach in South Africa after 1994 and is entrenched in the Constitution. At the time it was thought that the communities would embrace this new approach and would provide the SAPS with enough information to make pro-active and problem orientated policing a success. Community policing unfortunately does not live up to this expectation. The introduction of several complaints and oversight mechanisms also did not result in a sudden change in community and police relationships (Bezuidenhout, 2008:49). In support, the researcher state that the implementation of community policing is also a major challenge at Mamotintane Village because majority of community members still have no knowledge of community policing and some police officers have no idea on how to implement community policing to the community.

According to Morrison (2011:144), community policing approach is entrenched in the Constitution in South Africa (section 215), which provides for the establishment of Community Police Forums (CPFs) at all police stations countrywide. Morrison (2011:144) argues that even though community policing has been on the national police agenda in South Africa from the early 1990s, there is no evidence of a change in the style of policing or in the standards of conduct of the police in the organisation.

It took only a little more than five years after the initial community police policy document for the new community policing style to largely become abandoned, or at best simply ignored or disregarded in terms of operational planning, in all but name throughout the SAPS (Minnaar, 2010:197). Minnaar (2010:197) argues that the abandonment, with SAPS personnel strongly believing it to be too soft for the tough crime conditions in South African townships, was also due in part to a number of inherent constraints.

According to Minnaar (2010:197), all of the new community policing initiatives required skills that the SAPS did not have or which were simply in short supply. Minnaar (2010:197) argues that it was no wonder then that it took more than five years before the South African style of Community Policing could be said to have become operational. According to Minnaar (2010:197) one of these being that at the time of its inception the personnel of the SAPS were still largely undertrained and under skilled, with estimates that almost 25% of its 128 000 members were considered to be functionally illiterate even more members had never received formal training in the actual methodology of community policing.

According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:37), community policing has been presented as a tool to enable police officers to prevent and control crime and to improve police-citizen relations, but there may be obstacles that obstruct its successful implementation and sustainability. Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:37) argue that the extent to which the public is willing to co-operate in community policing appears to be the product of a number of problems. This includes attitudes toward community policing (expectations and perceptions), fear of retaliation and poor pre-existing relations between the police and neighbourhood residents.

Bezuidenhout (2008:49) argues that the negativism towards the SAPS and the non-embracement of community policing by the population are indirectly contributing to the high crime rate in South Africa. If the community reacts and divulges all the information they have on criminal activities taking place in their neighbourhoods, the police will be able to react pro-actively and prevent crimes before they are committed.

According to Bezuidenhout (2008:58), proactive policing involves community policing and voluntary community involvement with greater emphasis on crime prevention and problem solving. Bezuidenhout (2008:58) argues that however noble it may seem, community policing or partnership policing is not doing well because the community still does not trust the police. In a perfect society the community will trust its police service, will work in a partnership with it and will spontaneously divulge information that will enable the police to act proactively and prevent crimes. This 'trust-relationship' between the police and citizens does not exist in most societies. The researcher is of the opinion that the trust-relationship between the police and community members is caused by the lack of confidence in the SAPS and police corruption.

The partnership approach to policing emphasises that relations between the police and public should be consultative, and extends into the process of planning. Furthermore, the community and its leaders must be involved in determining the policing needs, the style of police work that would be effective and appropriate, as well as desirable or undesirable forms of police intervention (Oppler, 1997:3). Kumar (2012:398) argues that the development of community policing faced many hurdles in the form of resistance from the police itself, lack of programmatic approach, absence of support from the government-especially financial support, lack of faith and confidence in the intent of police by the public.

According to Minnaar (2010:196), in the South African context, this policing style was based on the premise that a community and its police service are equal partners with shared responsibilities in ensuring safety and security. But with its implementation police members tended to fear that community members would "tell them what to do", which in turn led to police resistance to community policing and CPFs. Minnaar (2010:198) is of the opinion that community policing per se, faded into the background, and other forms of policing, such as visible and sector policing, were pushed forward by the SAPS, ostensibly in support of community policing, but all the more designed to improve the SAPS operational effectiveness in fighting crime, rather than dealing directly with community sensitivities and needs which were supposed to be policed in a more considerate, sympathetic, compassionate and sensitive manner.

2.5.2. COMMUNITY POLICE FORUM (CPF)

The interim Constitution and the Police Service Act both prioritise the establishment of police-community partnerships through the establishment of community policing forums. The purpose of the community forums is to bring the police and the communities closer together and promote acceptability of the service, build structures for accountability and prove to the community that the police are responsive to their needs (Singh, 2004:88).

According to Minnaar (2010:192), CPFs were provided for in the Interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993 (Section 221(1) (and their establishment by way of an Act of Parliament). Minnaar (2010:192) stated that the Interim Constitution was also explicit on the role of CPFs in respect of evaluating visible policing (s221 (2).

According to Minnaar (2010:192), the Interim Constitution clearly saw CPFs as a mechanism through which communities, in particular black communities, could build a relationship with the police, given the way these communities in South Africa had been policed in the past. Minnaar (2010:192) further explains that the essentially CPFs were meant to provide some sort of civilian oversight of the police at the local level, supplementing the role performed by the National and Provincial Secretariats for Safety and Security and the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD) (which was established in 1996 and began operations in April 1997) at national level.

South Africa is making great strides in developing more and more partnership projects between various community interest groups and the police. The national implementation of CPFs was a fundamentally important move towards getting the police and the community to work in partnership with each other. Each operational CPF has formed partnerships with other community interest groups in its area. The partnerships are tailored to the needs of the local community. For example, partnership between the youth and the police has developed in Orlando, Soweto, establishing a youth sub forum to address the high youth crime rates in the area (Oppler, 1997:7). Shirilele (2001:30) argues that partnership in the CPF also establishes and maintains mutual trust, which is a central goal in policing. The mutual trust will give the police greater access to valuable information that can lead to the prevention of crime.

Minnaar (2010:202) argues that although by 2006/7 there were officially 1 064 CPFs established at police stations around the country – many operated under varying degrees of success or inadequately fulfilled their legislated mandate. In 2007 the SAPS and Parliamentary policy makers entered into discussions to change the legislation governing CPF activities to allow the CPFs to act to a greater extent on behalf of the communities they were supposed to represent. Part of these envisaged changes would be greater interaction (in terms of identifying and setting) with each police station's crime and policing priorities and performance targets and the drawing up of a policing programme for each precinct which would be co-owned by both parties.

According to Minnaar (2010:202), formal regular feedbacks were to be provided by station commissioners to the local CPF and then back to communities on crime trends and progress in dealing with them. In turn, the communities had to be actively involved in assessing police performance at the local police station based on the policing priorities and targets set in the jointly formulated policing programme for that police station. Minnaar (2010:202) argues that one of the implications of these changes would be better funding and provision of resources to CPFs but these changes were to date still at the policy formulation stage. In South Africa a CPF is a legally recognised entity that represents the policing interests of the local community. CPFs were also intended to exert civilian oversight over the police at various levels, in particular the local police station level every police station commissioner was instructed to be "responsible for the establishment of Community Police Forums in their respective areas"(Minnaar, 2010:195).

Minnaar (2010:195) further explains that police were delegated to undertake "the identification and mobilisation, through consultation, of community resources and organisations that may assist in combating and preventing crime and the constant development of this capacity. All police members were tasked in the policy guidelines "to develop new skills through training which incorporates problem solving, networking, mediation, facilitation, conflict resolution and community involvement".

In the South African context, one could consider stationing a police officer within each village or to have control over a few villages depending on their size and location. By doing so, the police stations in the rural areas can then become the meeting point where various police officers meet on a regular basis to share experiences and submit their reports on the crimes reported in their specific areas. This also has the very practical advantage of saving victims from having to travel long distances to report crime and then having to wait at the station until the complaint is registered and/or the charge finalised (Singh, 2004:92). According to Nkwenyane (2011:19), the community policing forums were set up to involve all local stakeholders and key organisations. They meet regularly with the officers in charge within a local police station and discuss problems and solutions to crime in that particular area.

2.5.2.1. Community participation in CPFs

Nkwenyane (2011:32) study found that the majority of respondents 42 percent have never participated in the CPF before at Nelspruit in Mpumalanga Province. The 26 percent of the respondents have been participating in the CPF for a period of not less than two (years) while the other respondents, 19 percent and 13 percent of the entire respondents, have participated in the CPF for a period of less than two (2) years and less than a year, respectively. Fifty eight percent (58%) of the respondents who took part in the study had the experience of participating in the CPFs, while 42 percent have never participated. Nkwenyane (2011:32) further explains that this helps provide the study with insight into the experiences and issues respondents has on CPF and community participation within the Nelspruit Policing Area in Mpumalanga Province of South Africa.

According to Nkwenyane (2011:42), community members who take part in the CPF must mainly conduct neighbourhood watch, joint patrol with SAPS on high crime spots, supporting the CPF in combating crime and provide information about crime in their streets or sections. In addition, members of the community can manage their streets in their residential areas and sections of residence on crime; expose crime suspects and inform the relevant authorities for intervention. This will help in allowing members of the

community to take an active role in CPF, thus ensuring representation of sections of the community in the CPF.

2.5.2.2 Challenges in implementing CPFs in South Africa

According to Bruce (2012:8), when CPFs were first established in South Africa in the mid-1990s, it was envisaged that they would function to hold the police accountable at local level. Bruce (2012:8) argues that in practice, however, they have proved largely unable to perform this function. This is because of the power imbalances between CPFs and police, since police are not subject to CPF authority. In addition, related to the fact that CPFs are composed of non-specialist voluntary personnel, they often lack the capacity to make inputs into policing matters at station level that the police regard as credible. According to Singh (2004:91), in response to the question why community policing forums failed, many answers are provided. They include inadequate police responses, continued lack of trust between the community and the police, politicisation of the forums, community representatives not approved by the local communities and a power struggle within the community policing forums.

Since CPFs in poorer areas could not afford to equip their local police station at all. The effectiveness of CPFs was being questioned, particularly since they ended up being unelected by being co-opted by the local police station commissioner. Community elections were tried but became a waste of time since very few community members turned up for voting at community meetings (Minnaar, 2010:198). Minnaar (2010:198) argues that there were also instances where particular interest groups, such as mini-bus taxi associations, got their members voted into local CPF thereby dominating proceedings with their narrow crime concerns.

Minnaar (2010:198) further explains that criminals also infiltrated some CPFs and became privy to policing activities in their areas of operation. Within the SAPS itself CPFs were treated with disdain and regarded "as a necessary evil" required by law to bring members of the public into contact with the police. Minnaar (2010:198) states that CPFs ended up having little impact or say on the day-to-day conduct of the police. In addition, this situation led to disputes arising between CPF members and the SAPS as

to the latter's operational independence and eventually those CPFs, other than the ones who merely funded additional equipment and vehicles, were sidelined and ignored.

Kgomokaboya (2011:50) is of the opinion that a major challenge of the CPFs is lack of transport to cover all their areas of operations; the police do not always have vehicles readily available to transport CPF members to all their functions and activities. The transformation of CPF members by the police also compromises their independence as they are sometimes viewed as an extension of the SAPS. Another challenge, although at smaller scale, is the understanding of their roles as members of the CPF against the work of the SAPS.

2.5.3 Visible Policing

The 1998 White Paper emphasised the implementation of more "visible policing" linked to better service delivery to victims, as well as coordinating an integrated criminal justice system. The White Paper advocated a dual approach to safety and security – effective and efficient law enforcement and the provision of crime prevention programs to reduce the occurrence of crime. Furthermore, the White Paper set out priority law enforcement focus areas inter alia on: improving criminal investigations by expanding and retraining investigative capacity in the SAPS; implementing targeted (active) visible policing and service to victims by meeting the needs of victims through adequate service delivery (Minnaar, 2010:198). Minnaar (2010:199) states that the core to the visible policing approach was the implementation of the following three phases: i) preventative patrolling, i.e. a constant police presence in for instance an identified "hot spot" crime area; ii) directed patrol, i.e. police officers assigned for a limited period for a particular purpose; and iii) sector policing.

According to Baloyi (2013:20), visible policing was designed to fill the gap between operational crime combating activities and community policing by "providing a proactive and responsive policing service that will prevent the priority crimes rate from increasing". The emphasis was, however, on specialised crime prevention operations. Naidoo (2004:18) states that police members are policemen and policewomen, who generally perform visible policing and interact with members of the community regularly.

According to Naidoo (2004:18) visible policing falls within the category of functional duties and involves crime combatting through crime operations, and the rendering of a quick response service to crimes in progress, by police members at police station level.

Police visibility is seen as a proactive measure intended to deter the occurrence and escalation of priority crimes within demarcated sectors. However, one of the key features of sector policing is to ensure high police visibility and a quick response to complaints (Baloyi, 2013:24). According to Kgomokaboya (2011:47), the objective of the programme for visible policing within SAPS is to discourage all crimes through providing a proactive and responsive policing service that will prevent the rate of prioritised crimes from increasing. Visible policing to the lay man implies increased appearances of police, in their vicinity, where crimes are prone to occur, where it serves as a discouraging act for the perpetrators to carry out their unattended unlawful acts.

The visible policing programme aims to combat crime through anti-crime operations, active policing activities and deployment to ensure prompt and appropriate services to the public. Its sub-programmes include crime prevention, border security, specialised operations and sector policing (Williams, 2010:5). In contrary, there seem to be a lack of police visibility where police officers patrol their areas especially at night where crime is likely to occur at Mamotintane Village. As a result, community members might be living in fear and having a negative perception of police officers as people who fail to protect them.

According to the Green Paper on Policing (2013:25), visible presence has an important bearing on the perception of communities that the police are 'alive' and efficient. The resultant effect is heightened feelings of safety coupled with improved confidence in the SAPS. While visible policing cannot deter and prevent all forms of crime, it impacts on people's perceptions of the police and it provides a strong deterrent to would be criminals. Kgomokaboya (2011:48) argues that there is need for more activities on visible policing in South Africa, and particularly in the Limpopo Province.

2.5.4 Sector Policing

According to Buthelezi (2010:84), sector policing emerged in the early 1970s as one amongst a host of experiments to address a crisis in American policing. Police leaders and scholars went back to basics and asked what it is that police do to reduce crime. The endeavour to answer this question produced a multitude of policing innovations in the last 30 years. Buthelezi (2010:84) states that one version of how the concept of sector policing came to South Africa was that a senior SAP officer came across it while attending a conference of US police agencies in 1993 or 1994. Another version is that a senior SAP officer, while at a training course in Britain in 1994, used the opportunity to examine sector policing in the UK. Mahuntse (2007:20) argues that the concept of sector policing was imported from the United Kingdom to South Africa in the late 1990's. This was justified as part of the on-going modernisation and internationalisation of the SAPS and its re-entry into the international market of police ideas.

According to Maroga (2004:1), increasingly, the SAPS has started to focus on implementing a strategy called 'sector policing'. This strategy calls for a more focused approach to policing at the local level including the establishment of sector crime forums (SCFs). Baloyi (2013:18) states that sector policing takes place at grassroots level where crime occurs. It allows the lower-ranked members of SAPS, the "foot soldiers", to actively interact with vulnerable communities to make them feel more secure. Sector policing should not be a reactive tool although, through community participation, crime that has already occurred can also be investigated and resolved Govender (2012:8) also states that sector policing was introduced as a distinctive style of grassroots policing. Sector policing entails dividing police station areas into manageable sectors, appointing sector managers, sector teams and establishing SCFs in each sector. Govender (2012:8) argues that the rationale behind the dividing of the policing areas into sectors is to get small teams of police officials to know particular neighbourhoods intimately.

Govender (2012:8) further explains that the idea is not only that they will get to know their sector's crime trends well, but, with thought, innovation, and the necessary organisational support they will be able to identify the specific problems that fuel specific

trends, and to solve or manage those problems. It is an ambitious policing philosophy. It demands that police officials think creatively. It demands that an organisational culture driven by rapid response to short term problems re-orient itself to the task of long term problem solving. At police station level, crime hotspots are identified and personnel from the station's centralised crime prevention unit are mobilised into high density saturation teams. These teams move into hotspots in numbers, initiate roadblocks and cordon-off areas for the purpose of search seizure and arrest (Govender, 2012:8).

Buthelezi (2010:84) states that the innovations can be divided into four categories; hotspot or targeted patrolling; controlling risk factors; problem-oriented policing and community policing. Sector policing is an eclectic composite. It includes community policing and problem-oriented policing as its core, but it usually includes targeted patrolling and risk factor identification as well. According to Minnaar (2010:200), the basic concept of sector policing as exhibited in the South African context consisted of at least one police official being allocated on a full-time basis to a sector (i.e. geographically manageable area within a police precinct) for which he/she is responsible to enhance safety and security. The researcher is of the opinion that with regards to sector policing, there are police vehicles which are written sector policing but the question still lies whether these vehicles are used for sector policing by having a police officer stationed at a particular area or they are just vehicles used for normal daily police services.

Sector policing basically meant that each police station area (precinct) was divided into smaller, more manageable areas. Police resources were then directed to those specific high-crime identified areas within the precinct in order to increase police visibility, improve community involvement by inter alia building trust and getting the public to report all crime and any suspicious activities in their neighbourhood, and to try to address the causes of crime and the fear of crime (Minnaar, 2010:199). According to Minnaar (2010:199), better visible and sector policing was based on the premise that if crime levels could be brought down, communities would feel safer, trust the police more, and as a consequence better report crime to the police. Hence operational

improvements and increased policing effectiveness would then indirectly support and grow community policing.

According to Baloyi (2013:20), sector policing is intended to assist SAPS members to reduce crime through effective crime prevention and crime investigation. The problem-solving approach in sector policing will help at sector levels to jointly identify challenges at an early stage and prevent the escalation of crime. Baloyi (2013:20) argues that this proactive interaction will have a positive social impact characterised by better community-police relations, cooperation and SAPS-community participation partnership which will contribute to the reduction of crime. According to Buthelezi (2010:84), the South African sector policing approach is also ambitious. Instead of trying to improve the quality and accountability of service delivered to the public by making more effective use of existing police resources, it seeks to do so by engaging with and mobilising hitherto untapped resources outside the organisation – primarily through the mobilisation of police reservists (volunteers) and respondents of Kwazulu-Natal in the Sector Crime Forums.

Buthelezi (2010:84) gave an example of where sector policing can play an effective role in the prevention of crime through an integrated approach is with crimes occurring within school premises, such as the prevalence of drugs, possession of dangerous weapons, theft or the vandalising of school property. Baloyi (2013:21) argues that school principals, teachers, School Governing Bodies (SGBs) and learners should participate in all efforts of crime prevention or problem-solving.

2.5.4.1. The implementation of Sector Policing in South Africa

The first official guidelines on implementing sector policing appear to have been issued in 1998 as part of the effort to develop sector policing in certain parts of Johannesburg under the auspices of the SAPS "Project Johannesburg". This original SAPS version of sector policing policy emphasised the crime preventive and community partnership aspects of the approach. In its gestation phase in South Africa, between 1998 and 2003, the notion of sector policing was interpreted and used to suit a variety of different

policy purposes, much as the term "community policing" had been during the preceding decade (Buthelezi, 2010:84).

According to Kgomokaboya (2011:48), sector policing is the division of policing precinct into a smaller manageable particles, each sector is allocated a manager that provides policing services to the communities. Implementation of sector policing according to National Guidelines for Sector Policing goes through Phase 1 to 5, with Phase 1(one) being the division of the station into sectors, Phase 2 (two) is the allocation of Sector Managers, phase three (3) is the profiling of the sector, phase four (4) is the establishment of sector teams, and phase five (5) is the implementation of activities. This concept was introduced in the year 2006, and there are no time frames on the completion of phases.

Crucial to the successful implementation of this concept is the involvement of all role-players in identifying the policing needs in that particular sector and in addressing the root cause of crime as well as the enabling and contributing factors. The responsibilities of the sector police official also included the determining on a continuous basis, in co-operation with non-police role-players, policing needs, and identifying crime problems, tendencies, crime, "hot spots", criminals, etc. In addition, their role included the initiating and co-coordinating of policing projects, for example special patrols, and other safety and security initiatives (Minnaar, 2010:200).

Minnaar (2010:200) further explains that they would also be responsible for overseeing the activation of other role-players (e.g. municipalities, government departments and NGOs). Underlying these actions would be first establishing direct communication with community members, often via CPFs – if there was a functioning one in the area. According to Minnaar (2010:200), alternately Sector Police Officers would usually start off with a public awareness campaign sometimes involving "knock-and-drop-off" of information sheets and pamphlets actions and the holding of monthly crime discussion meetings with community members. Essentially the "new" sector policing initiative looked at addressing local crime problems and, where possible, the root causes of crime.

According to Minnaar (2010:200), sector policing was officially launched in 2001 with a pilot project in the Johannesburg area. Sector policing was seen as the final practical manifestation of community policing. Minnaar (2010:200) further explains that the official SAPS view the concept of community policing as "focusing on building partnerships at a broader level in specific areas". Minnaar (2010: 200) argues that in other words sector policing was to be a tool for the full implementation of community policing. The researcher is of the opinion that sector policing is still a philosophy which lack implementation at Mamotintane Village because there are no police officers who are stationed on full time basis at these community.

By mid-2000, the sector policing project in Johannesburg was running at only 21 police stations. There were indications that sector policing had been more readily adopted in (traditionally white) middle-class suburban areas in the north of the city. However, despite the problems in Johannesburg, the idea of sector policing was tried elsewhere in the country (Buthelezi, 2010:86). Buthelezi (2010:86) states that in June 2001, the new Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula, announced his vision for the future of sector policing.

Buthelezi (2010:86) argues that the National Commissioner claimed in his report for the 2001-2002 period that "one of the aims of sector policing is to improve the police response time when crimes are in progress". Later in the same report, the new Minister of Safety and Security, Charles Nqakula described "the establishment of partnerships between appointed sector managers and sector communities to strengthen CPF structures" as a "key objective" of the sector policing methodology.

After the Johannesburg Pilot Project in 2001, sector policing was only introduced countrywide in 2002/2003 at selected policing precincts in order to "increase police visibility and accessibility", particularly in areas having limited infrastructure and high levels of crime. By the end of the 2003/2004 reporting year, it had been introduced at 47 priority and 14 presidential 24 stations and in 2005 further roll-out occurred to 169 high-contact crime (including the priority and presidential) police stations (Minnaar, 2010:201). According to Minnaar (2010:201), by the end of the 2006/2007 reporting year sector policing as a crime prevention strategy, and by implication a community

policing intervention, had only been implemented in a total of 76% of the sectors at these 169 high-contact crime police stations out of the approximately 1 200 police stations in South Africa.

The Limpopo Province Annual Report 2010/2011 (SAPS, 2011c) gives feedback on the performance of sector policing in the Limpopo Province during the financial year the feedback for 2011-2012 revealed that there were fifteen (15) high contact crime stations at which sector policing has been fully implemented. The report revealed that there are another thirty (30) police stations in the province at which sector policing is not effectively implemented although they operate between twelve (12) and twenty-four (24) hours per day (Baloyi, 2013:22).

The Limpopo Annual Report 2010/2011 (SAPS, 2011c) specifies the thirty (30) police stations at which sector policing has been implemented, and also mentions the outstanding police stations. The assessment of this report indicates that there were forty-eight (48) police stations at which sector policing still needed implementation during the financial year. An observation done by Baloyi (2013:22) found that only twenty (20) per cent of sector-based patrol vehicles at the stations targeted by his study are 4x4s, which are needed for rural patrols. The updated status report on sector policing at the end of February (2012) contains a list of ninety (90) police stations that had already implemented sector policing and this indicates a vast improvement that was made during the 2011/2012 financial year.

According to Baloyi (2013:67), Mankweng Police Station was introduced to Sector Policing at the beginning of March 2007 when a new station commander was appointed. The station commander started by introducing a new internal management philosophy in which working procedures were practically demonstrated in the field to serve as an example for members to approach or attain equality. Baloyi (2013:67) argues that features of the philosophy were exemplary leadership and a hands-on management approach based on the understanding that no commander should give instructions that he/she cannot demonstrate, or teach how it should be done in practice.

Baloyi (2013:38) study found that male respondents who were members of the community constituted fifty-eight per cent (58%) of the respondents. Out of the fifty-eight per cent (58%), forty-five per cent (45%) rated their understanding of sector policing as very good to excellent. They stated that, while their understanding of sector policing was good, it was not fully implemented and was not delivering what it promised. They suggested that sector crime meetings be held during weekends or after hours during which time more people can be made aware about Sector Policing and what it entails.

According to Baloyi (2013:48), the respondents also gave suggestions of how to improve sector policing in their areas by indicating that the SAPS should hold regular meetings with all the stakeholders in the community in order for sector policing to become an effective tool in the fight against crime. Baloyi (2013:48) argues that there should be regular meetings, perhaps twice a month, so that the police may be able to give feedback to the community and to exchange new ideas and information on crime. The SAPS should also conduct regular door-to-door campaigns and find ways to encourage the community members to participate.

In conclusion Baloyi (2013:21) states that sector policing is aimed at bringing the police closer to the community; creating omnipresence through them being available at any given time in all crime hotspots. The communities located in the deep rural areas of the Limpopo Province experience challenges in articulating their needs and aspirations due to their ignorance of the law regarding their rights. Sector commanders, sector teams, SCFs and CPFs who are working together at grassroots level should liaise with relevant public sector departments and agencies rather than working alone.

2.6 THE COMMUNITY'S SATISFACTIONS, EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEPTIONS OF THE POLICE IN SERVICE DELIVERY

The movement from the traditional crime-fighting model to a community-based model of policing in South Africa brings about change in the definition of policing. Whereas it used to be a "police force," it is now a "police service." Therefore it can be argued that, as for all other complex agencies involved in service delivery, it is important for the police to know how satisfied or dissatisfied their clients are. Moreover, it is important to

discover the factors that affect citizen satisfactions (Kleyn, Rothmann & Jackson, 2004:37). According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:37), the use of measures such as response time, crime arrests or clearance rates is inconsistent with the new philosophies of policing, because such measures fail to address the role of the public as the consumer of policing services. If the police are to serve the public effectively, a constructive working relationship must exist between law enforcement officials and citizens.

It is important to study the public's opinion of police services for at least four reasons. Firstly, because members of the public are the consumers of police services, it is vital to obtain their evaluation of the police service received. 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, a lack of respect, disorder and inefficient police functioning. Thirdly, the information may yield important insights not only into citizens' confidence in the police, but also into the correlates of their confidence. Lastly, to be able to consult effectively with the community, police members should have a good understanding of what the public think they as police are currently doing and what they (the public) would prefer the police to do (Kleyn, Rothmann & Jackson, 2004:38).

In a study of the urban community that was done in South Africa in 1993 on the attitudes and opinions of the police concerning the reporting of crime, it was found that respondents were largely negatively disposed towards the police. This was indicated by the low rate of crimes reported by victims, as well as dissatisfaction with the police in handling their cases. The members of the police of South Africa did not always execute their duties within the framework of fundamental human rights, which resulted in an abuse of power by means of brutal force and torture (Morrison, 2011:147). The researcher is of the opinion that police officers need to change the way the community perceive them if they want partnership with the community in order to prevent crime at Mamotintane Village.

According to Naidoo (2004:212), if the police are to serve the public effectively, law enforcement officials should know what citizens expect. The extent to which the public is willing to cooperate with the police appears to be the product of a number of factors.

These include attitudes toward policing, fear of retaliation, and poor pre-existing relations between the police and neighbourhood residents. Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:38) state that police members should have a good understanding of what the public think they as police are currently doing and what they (the public) would prefer the police to do.

Squires (2011:21) argues that the COP model recognises that the police would have to deliver police services in line with public expectations. According to Squires (2011:21), a variety of methods are employed to establish stronger bonds of trust. Officers in COP are encouraged to engage in face to face encounters with community members, seeking out non-confrontational settings where law-abiding community members could get to know their police and by extension see them as effective, committed and trustworthy partners. Tactics such as door to door visits, surveys, town meetings, and neighbourhood sub-stations are all used based on conditions and resources.

According to Kumar (2012:402), the variable of perception of police is a holistic measure of what the public think of the police. The overall perception of the public determines many other factors such as cooperation with police, support of police action, and obedience to directions of police. "Thus, it is conceivable that negative perceptions of the police contribute to a cycle of reduced police effectiveness, increased crime, and further distrust of police". According to Govender (2012:6), the victim survey conducted in Meadowlands during 2002 explored the perceptions among both victims and non-victims of the police in their community. The victim survey showed that the community did not trust the police. The community did not have confidence in their ability to protect them. The community and the police acknowledge that burglary is the crime most commonly experienced, followed by robbery and assault.

These are serious crimes and in the latter two instances entail violence and threats of violence. The levels of violent crime in Meadowlands are high. Forty-three per cent (43%) of the respondents surveyed thought that the police were doing a poor job, while thirty per cent (30%) thought the police were doing a fair job. About ten per cent (10%) thought that police were doing a bad job due to the lack of resources. Twenty-six per cent (26%) of the respondents said that the police were lazy, twenty-five per cent (25%)

found them to be corrupt, nineteen per cent (19%) complained that they don't attend to complaints in specific areas; fourteen per cent (14%) said that they lacked resources and twelve per cent (12%) said that they were racists (Govender, 2012:6).

Burton (2003:27) is of the opinion that perceptions of laziness may also be closely related to the reported perception that police do not enter certain parts of Meadowlands. Although the police station is located in the middle of Meadowlands, it has been noted that in some locations the environment is as unsafe for police as for the public, and is almost impossible to police. Long grass, poor lighting and bad roads make areas around the hostels, for example, very difficult to patrol. At night, the limited availability of flashlights makes it even more difficult to patrol and to investigate incidents in these areas. According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43) 40 per cent of the respondents are unhappy and/or dissatisfied with the overall service of the police. A total of 36 per cent indicate that the police are generally not seen in their neighbourhoods, while others (25%) indicate that they see the police 10 times or more per week in their neighbourhoods. Thirty seven percent (37%) indicate that their neighbourhood is fairly safe and 48 per cent report that their neighbourhood is about as safe as other neighbourhoods.

The task of the police officer is not just to protect and serve but to assist in building a positive socio-economic environment within the community he/she serves. Policing, thus, starts with the basic concepts of image and on understanding of what is expected of a police officer and as the dynamics of societies change so, too, must learning be on-going (Singh, 2004:93). According to Bezuidenhout (2008:48), in becoming a "service" the way was paved to offer a service of excellence to all South African citizens. The SAPS is nonetheless finding it difficult to make any significant inroads into the crime problem. Furthermore the populace usually views members of the police in a negative light.

The level of safety, fear of crime, and extent of disorder in the community may have an additional impact on the overall satisfaction with the police. Residents living in low-income, high-crime neighborhoods are most likely to experience a negative contact with the police, have lower expectations of police service, have higher level of fear of crime,

and dislike the neighborhood (Ivkovic, 2008:412). Ivkovic (2008:412) argues that the public opinion about the police could also be related to the way the police perform their official functions. Overly aggressive, discriminatory, or corrupt police agencies generally induce a lower level of support by the public at large.

According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:38), members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations. Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they are entitled to expect from the police. Dissatisfaction of the public in the United Kingdom was a result of the police having the wrong perception about what the public wanted from the service. According to Ivkovic (2008:412), as the number of contacts with the police increases, the level of satisfaction decreases. Thus, it is quite possible that the nature of the contact may not have as much impact on the level of public opinion about the police as the satisfaction with the contact does. Ivkovic (2008:412) report that "in terms of whether or not the contact was voluntary or involuntary, the results show that, regardless of the type of initiation, unsatisfactory treatment of the individual decreases the likelihood of positive perceptions of the state police".

The researcher assumes there is a lack of contact between community members and the police at the Mamotintane Village which makes it difficult for police officers to play their role in addressing conditions underlying crime problem in the community. According to Kumar (2012:400), assessment of police performance is done by the public at two levels- assessment of individual level experience involving contact between police and individual and general assessment of police performance by both their overall experience in society and through contact if any with the police.

Ivkovic (2008:412) argues that thus, although certain types of contacts are more likely than others to generate dissatisfaction, it seems that having any contact with the police results in more negative attitudes because the chances of a negative contact and/or unsatisfactory contact increase. According to Ivkovic (2008:412), the most frequently studied type of voluntary contact occurs when a person becomes a crime victim and decides to report the victimisation to the police. Reporting the victimisation to the police further erodes the overall satisfaction with the police.

Ivkovic (2008:412) argues that the overall satisfaction with the police is related to the satisfaction with the response time and satisfaction with the initial investigation, as well as to the initiation and the quality of the subsequent investigation and the likelihood of an arrest. The victims' "lack of knowledge of what was happening to the case and, for a few, the consequent feeling that the police did not care and were not doing anything" are detrimental for the victims' opinions about the police.

According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43), as many as 44 per cent of the community respondents who had contact with the police within the last 12 months believe that the police officer with whom they had contact is incompetent. Only 11 per cent regard police officers as very competent, while 40 per cent of the respondents view police officers as competent only to a certain extent. Only 19 per cent of the respondents experience the police as very helpful. Furthermore, 51 per cent of the respondents indicate that the police had very little interest in their situations. Only 24 per cent experience the police as very respectful. Thirty-four percent (34%) of the community members feel that the police are fair but only to a certain extent. Also, 19 per cent of the respondents feel that they can really trust the police, while 47 per cent feel they cannot really trust the police. Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43) indicate that only 9 per cent respondents are very satisfied with the provided service. Regarding the responding officer, 52 per cent indicate that they are dissatisfied, 31 per cent are happy but not entirely satisfied and only 17 per cent are very satisfied 80 per cent of the respondents are dissatisfied because of slow response time.

According to Kleyn, Rothman and Jackson's (2004:43), research, thirty-four of the respondents indicate that the police officer does not follow up the case and 40 per cent indicate that they are unhappy because no arrests are made. It is alarming that 44 per cent of the community members in the Rustenburg area who had contact with the police regarded the level of competence of police officers as low. A total of 48 per cent reported that police officers were not helpful, while 51 per cent indicated that police officers show little interest in their situation. Furthermore, 47 per cent indicated low trust in the police, while 60 percent were not satisfied with the service they received from the police. A total of 52 percent of the community members reported that they were not

satisfied with the responding officer. The main reason for their low level of satisfaction was slow response time.

2.6. FACTORS AFFECTING POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY

2.6.1. Police Corruption

Banks (2004:34) defines police corruption as the misuse of authority by a police officer in a way intended to produce personal gain for the officer or others. Action taken by a police officer that exploits police power in exchange for considerations of "private-regarding benefit," which violate standards governing his or her conduct. According to Rothmann (2005:214), the public is generally sceptical of the effectiveness of the police, concerned about police corruption and not enthusiastic about their interaction with the police.

According to Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:21), the reform of the SAPS, conducted with the assistance of the international community, has been evaluated overall by experts as successful. Such evaluations notwithstanding, reports of police misconduct have recently prompted even the then National Police Commissioner, Jackie Selebi, to acknowledge that corruption within the agency is problematic as "dockets for criminal court cases go missing".

Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:24) are of the opinion that corruption-related press stories published over a 15-month period and conclude that "the occurrence of reports on so many different types of corrupt activities in the South African press in little over a year may indicate that police corruption in South Africa is fairly extensive as well as being varied in nature". The 2003/2004 report omits such clear numbers, stating only that 347 members were suspended because of their involvement in corruption-related activities. The latter activities are defined to include, among others, armed robbery, attempting to defeat the course of justice, corruption, extortion, fraud, perjury, and theft (Sauerman & Ivkovic, 2008:27).

Tackling police corruption, identified as central to undermining the SAPS crime-combating strategies is also crucial. Police officers have variously laid the blame for corruption and other criminal activities by police members 'on the system', maintaining that the police see easy success because they – better than anyone – know how lax the system is neither justifying nor excusing corruption (Singh, 2004:91). Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:27) stated that according to the Institute for Security Studies' 2003 National Victims of Crime Survey, among the six crimes included in the study, corruption ranked as the second most prevalent crime in the country. Furthermore, the victims evaluated the SAPS as a key player in the initiation of acts of corruption amongst the public service departments, second only to the traffic department.

Banks (2004:34) states that police officers act corruptly when, in exercising or falling to exercise their authority, they act with the primary intention of furthering private or departmental/divisional advantage. The researcher is of the opinion that community members at Mamotintane Village seems to lack confidence in reporting a crime to the police because offenders may bribe police officers to lose dockets so that the case can be dismissed in court. As a result, police corruption contributes to poor service delivery to the community. Bezuidenhout (2008:56) is of the opinion that dockets are being sold or lost; reports of police officials who are being bribed are on the increase; cases are being thrown out of court because of improper evidence collection; motivated police officials are sometimes forced to use unethical tactics to generate crime intelligence and poorly trained police officials have to face highly organised as well as well armed criminals on a daily basis.

According to William and Pruitt (2010:135), while the advances made by the SAPS are important, the current trouble faced by the police chief must be acknowledged. In January 2008, the then South African police chief stepped down amid allegations of corruption. Chief Jackie Selebi resigned shortly after an investigation revealed possible corruption. The Johannesburg High Court has found former police Chief Jackie Selebi guilty of corruption but not of defeating the ends of justice. William and Pruitt (2010:135) further explain that the corruption charge alleges that Chief Selebi received money from a convicted drug trafficker who was then on trial for murder. In exchange for the money,

it is alleged that Selebi protected drug shipments and passed on confidential information on both the murder trial and current drug operations.

Helen Zille, the then Democratic Alliance (DA) leader, fears that corruption is further enmeshed in the SAPS than the charges against Selebi imply. She has stated her belief that if police corruption goes unchecked, South Africa will become a "gangstocracy". This incident has no doubt affected the confidence that citizens have in the police. How the government of South Africa and the SAPS respond to this crisis will indicate the success of democratic policing (William & Pruitt, 2010:136).

2.6.2. Police culture

The SAPS organisational culture is in essence a subculture because each and every member brings to the organisation attributes of his or her own culture. Most generally, police culture can be described as: ". . . the occupational beliefs and values that are shared by officers across the whole country". Police subculture, on the other hand, is the 'values imported from the broader society in which officers live (Steyn, 2006:147). Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:22) argue that police culture in which police officers are highly tolerant of police corruption, should be regarded as culture of low integrity that is characterised by biased enforcement of laws, discrimination, and the lack of accountability.

According to Baloyi (2013:22), promoting a positive police culture, strengthening accountability and engaging communities will build a professional police service with integrity and legitimacy. A police service based on acceptable values will be better placed to respond positively to the needs of the communities whose values they emulate and serve. The SAPS that is accepted in the community will be able to cope with everyday challenges and improve service delivery.

Sauerman and Ivkovic (2008:23) are of the opinion that building and maintaining the culture of integrity – a culture intolerant of any forms of police misconduct – is a key aspect of police democratisation. In fact, consider integrity management as one of the basic non-negotiable principles of democratic policing because "if managed correctly, integrity will lead to rule-governed actions by the police; they will act in non-arbitrary

ways, without discrimination, malfeasance, corruption, or abuse of power." In short, striving to develop, maintain, and even enhance the culture of high integrity within the police is one of the key characteristics of successfully democratised police (Sauerman & Ivkovic, 2008:23).

2.6.3. Lack of community participation

According to Nkwenyane (2011:15), the concept "community participation" is defined as "the process by which an organisation consults with interested or affected individuals, community, organisations, and government entities before making a decision" and as "a two-way communication and collaborative problem-solving with the goal of achieving better and more acceptable decisions". Nkwenyane (2011:18) states that community participation ensures that people are equal and active partners in the decision making process, have a better understanding of the issues and difficulties associated with their particular problem or need, and share responsibility to develop practical solutions to the issues raised.

Community participation in policing increases police and community interaction, a concentration on quality of life issues, the decentralisation of the police, strategic methods for making police practices more efficient and effective, a concentration on neighborhood patrols, and problem oriented or problem solving police officer (Nkwenyane, 2011:15). Nkwenyane (2011:15) further explains that community participation occur only when people act in concert to advice, decide and act on issues which can best be solved through such joint action.

Nkwenyane (2011:15) argues that participation, on the one hand, is a form of cooperation between agencies and the community, and is widely recognised as an efficient tool for analysing and addressing social problems in a sustainable manner. In essence, community participation can be divided into three stages, being planning, implementation and follow-up. The planning stage involves four levels of intensity in community participation which is distinguished as follows: Information sharing, consultation, decision making and initiating action (Nkwenyane, 2011:15).

According to Bezuidenhout (2008:55), citizens have concerns about police competency and the police abusing their powers but on the other hand police complain that the community does not want to become partners in combating crime. Bezuidenhout (2008:55) has served many years in the executive committee of a CPF and one of the biggest problems that were raised at every meeting was the unwillingness of the community to get involved in crime prevention and their reluctance to divulge information to the police officials in their area.

Bezuidenhout (2008:55) states that most of the CPF chairpersons raised similar issues about the police and the police raised similar issues about the community. The CPF chairpersons usually blamed the police for their poor performance, a lack of skills and also insisted that the police did not really care about the problems that the community is experiencing. The SAPS members at the meetings usually blamed the community for a lack of dedication to crime prevention efforts. Bezuidenhout (2008:55) argues that police officials were frustrated with the non-involvement of the community. Police officials were of the opinion that the community had a great deal of information on crime, criminals and other problems in their area, but was not willing to divulge the information. According to Bezuidenhout (2008:58) the police cannot react pro-actively if they do not have the community to supply them with enough information to fulfill their policing task, namely ensure a safe and secure South Africa.

Community participation through interaction with all community-based structures and relevant public sector departments will empower communities. It will also improve transparency, provide information and increase access to most needed services (Baloyi, 2013:31). According to Morrison (2011:144), crime imposes on and violates the rights of the victim. One of the prime objectives of the police is to prevent crime – and thus protect the rights of the victim. If the citizens of the community are more involved in supporting the police in crime prevention, the police will be empowered in the work that they do and the communities will be safer.

Participation of community-based structures and organisations through community meetings, joint problem identification, resolving platforms and a mix of other community participation forums may be used to consult, involve and inform communities and may

be used for collaborative discussions and the empowering of communities (Baloyi, 2013:75). Community participation does an important and valuable role in assisting to changing perceptions of ordinary people on the police, empowering people and developing a common understanding about issues that require the collective effort of communities and the police. For the police to gain legitimacy in the eyes of the communities, partnership will have to be developed (Nkwenyane, 2011:18).

Baloyi (2013:31) argues that the empowerment level of the community participation spectrum in which "the final decision-making is placed in the hands of the community", will not be achieved nor will the implied promise, "we will implement what you decide", be realised until "change agents" accept citizens as full partners. According to Baloyi (2013:31) "change agents" are not supposed to initiate or implement service delivery-related programmes without the participation of the affected community.

There is also an important need for the SAPS and the community to identify hotspots where most crimes occur for joint SAPS and community patrols. Sixty per cent (60%) of the community respondents at the Limpopo Province, suggested that a lack of street lights in villages is problematic because criminals are able to commit crime in the dark and cannot be easily identified. The respondents suggested that the police and community clean out fields and bushes so that criminals have nowhere to hide (Baloyi, 2013:49).

According to Baloyi (2013:49), the respondents strongly recommended that steps be taken against corrupt police officials and that community members be given feedback regarding the outcome of any misconduct or criminal cases in order to restore the trust and confidence of the community in the SAPS. Baloyi (2013:49) states that it was also suggested that pastors should get involved in sector policing so that they can encourage the community to participate and also provide information. To be effective and efficient, inclusive CPFs and SCFs structures must be encouraged with a view to broaden community participation.

2.6.4. Location of the police station

Police stations are the first line of contact in terms of responding to complaints by communities and are offering general safety and security services. Their location is a critical factor to determining the extent to which SAPS can fulfill its mandate. The location of police station refers to the policing area, kilometer radius, and physical location in relation to population concentration with regard to racial patterns (Kgomokaboya, 2011:51). Kgomokaboya (2011:5) argues that within this context, his study demonstrates that the transformation of SAPS with special focus on the location of police stations and the establishment of "satellites" clearly presents challenges faced by both rural communities in the Limpopo Province's Capricorn district.

Victims are unable to report incidents of crime to these police stations due to long distances they are required to travel. In most instances, these victims are without the necessary resources to pay travel fees. Due to vastness of areas that these police stations are supposed to service, the time it takes for a police vehicle to reach a crime scene or complaints place impacts negatively to resultant investigations as crime scenes gets tampered with and perpetrators get more time to commit and escape. These are also widespread complaints about poor visible policing in these areas (Kgomokaboya, 2011:54).

2.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.7.1 Broken Windows Theory

The theory was introduced in a 1982 article by social scientists James Q. Wilson and George L. Kelling. Since then it has been subject to great debate both within the social sciences and the public sphere. The theory has been used as a motivation for several reforms in criminal policy, including the controversial mass use of "stop, question, and frisk" by the New York City Police Department (Wikipedia, 2015:1)

The broken window is a metaphor for ways behavioural norms break down in a community. If one person scrawls graffiti on the wall, others will soon be spraying paint. If one aggressive panhandler begins working a street block, others will follow. In short,

once people begin disregarding norms that keep order in a community, both order and community unravel (Petersen, 2004:31). According to Sridhar (2006:1842), Social psychologists and police officers tend to agree that if a window in a building is broken and is left unrepaired; all the rest of the windows will soon be broken.

Sridhar (2006:1842) argues that window breaking does not necessarily occur on a large scale because some areas are inhabited by determined window-breakers whereas others are populated by window-lovers; rather, one unrepaired broken window is a signal that no one cares, and so breaking more windows costs nothing.

Alford (2012:1257) is of the opinion that the Broken Windows Theory of social order suggests that communities should be vigilant against the smallest illegalities. A well-tended neighborhood cares about petty crimes and creates a bond of social order that discourages serious criminal elements. By contrast, "disorderly behaviour engenders fear in the local community . . . that urban decline and decay will ultimately follow on the heels of unconstrained disorder". The researcher is of the opinion that community members from the Mamotintane Village are not vigilant against the smallest illegalities and petty crimes and don't report them to the police which makes it difficult for the police to deliver police services.

The essence of Broken Windows is that minor incivilities (such as, drunkenness, begging, vandalism, disorderly behaviour, graffiti, litter, etc), if unchecked and uncontrolled, produce an atmosphere in a community or on a street in which more serious crime will flourish. In other words crimes flourish because of lax enforcement. The prescription of Broken Windows is to shift policing from major crimes to traditional public order maintenance (Sridhar, 2006:1842). The researcher assumes that there is a clear indication of minor incivilities such as drunkenness, begging and vandalism, disorderly behavior at Mamotintane Village which sends a message to criminals that more serious crimes can be committed without any consequences

According to Rosenbaum (1994:222), the theory stipulate that minor events and incivilities that frightened people, far from being a distraction for police departments, should be identified as key targets of police action. It leaves criminals free to roam and

send a message that law violations are not taken seriously. The focus of the broken windows policing strategy is to address community anxiety about public safety. Broken Windows advocates argue that the role of the police is fundamentally to maintain public order. Alford (2012:1256) argues that serious street crime flourishes in areas in which disorderly behaviour goes unchecked." If the police maintain its traditional role as night watchman against threats to order, society flourishes. But as soon as the police stop maintaining order—when vandalism and graffiti go unreported, rowdy vagrants are uncontrolled, and broken windows are unrepaired—community controls break down and serious crime has the opportunity to flourish.

According to Sousa and Kelling (2006:98), order maintenance should represent a policy option in support of police and community efforts to be implemented as problem-analysis and problem-solving dictate. From the perspective of community policing, Broken Windows represents an important potential response to crime and disorder problems that may or may not be dictated through problem-solving processes and broken-windows-style interventions should be conducted in partnership with community stakeholders.

Police in big cities have dramatically reduced crime rates by applying this theory. Rather than concentrating on felonies, they aggressively enforce minor offenses like graffiti, public drinking, panhandling, and littering. This police enforcement sends a signal that broken-window behaviour has consequences in a city. If a person cannot get away with jumping a turnstile in the subway, that person had better not try armed robbery (Petersen, 2004:31). Alford (2012:1258) states that broad political support has emerged favoring community policing strategies aimed at altering neighborhood perceptions. Police chiefs in major cities such as New York, Chicago, and Boston embraced the Broken Windows Theory of social order, creating a "Blue Revolution" that fundamentally altered American police practices. According to Alford (2012:1258), the Broken Windows Theory has become "conventional wisdom" and is now a staple of community police efforts in the United States and around the world. Community-oriented policing is the dominant model of policing in democracies around the world.

Foot patrol officers reduce the fear of crime because they are effective at combating the social disorder that residents correlate with serious crime. It is the perception of crime associated with graffiti, abandoned cars, vagrants, panhandlers, and other incivilities that is uppermost in people's minds. The theory's second order claim—that reducing fear strengthens communities and leads to an actual reduction in crime— remains a contested empirical question. But the primary claim—that "policing of minor crime and disorder can reduce fear of crime in a community", has become widely accepted. The Broken Windows Theory posits an indirect relationship between social disorder and serious crime: "Citizen Fear, created by disorder, leads to weakened social controls, thus creating the conditions in which crime can flourish (Alford, 2012:1257).

According to Alford (2012:1259), the Broken Windows Theory is useful in considering the social costs of all types of corruption. In terms of trust in public institutions, it is a mistake to assume that petty corruption is less serious than grand corruption. The unpredictable nature of corruption is one of its most disturbing aspects, and unpredictability is common with petty bribes. Alford (2012:1258) argues that with respect to the payment of bribes to government officials. There is an empirical connection between the relatively minor offence of bribing a government official and the larger impact that corruption has on public welfare across various metrics. Corruption is a strong signal of social disorder, a canary in the coal mine confirming that government officials cannot be trusted.

Alford (2012:1260) further explains that the community bonds necessary to maintain social order are strained when government corruption is widespread. If the government cannot be trusted to pursue public welfare over private gain, it cannot be trusted to pursue many policies that promote the key ingredients necessary for a productive, healthy, educated, and stable society. By contrast, a government that effectively combats corruption powerfully communicates its commitment to the welfare of its citizens, laying the foundation for a society in which its citizens can thrive.

2.8 CONCLUSION

The level of safety, fear of crime, and extent of disorder in the community may have an additional impact on the overall satisfaction with the police. Residents living in low-income, high-crime neighborhoods are most likely to experience a negative contact with the police, have lower expectations of police service, have higher level of fear of crime, and dislike the neighborhood. Members of the public who have very high expectations of the police are likely to become frustrated when the police fail to meet these expectations. Such expectations may be rooted in what people believe they are entitled to expect from the police. Assessment of police performance is done by the public at two levels- assessment of individual level experience involving contact between police and individual and general assessment of police performance by both their overall experience in society and through contact if any with the police. The overall satisfaction with the police is related to the satisfaction with the response time and satisfaction with the initial investigation, as well as to the initiation and the quality of the subsequent investigation and the likelihood of an arrest. The next chapter will be presenting, analysing, and interpreting data collected in the Mamotintane village.

CHAPTER 3

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter highlighted the nature of the services provided by the SAPS to ensure safety in the communities. The theoretical framework was also thoroughly discussed. This chapter is based on the data analysis, data presentation and the interpretation of the data that was collected through fixed-response questionnaires which were distributed to a sample of 120 community members at Mamotintane Village. A purposive or judgmental sampling was used to select people who participated on the study. The questionnaires that were used for collecting data contained five sections with 30 questions. These sections were divided according to the objectives of the study in order to answer each objective. The researcher used IBM SPSS Statistics Version 22 to analyse the data and presented it in a form of tables, pie charts and bar graphs.

3.2 PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

Below is the presentation of data collected through distribution of fixed-response questionnaires. The data is presented through tables, pie charts, histograms and graphs. The discussion is supported by the literature highlighted on chapter 2.

3.2.1 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

3.2.1.1 Gender distribution of respondents

Pie-chart 1: Gender distribution of respondents

Gender
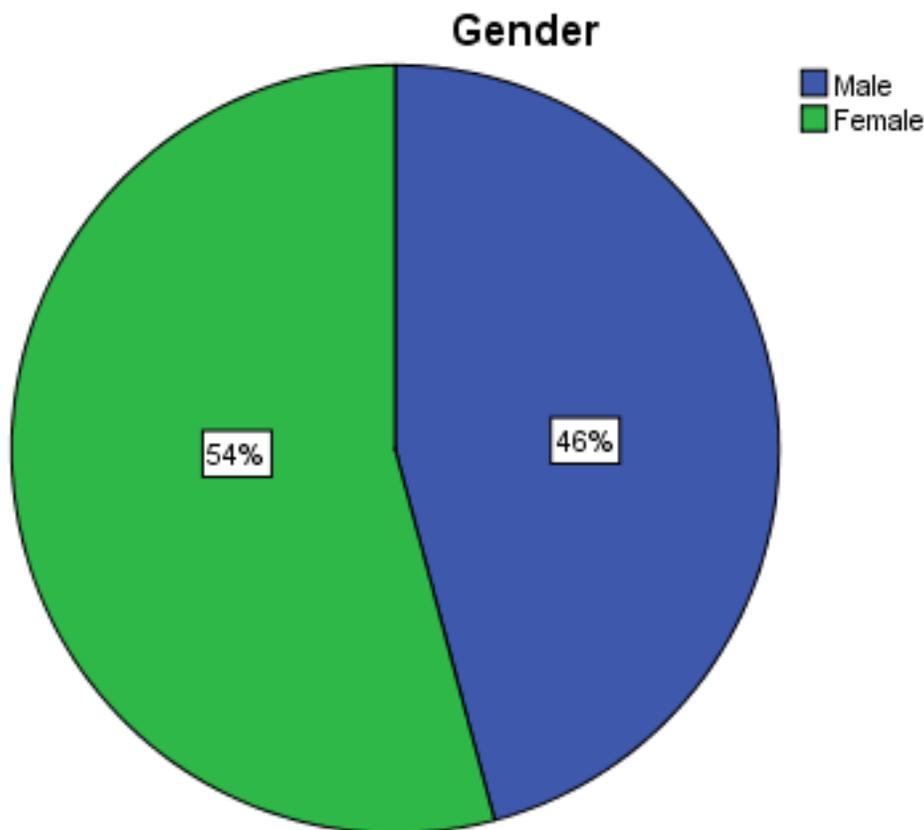
Fifty four percent (54%) of the respondents who participated on the study are females while 46% are males. Therefore more females participated on an evaluation study of police service delivery to the Mamotintane Village than males.

3.2.1.2 Age distribution

Histogram 1: Age

Age
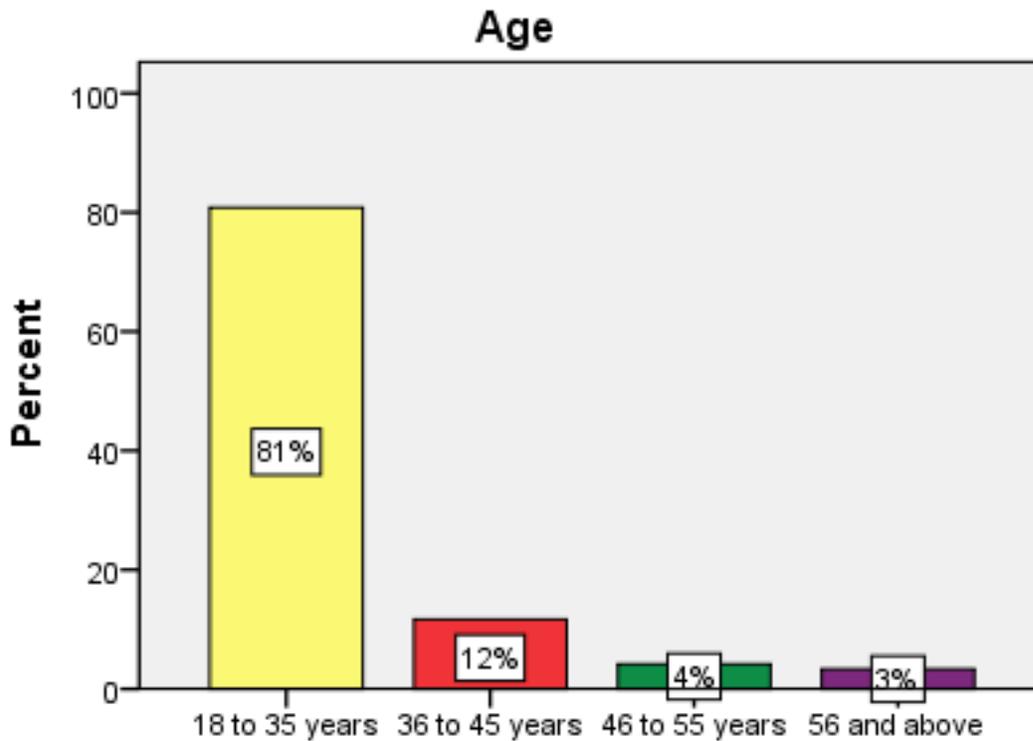
Histogram 1 indicates that 81% of the respondents who participated on the study are between the ages of 18 to 35 years,12% is between 36 to 45 years, 4% is between 46 to 55 years and 3% is 56 and above. Therefore majority of young people between the ages 18 to 35 participated on an evaluation study of police service delivery Rendered at Mamotintane Village.

3.2.1.3. Position of the respondent in the community
Table 1: Position

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	CPF member	6	5
	Police officer	2	2
	Community member	108	90
	Leader e.g. CPF chairperson	4	3
	Total	120	100

Table 1 indicates that 5% of the respondents who participated on the study are CPF members, 2% are police officers, 90% are community members and 3% are community leaders. Therefore the majority of people who participated on the study at Mamotintane Village are community members.

3.2.2. SATISFACTION AND EXPECTATION OF POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY

3.2.2.1 Competence of police officers

Table 2: Competence of police officers

		Frequency	Per cent
Valid	Very satisfied	1	1
	Satisfied	32	27
	Average	35	29
	Unsatisfied	40	33
	Very unsatisfied	12	10
	Total	120	100.0

Table 2 indicates that only 1% of the respondent is very satisfied about competence of police officers while 27% is satisfied. A large number of 33% respondents are unsatisfied while 10% is very unsatisfied, therefore majority of community members at Mamotintane Village are not satisfied about the competence of police officers. According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43), as many as 44% of the community respondents at Rustenburg who had contact with the police within the last 12 months believe that the police officer with whom they had contact is incompetent. Only 11% regard police officers as very competent, while 40% of the respondents view police officers as competent only to a certain extent.

3.2.2.2 Helpfulness

Table 3: Helpfulness

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very satisfied	6	5
	Satisfied	25	21
	Average	38	31
	Unsatisfied	36	30
	Very unsatisfied	15	13
	Total	120	100

Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson's (2004:43) study found that a total of 48% reported that police officers were not helpful to the community members in their study. In support, table 2 indicates that only 5% of the respondents who participated in the study are very satisfied about helpfulness of police officers, while 21% is just satisfied. A large number of 30% respondents are unsatisfied while 13% is very unsatisfied about the helpfulness of police officers. Therefore majority of community members are not satisfied about helpfulness of police officer at Mamotintane Village.

3.2.2.3. Interest in the situation

Table 4: Interest in the situation

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very satisfied	4	3
	Satisfied	25	21
	Average	35	29
	Unsatisfied	36	30
	Very unsatisfied	20	17
	Total	120	100

Table 3 indicates that only 3% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about police officers having interest in their situations while 21% is satisfied. A large number of 30% respondents are unsatisfied, while 17% is very unsatisfied, therefore the majority of community member are unsatisfied about police officers having interest in their situations. According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43), 51% of the respondents indicate that the police had very little interest in their situations. The researcher is of the opinion that community member's loss confidence in reporting crimes at Mamotintane Village because police officers do not show any interest in their situation, as a result criminals can take advantage of the situation and commit more crimes because the police do not show any interest.

3.2.2.4. Courtesy/Respectfulness

Histogram 2: Courtesy/Respectfulness
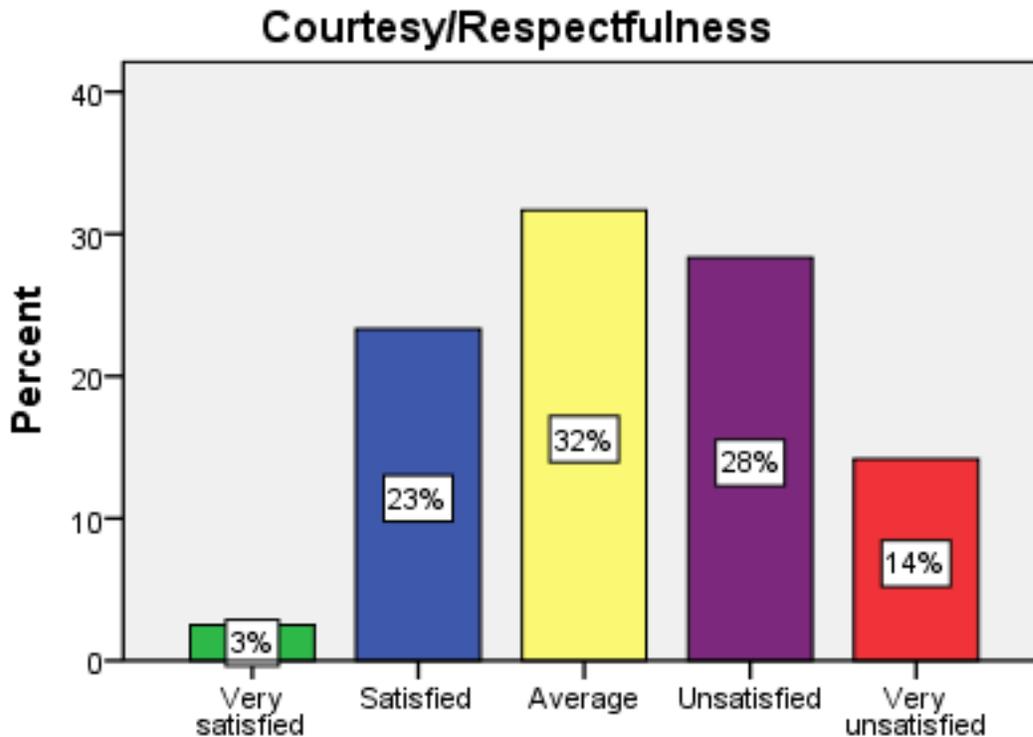
Histogram 2 indicates that only 3% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about the courtesy or respect of police officers while 23% is satisfied. A large number of 28% respondents are unsatisfied, while 14% is very unsatisfied, therefore many participants indicated that police officers lack respect when delivering services to the community. According to Kumar (2012:401), courtesy and good behaviour by police is an important factor in assessing the functioning of police. Rude and indifferent behaviour by police officers discourage the public from approaching police for services, increases the division between police and public, and creates a social environment that makes prevention and detection of crime and maintenance of order difficult.

3.2.2.5. Fairness

Pie-chart 2: Fairness

Fairness

Legend:
- Very satisfied
- Satisfied
- Average
- Unsatisfied
- Very unsatisfied

3% — 19% — 36% — 28% — 13%
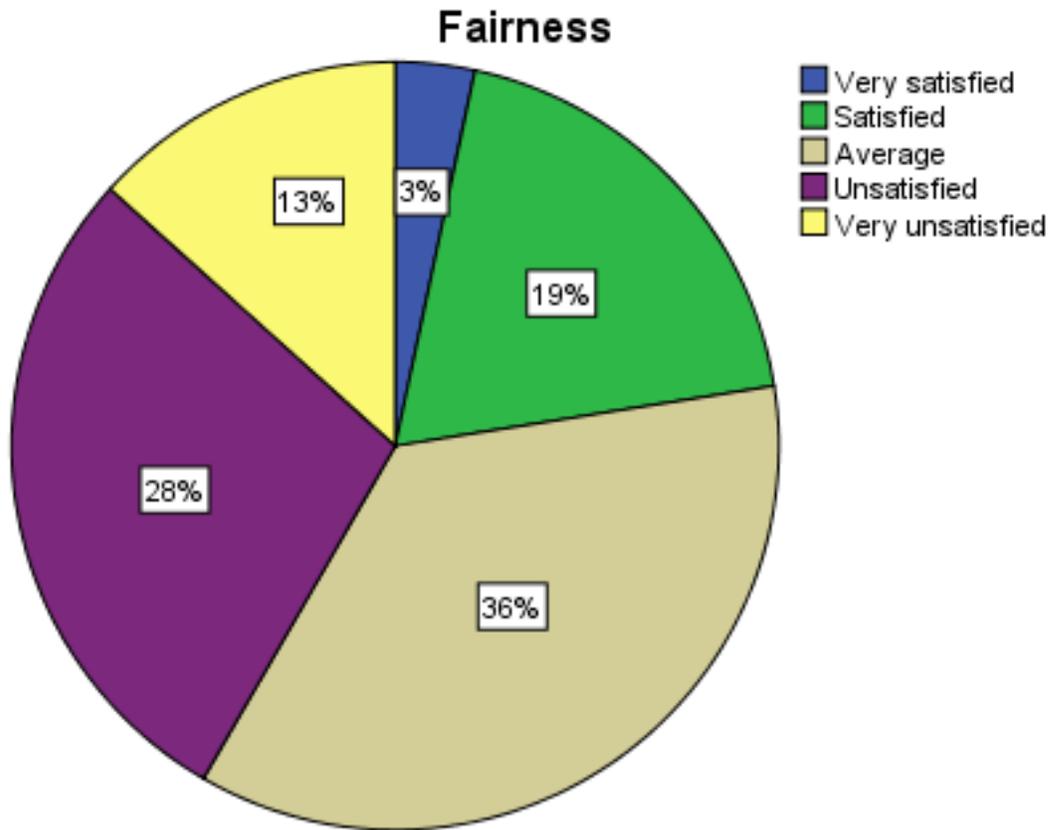
According to Banks (2004:27), police officers should perform all duties impartially, without favour or affection or ill will and without regard to status, sex, race, religion, political belief or aspiration. All citizens will be treated equally with courtesy, consideration and dignity. In contrary, Pie-chart 1 indicates only 3% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about the fairness of police officers while 19% is satisfied. A large number of 28% respondents are unsatisfied while 13% is very unsatisfied, therefore majority of community members are not satisfied about the fairness of police officers.

3.2.2.6. Police investigation

Table 5: Police investigation

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very satisfied	2	2
	Satisfied	22	18
	Average	19	15
	Unsatisfied	37	31
	Very unsatisfied	40	33
	Total	120	100

The overall satisfaction with the police is related to the satisfaction with the response time and satisfaction with the initial investigation, as well as to the initiation and the quality of the subsequent investigation and the likelihood of an arrest. The victims' "lack of knowledge of what was happening to the case and, for a few, the consequent feeling that the police did not care and were not doing anything" are detrimental for the victims' opinions about the police (Ivkovic, 2008:412). In support, table 5 indicates that only 2% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about police investigation while 18% is satisfied. A large number of 31% respondents are unsatisfied while 33% is very unsatisfied; therefore many of community members are not satisfied about police investigation.

3.2.2.7. Service provided at the police stations (e.g. certifying copies and reporting a case)

Table 6: Service provided at the police stations

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very satisfied	34	28
	Satisfied	42	35
	Average	20	16
	Unsatisfied	15	13
	Very unsatisfied	9	8
	Total	120	100

Table 6 indicates that a large number of 28% respondents who participated in the study are very satisfied about the services provided at the local police station, while 35% is satisfied. Only 13% of the respondents are very unsatisfied while 8% is satisfied, therefore many participants were satisfied about the service provided at the local police station. Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43) study indicates that only 9% among the respondents are very satisfied with the provided service. Regarding the responding officer, 52% indicate that they are dissatisfied, 31% are happy but not entirely satisfied and only 17% are very satisfied.

3.2.2.8. Responding time to call for help or assistance

**Table 7: Responding time to call for help or assistance**

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Very satisfied	2	2
	Satisfied	21	18
	Average	26	21
	Unsatisfied	37	31
	Very unsatisfied	34	28
	Total	120	100

The above table 7 indicates that only 2% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about the responding time for help or assistance, while 18% is just satisfied. A large number of 31% respondents are unsatisfied while 28% is very unsatisfied, therefore the results show that police officers take time to assist or help community members when they need their help at Mamotintane Village. The researcher is of the opinion that the delay in response time for assistance may discourage community members not to report any crime that is being committed to the community.

3.2.3. KNOWLEDGE OF POLICING STRATEGIES THAT ARE MEANT TO IMPROVE POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY TO THE COMMUNITY

3.2.3.1. An understanding of the concept community policing and how it functions in the community

Histogram 3: An understanding of the concept community policing and how it functions in the community
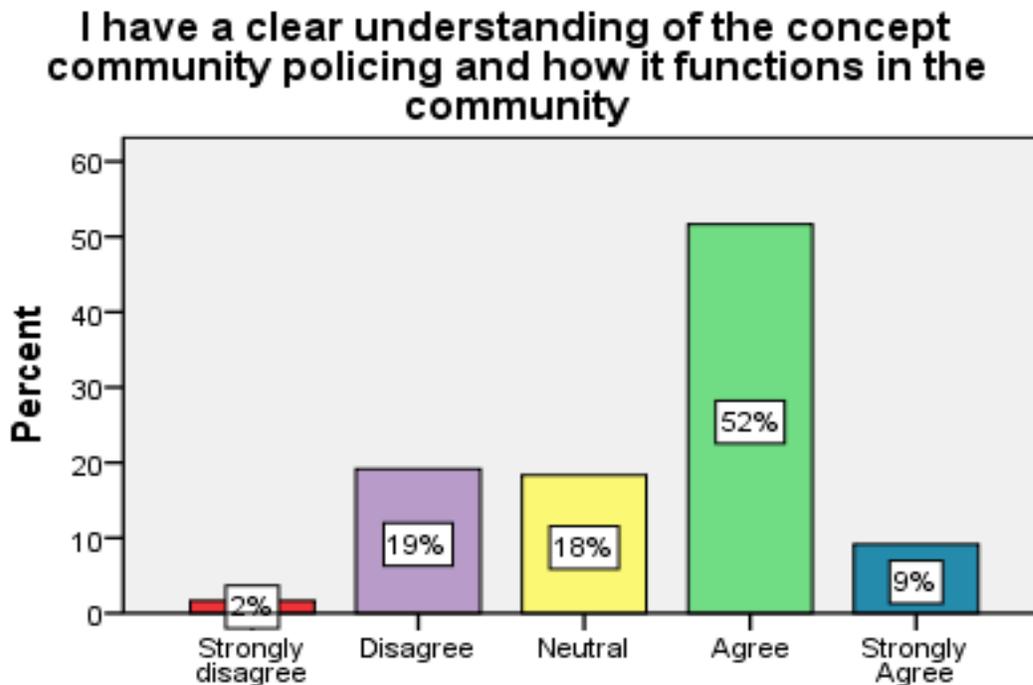
Histogram 3 indicates that only 2% of the respondents strongly disagree that they have a clear understanding of the concept community policing and how it functions in the community while 19% disagree. The majority of 52% of the respondents agree, while 9% strongly agree that they have a clear understanding of the concept community policing and how it functions in the community. Therefore majority of community members have a clear understanding of what is community policing. According to Moolman (2003:33), community policing is a collaborative effort between the police and the community that identifies problems of crime and disorder and involves all elements of the community in the search for solutions to these problems. It is founded on close, mutually beneficial ties between police and community members.

3.2.3.2. The police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community

**Histogram 4: The police are successful in implementing the concept community policing**
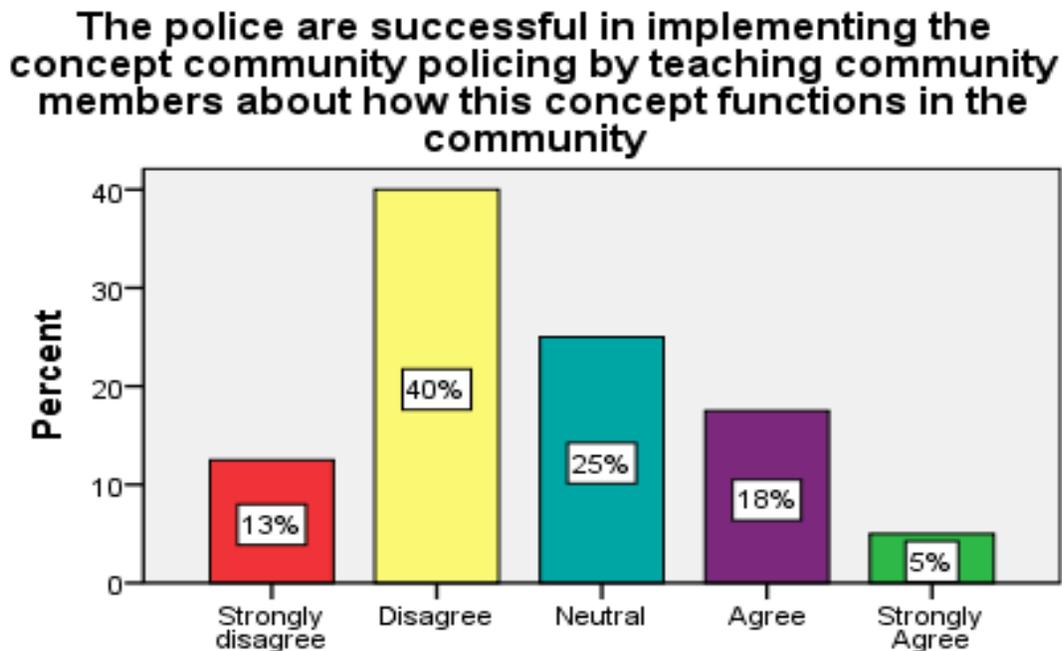
Histogram 4 indicates that 13% of the respondents strongly disagree that the police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community, while a large number of 40% disagree. Only 18% of the respondents agree, while 5% strongly agree that the police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community. Therefore with the 40% of respondents who disagree with above statement, the police are not doing enough on implementing community policing to the community. The researcher assumes that the lack of implementation of community policing can be caused by the negative attitudes of police officers who believe that community policing is a soft approach in combating crime.

3.2.3.3. CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community

**Histogram 5: CPFs are successfully established in the community**
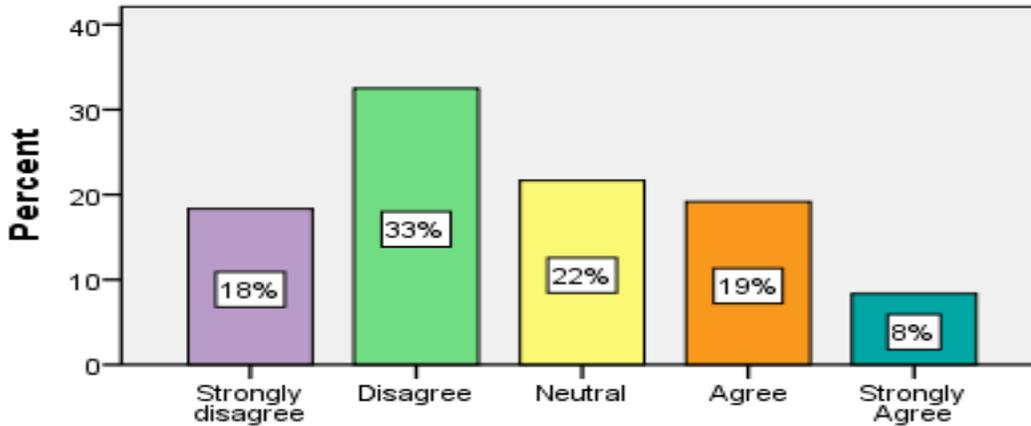
Histogram 5 indicates that 18% of the respondents strongly disagree and a large number of 33% disagree that CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community. Only 19% of the respondents agree, while 8% strongly agree that CPFs are successfully established in the community. Therefore CPFs are not well established in at Mamotintane Village. The researcher is of the opinion that there is clearly lack of participation in CPF at Mamotintane Village because community members have no knowledge of CPF and how it functions.

According to Kumar (2012:399), instead of waiting for the public to come to police stations for service or call for assistance over the telephone, community policing entails deployment of resources in the field to actively engage with the community and identify problems and issues requiring police attention. This involves face-to-face interaction between CPOs and community members, interaction during house visits, public meetings, etc.

3.2.3.4. There is a good partnership between community members and the police in problem solving where community members trust the police with information that can help the police

Histogram 6: There is a good partnership between community members

There is a good partnership between community members and the police in problem solving where community members trust the police with information that can help the police
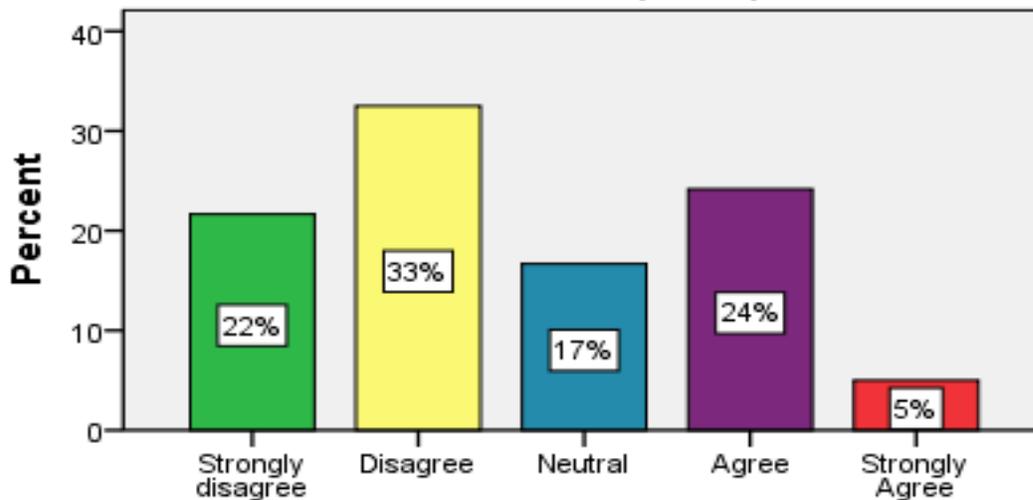
Histogram 6 indicates that 22% of the respondents strongly disagree, while 33% disagree that there is a good partnership between community members and the police in problem solving where community members trust the police with information that can help the police. Only 24% of the respondents agree, while 5% strongly agree, therefore 33% respondents disagree that there is good partnership between community members and the police in relation to information and trust. In support, Bezuidenhout (2008:58) argues that however noble it may seem, community policing or partnership policing is not doing well because the community still does not trust the police. In a perfect society the community will trust its police service, will work in a partnership with it and will spontaneously divulge information that will enable the police to act proactively and prevent crimes. This 'trust-relationship' between the police and citizens does not exist in most societies. Police cannot operate without information from and about the community.

3.2.3.5. Police officers assigned to patrol their own sectors within the community

Histogram 7: Police officers assigned to patrol their own sectors

There are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors within the community
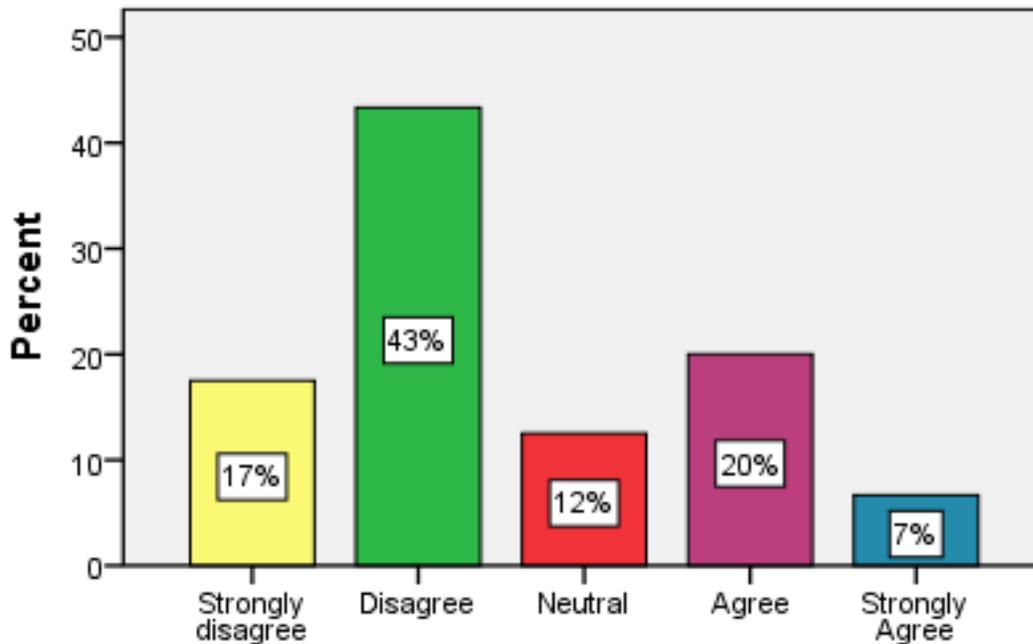
Histogram 7 indicates that 17% of the respondents strongly disagree that there are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors within the community, while a larger number of 43% disagree. Only 20% of the respondents agree, while 7% strongly agree, therefore the majority of community members disagree that there are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors at Mamotintane Village. According to Alford (2012:1257) foot patrol reduces the fear of crime because they are effective at combating the social disorder that residents correlate with serious crime. It is the perception of crime associated with graffiti, abandoned cars, vagrants, panhandlers, and other incivilities that is uppermost in people's minds. The Broken Windows Theory·s second order claim that reducing fear strengthens communities and leads to an actual reduction in crime.

3.2.3.6. There is regular contact with police officers in these sectors where they are able to identify problem areas and consult with the community members in finding solutions even before it really becomes a policing problem

Histogram 8: There is regular contact with police officers in these sectors where they are able to identify problem areas

There is regular contact with police officers in these sectors where they are able to identify problem areas and consult with the community members in finding solutions even before it really becomes a policing problem
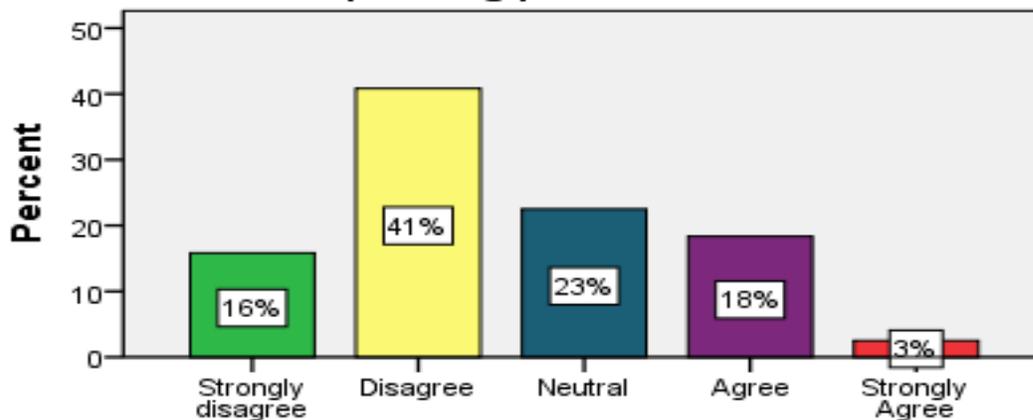
Histogram 8 indicates that 16% of the respondents strongly disagree while a large number of 41% disagree that there is regular contact with police officers in their sectors where they are able to identify problem areas and consult with the community members in finding solutions even before it really becomes a policing problem. Only 18% of the respondents agree, while 3% strongly agree, therefore the implementation of sector policing is still a challenge at Mamotintane Village. According to Minnaar (2010:199) sector policing basically meant that each police station area (precinct) is divided into smaller, more manageable areas. Police resources are then directed to those specific high-crime identified areas within the precinct in order to increase police visibility, improve community involvement by inter alia building trust and getting the public to report all crimes and any suspicious activities in their neighbourhood, and to try to address the causes of crime and the fear of crime.

3.2.3.7. There is enough visibility of police officers in such a way that community members feel safe in this community

Histogram 9: There is enough visibility of police officers in the community
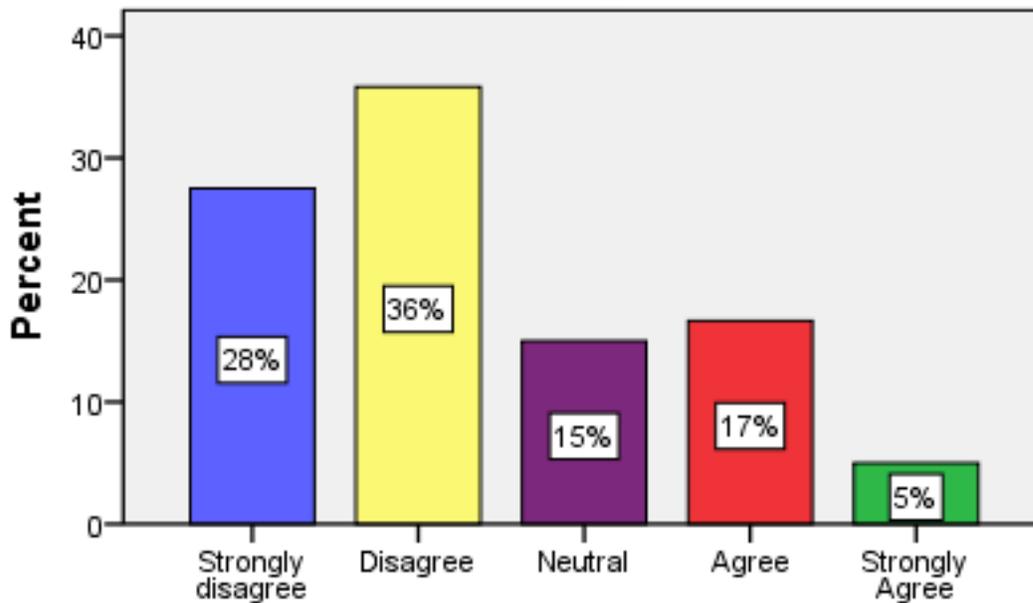
Histogram 9 indicates that 28% of the respondents strongly disagree, while the majority of 36% disagree that there is enough visibility of police officers in such a way that community members feel safe in this community. Only 17% of the respondents agree while 5% strongly agree therefore a large number of community members agree that there is lack of police visibility at Mamotintane Village and they do not feel safe. According to Kleyn, Rothmann and Jackson (2004:43) a total of 36% at the Rustenburg area indicate that the police are generally not seen in their neighbourhoods, while others (25%) indicate that they see the police 10 times or more per week in their neighbourhoods. Thirty seven per cent (37%) indicate that their neighbourhood is fairly safe and 48% report that their neighbourhood is about as safe as other neighbourhoods.

3.2.4. FACTORS INFLUENCING POLICE SERVICE DELIVERY TO THE COMMUNITY

3.2.4.1. Police corruption has a negative impact on police service delivery to the community

Pie-chart 3: Police corruption has a negative impact on police service delivery
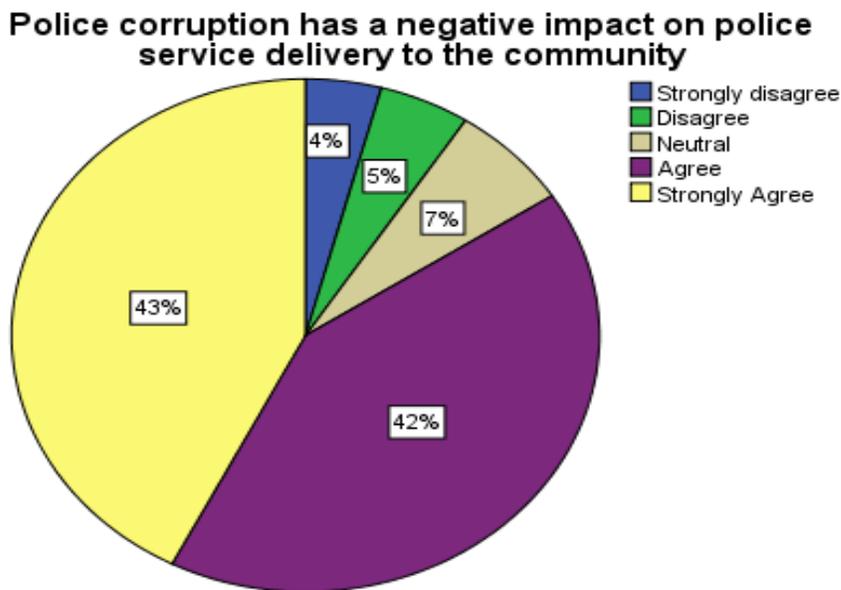
Pie-chart 2 indicates that only 4% of the respondents strongly disagree that police corruption has a negative impact on police service delivery to the community while 5% disagree. A large number of 42% respondents agree while 43% strongly agree, therefore majority of community members agree that police corruption has a negative impact to the community. According to Alford (2012:1259) the Broken Windows Theory is useful in considering the social costs of all types of corruption. In terms of trust in public institutions, it is a mistake to assume that petty corruption is less serious than grand corruption. The unpredictable nature of corruption is one of its most disturbing aspects, and unpredictability is common with petty bribes. Alford (2012:1258) argues that with respect to the payment of bribes to government officials. There is an empirical connection between the relatively minor offence of bribing a government official and the larger impact that corruption has on public welfare across various metrics. Corruption is a strong signal of social disorder, a canary in the coal mine confirming that government officials cannot be trusted.

3.2.4.2. Community members withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers

Pie-chart 4: Community members withhold information about crime

Community members withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers

Legend:
- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

5%
22%
20%
18%
35%
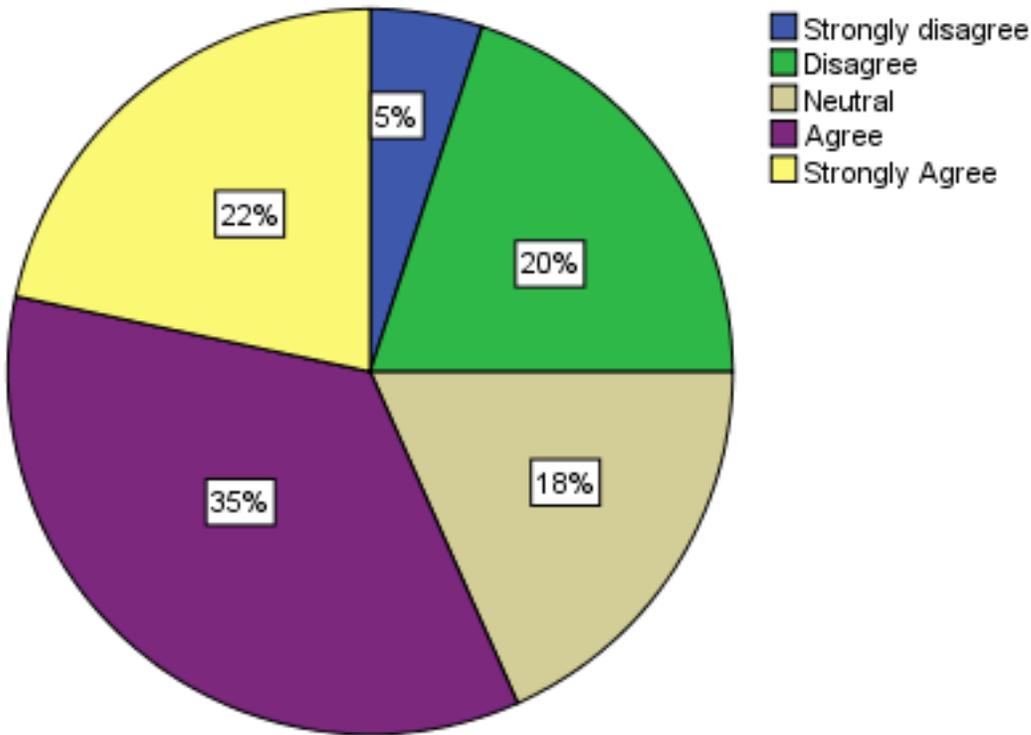
Pie-chart 3 indicates that only 5% of the respondents strongly agree that they withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers while 20% disagree. A larger number of the respondents agree, while 22% strongly agree, therefore a large number of community members agree that they withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers. According to Bezuidenhout (2008:55) police officials were frustrated with the non-involvement of the community. Police officials were of the opinion that the community had a great deal of information on crime, criminals and other problems in their area, but was not willing to divulge the information to the police. The police cannot react pro-actively if they do not have the community to supply them with enough information to fulfil their policing task, namely ensure a safe and secure South Africa.

3.2.4.3. The distance between the police station and the community hinder community members to have access to police services

Pie-chart 5: The distance between the police station and the community hinder community members to have access to police services

The distance between the police station and the community hinder community members to have access to police services

- Strongly disagree: 17%
- Disagree: 31%
- Neutral: 16%
- Agree: 28%
- Strongly Agree: 8%
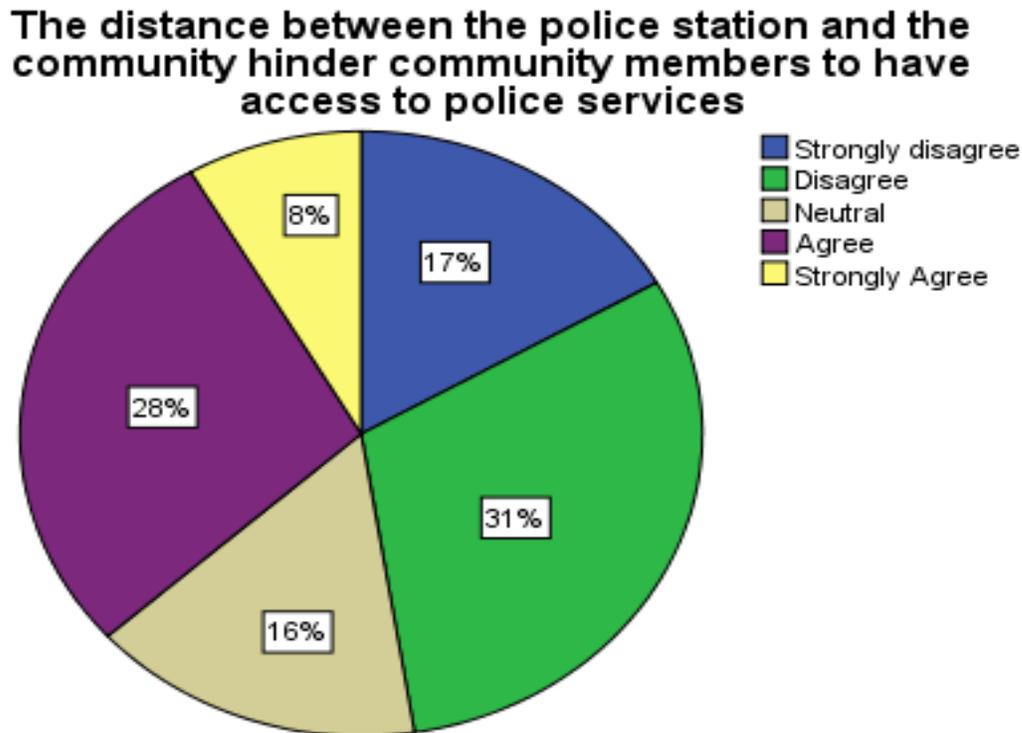
In contrary, Pie-chart 4 indicates that 17% of the respondents strongly disagree that the distance between the police station and the community hinders them to have access to police services while a large number of (31%) respondents disagree. Only 28% of the respondents agree, while 8% strongly agree, therefore majority of community members disagree that the distance between the police station and the community hinders them to have access to police services. According to Kgomokaboya (2011:54) victims are unable to report incidents of crime to these police stations due to long distances they are required to travel. In most instances, these victims are without the necessary resources to pay travel fees. Due to vastness of areas that these police stations are supposed to service, the time it takes for a police vehicle to reach a crime scene or complaints place impacts negatively to resultant investigations as crime scenes gets tampered with and perpetrators get more time to commit crime and escape.

3.2.4.4. There is a delay in response time by police officers to the community

Pie-chart 6: There is a delay in response time by police officers to the community

There is a delay in response time by police officers to the community

- Strongly disagree
- Disagree
- Neutral
- Agree
- Strongly Agree

4%
15%
21%
18%
43%
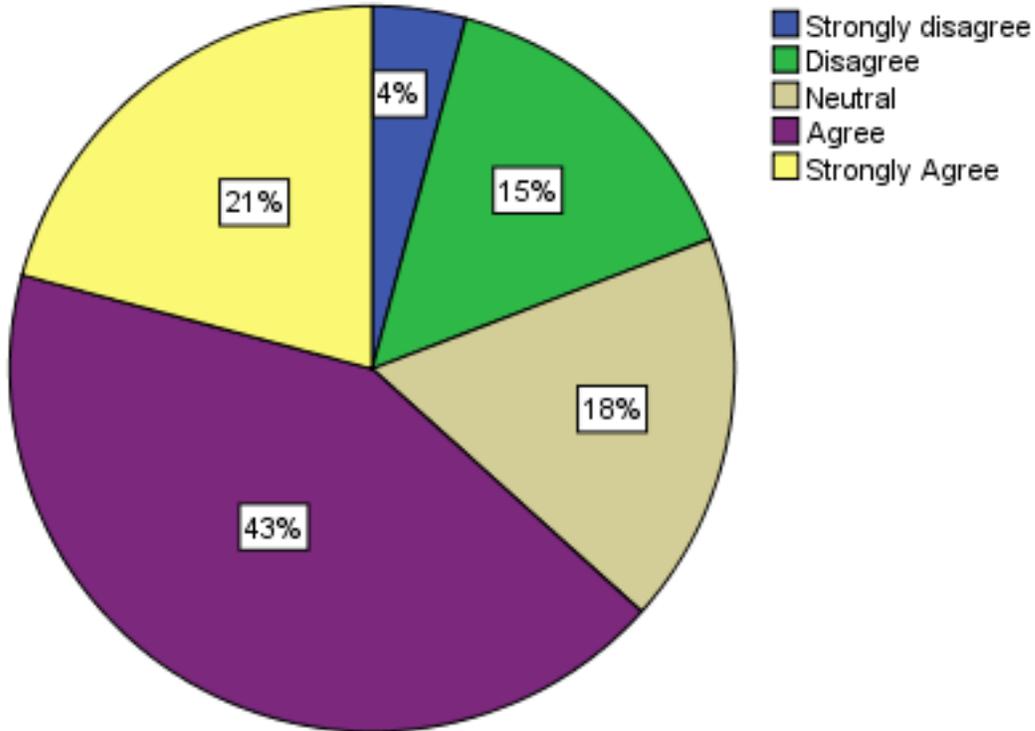
Pie-chart 5 indicates that only 4% of the respondents strongly disagree that there is a delay in response time by police officers to the community while 15% disagree. Majority of 43% of the respondents agree while 21% strongly agree about delay in response time by police officers, therefore majority of community members agree that there is a delay in response time by police officers to the community.

3.2.4.5. Police members treat people with respect, kindness and empathy

Pie-chart 7: Police members treat people with respect, kindness and empathy

Police members treat people with respect, kindness and empathy
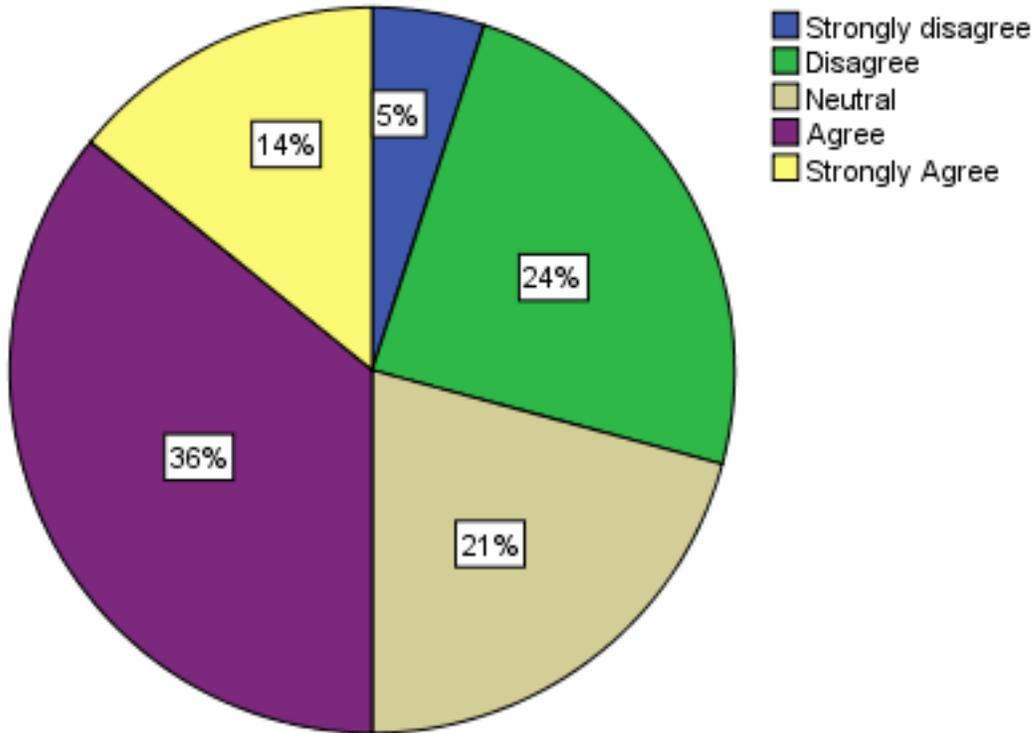
Pie-chart 6 indicates that 5% of the respondents strongly disagree that police officers treat people with respect, kindness and empathy while 24% disagree. A large number (36%) respondent agree, while 14% strongly agree that police members treat people with respect, kindness and empathy, therefore many community members agree that police officers treat them with respect, kindness and empathy.

2.3.5 Summary of the empirical findings

The following is a summary of empirical findings:

- The majority of the people who participated on the evaluation of the police service delivery at Mamontitane were young people between the ages 18 and 35.

- The majority of people who participated on the study at Mamotintane Village are community members.

- A large number of community members at Mamotintane village are not satisfied about the competence of police officers.

- Only 30% of the respondents are unsatisfied while 13% is very unsatisfied about the helpfulness of police officers.

- A larger number of community members are not satisfied in the manner in which police officers show interest in their situations.

- Only 3% of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about the courtesy or respect of police officers while 23% is satisfied .A large number of 28% respondents is unsatisfied.

- A large number of 33% community members are still not satisfied about the manner in which police investigates crimes reported.

- More than 40% of participants disagree that the police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community.

- A large number of 33% community members disagree that CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community.

- More than 43% of the community members disagree that there are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors within the community.

- A large number of 43% respondents strongly agree that police corruption has a negative impact to the community.

- More than 35% of community members still withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers.

- Many community members disagree that the distance between the police station and the community hinders them to have access to police services

- Most of the respondents agree that there is a delay in response time by police officers to the community.

- A large number of community members agree that police officers treat them with respect, kindness and empathy.

CHAPTER 4

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher presents and discusses the summary of the major findings, conclusion drawn from the study of an evaluation of police service delivery in the Mamotintane Village as well as the recommendations made in the study. The previous chapter presented, analysed and interpreted data collected from 120 Mamotintane community members. The recommendations and the conclusion drawn from the study were informed by the research objectives and the findings of the study.

4.2. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

Chapter one provided general orientation to the study. The study problem was highlighted. The research aims and objectives were also presented. The chapter further identifies the methodology followed while conducting research.

Chapter two reviewed literature pertaining to the roles of the police in ensuring safety in the communities. The legislative framework was highlighted and the functions of the SAPS were also discussed. The chapter further discussed the challenges faced in crime prevention and control. The theoretical framework was also discussed.

Chapter three dealt with data presentation, analysis and interpretation. Data collected through fixed response questionnaires were presented using pie charts, graphs, table and histograms.

4.2.1 Summary of the main findings

The study aimed at evaluating the community's level of satisfaction with police service delivery. The objectives of the study were successfully met by the following results which emerged from the study:

- With regard to the community's satisfactions and expectations of police service delivery, a large number of (33%) community members at Mamotintane Village are not satisfied about the competence of police officers.

- Many community members are not satisfied about helpfulness of police officer at Mamotintane Village.

- A large number of community members are still not satisfied about police investigation.

- Most of the respondents who participated on the study are very satisfied about the services provided at the local police station.

- A large number of (31%) respondents are unsatisfied while 28% is very unsatisfied, therefore the results show that police officers take time to assist or help community members when they need their help at Mamotintane Village.

- With regard to the policing strategies that are meant to improve police service delivery to the community, a large number of 40% respondents disagree that the police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community, therefore the police are not doing enough on implementing community policing to the community.

- With regard to CPFs, the majority of the respondents disagree that CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community of which as a result that CPFs are not well established.

- With regard to Sector Policing, the majority of community members disagree that there are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors at Mamotintane Village.

- Most of the respondents disagree that there is regular contact with police officers in their sectors where they are able to identify problem areas and consult with the community members in finding solutions even before it really becomes a policing problem.

- With regard to the factors affecting lack of police service delivery, a large number of community members agree that police corruption has a negative impact to the community.

- Most of the respondents agree that they withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers.

- The majority of the respondents disagree that the distance between the police station and the community hinders them to have access to police services.

- Most of the respondents agree that there is a delay in response time by police officers to the community.

4.2.2 CONCLUSIONS

The results which emerged from the study clearly indicate that the majority of community members from Mamotintane Village are still not satisfied about police investigation, competence of police officers, and helpfulness of police officers, response time and overall police services as a result the community's expectations of police service delivery are still not met. With regard to CPFs, Sector Policing and Visible Policing as the policing strategies that are meant to improve police service delivery to the community, a large number of community members agree that CPFs are not well established at Mamotintane Village and there are no police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors, as a result there is lack of police visibility in such a way that community members feel unsafe. The majority of community members agree that police corruption have an impact on police service delivery and community members also withholding important information about crime because they do not trust the police.

The results clearly indicate that the SAPS still have a lot to do in ensuring effective service delivery to the community and the researcher's evaluation of police service delivery can be used as a tool to measure their success in service delivery.

4.2.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

- With regard to the community's satisfactions and expectations of police service delivery, The SAPS must evaluate and also allow community members to evaluate the performance of the police station and the duties that police officers are expected to perform in order to improve police service delivery at Mamotintane Village.

- Police officers must make sure that they keep on informing the victims about new developments which emerged from the case when they are conducting police investigation.

- They must also make sure that they are helpfully in the way that community members are satisfied as they show interest in the situation of each victim of crime.

- Police officers need to improve their response time when they are called at Mamotintane Village before evidence can be tempered with on the crime scene.

- With regard to the policing strategies that are meant to improve police service delivery to the community, the SAPS must have a special budget for resources that must be used to establish CPFs which will help in preventing crime especially in rural communities.

- The SAPS must host awareness campaigns through the media and meetings with community members in order to teach more about the importance of establishing CPFs in the community, the role community members are expected to play in order to ensure that CPFs are functioning at Mamotintane Village.

- Regular meetings should be held with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community and finding solutions with the police on how to prevent those crimes.

- With regard to Sector Policing, the SAPS must deploy more resources and police officers in their respective geographical areas at Mamotintane Village where they will patrol their areas and establish good working partnership with community members in order to improve police services by fighting crime together with the community.

- Police officers must also be more visible within the community especially at night where crime is likely to occur in order for community members to feel safe and easily approach the police if there are any criminal activities taking place in a certain areas within the community.

- With regard to factors affecting lack of police service delivery to the community, the SAPS should be firm when dealing with police officers who are involved in corruption.

- Community members must also make sure that they participate to any policing strategies aimed at improving police service delivery to the community and provide the police with any important information about criminal activities because the police cannot fight crime on their own.

- With regard to the community's level of safety, the SAPS must partner with the local municipality and community members in order to identify hot spots for crime and improve visibility by putting up streets lights at Mamotintane Village so that community members can walk freely at night without any fear and police officers can also easily identify perpetrators.

4.2.4 AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following research areas can be considered:

- More studies should be conducted on an evaluation of police service delivery especial in rural communities which are affected by the high rates of crime.

- Studies should focus on the community's satisfactions, expectations and perceptions of the SAPS because the community members are very important in crime prevention.

- The studies should be conducted on factors affecting police service delivery in order to assist the SAPS in delivering their services to the community.

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APPENDIX A

LETTER TO RESPONDENTS

Dear participant

My name is Bheka Mfundo Hopewell Khumalo, I am doing research on An Evaluation of Police Service Delivery at Mamotintane Village, in order to evaluate police service delivery and the strategies that are implemented to improve police services at Mamotintane Village. This study is conducted in compliance with the need to fulfil the requirements of MA (Masters of Arts in Criminology) at the University of Limpopo.

Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time if you wish not to continue with the study. The information that you will provide will be kept confidential and you are not required to give your personal details that will reveal your identity. Your contribution to this study is extremely important to ensure the success of this project.

Kindly complete this questionnaire.

Contact details of the researcher:

Khumalo Bheka Mfundo Hopewell: University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus).

Student Number: 200901301   Signature of participant

Email address:khumbhe@gmail.com   …………………………

APPENDIX B

SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

This section of the questionnaire requires your background or biographical information.

Please answer the following questions by crossing (x) in the relevant block

1. Gender

Male	1
Female	2

2. Age

18 to 35 years	1
36 to 45 years	2
46 to 55 years	3
56 and above	4

3. Position in the community

CPF member	1
Police officer	2
Community member	3
Leader	4

SECTION B

This section assesses your satisfaction and expectation of police service delivery

To what extent do you rate the following statements? Please indicate your answer using the following 5-point scale where:

1=Very satisfied   2= Satisfied   3=Average   4=Unsatisfied   5=Very unsatisfied

	Very satisfied	Satisfied	Average	Unsatisfied	Very unsatisfied
4. Competence of police officers	1	2	3	4	5
5. Helpfulness	1	2	3	4	5
6. Interest in the situation	1	2	3	4	5
7. Courtesy/Respectfulness	1	2	3	4	5
8. Fairness	1	2	3	4	5
9. Police investigation	1	2	3	4	5
10. Service provided at the police stations (e.g. certifying copies and reporting a case)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Responding time to call for help or assistance	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

This section requires your knowledge of policing strategies that are meant to improve police service delivery to the community.

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements? Please indicate your answer using the following 5-point scale where:

1 = Strongly disagree   2 = Disagree   3 = Neutral   4 = Agree   5 = Strongly Agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
12. I have a clear understanding of the concept community policing and how it functions in the community	1	2	3	4	5
13. The police are successful in implementing the concept community policing by teaching community members about how this concept functions in the community	1	2	3	4	5
14. CPFs are successfully established in the community where police officers have regular meetings with community members in order to discuss about crimes which are affecting the community	1	2	3	4	5
15. There is a good partnership between community members and the police in problem solving where community members trust the police with information that can help the police	1	2	3	4	5
16. There are police officers who are assigned to patrol their own sectors within the community	1	2	3	4	5
17. There is regular contact with police officers in these sectors where they are able to identify problem areas and consult with the community members in finding solutions even before it really becomes a policing problem	1	2	3	4	5
18. There is enough visibility of police officers in such a way that community members feel safe in this community	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION D

This section requires you to establish factors influencing police service delivery to the community

To what extent do you agree with each of the following statements? Please indicate your answer using the following 5-point scale where:

1 = Strongly disagree   2 = Disagree   3 = Neutral   4 = Agree   5 = Strongly Agree

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19. Police corruption has a negative impact on police service delivery to the community	1	2	3	4	5
20. Community members withhold information about crime because they lack trust in police officers	1	2	3	4	5
21. The distance between the police station and the community hinder community members to have access to police services	1	2	3	4	5
22. There is a delay in response time by police officers to the community	1	2	3	4	5
23. Police members treat people with respect, kindness and empathy	1	2	3	4	5

MOTŠEAKAROLO

Leina ke Bheka Mfundo Hopewell khumalo. Ke dira dinyakišišo ka ditirelo tša Sephodisa motseng wa Mamotintane. Bjwalo ka moithuti yo a dirago MA (Masters of Arts in Criminology), yunibesithi ya Limpopo, dinyakišišo tše dibohlokwa go dithuto tšaka le go badudi ba Mamotintane.

Ba tšea karolo ba gopotšwa gore se ke ka go ithaopa, gomme ba na le toka ya go tlogela neng leneng ge ba nyaka. Le kgopotšwa gape gore sengwe le sengwe se letlogo se bolela se tlo dirwa sephiri, ka fao ga le gapeletšwe go fa monyakišiši maina le ditlabekelo tša lena tša boitsibišo. Go kgathatema ga lena go bohlokwa kudu go katlego ya dinyakišišo tše.

Ka kgopelo araba dipotšišo tše di latelago.

<u>O ka e kgokaganya le Monyakišiši ka</u>

Khumalo Bheka Mfundo Hopewell: University of Limpopo (Turfloop campus).

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Signature: …………………………..

KAROLO A

Karolo ye ya dipotšišo e hloka tsebo ka tša bophelo bja motšeakarolo.

Ke kgopela le arabe dipotšišo tše di latelago ka go thala leswao la sefapano (x) lepokising le le tshwanetšego

1. Bong

Monna	1
Mosadi	2

2. Mengwaga

18 to 35 years	1
36 to 45 years	2
46 to 55 years	3
56 and above	4

3. Position

CPF member	1
Maphodisa	2
Setšhaba	3
Moetapele	4

KAROLO B

Karolo ye ya dipotšišo e sekaseka gore naa o kgotsofatšwa ke ditirelo tša sephodisa le gore o letetše eng go tšwa go sephodisa.

Ka thušo ya sekala sa dintla tše 5, bontšha go kgotsofala ga gago.

1= Ke kgotsefetše kudu 2 = Ke kgotsofetše 3 = Ke magareng   4 = Ga ka kgotsofala 5 = Ga ka kgotsofala le ga tee

	Ke kgotsefetše kudu	Ke kgotsofetše	Ke magareng	Ga ka kgotsofala	Ga ka kgotsofala le ga tee
4. Bokgoni bja maphodisa	1	2	3	4	5
5. Thušo yeo e hwetšegalago sephodiseng	1	2	3	4	5
6. Kgahlego ya sephodisa go ditirelo	1	2	3	4	5
7. Hlompho ya maphodisa	1	2	3	4	5
8. Go loka	1	2	3	4	5
9. Dinyakišiso tša maphodisa	1	2	3	4	5
10. Diterelo tseo di hwetšagalang setising sa maphodisa (mohlala: bega, molato)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Thušo ya tšhoganetšo / ya ka pela	1	2	3	4	5

KAROLO C

Karolo ye ya dipotšišo e hloka tsebo ya mekgwa goba maano ao a šomišwago go hlabolla tšweletšo ya ditirelo tša sephodisa mo setšhabeng.

A naa o dumela ga kakang ? Šomiša sekala sa dintlha tše 5 go araba

1 = Gana kudu   2 = Gana   3 = Magareng   4 = Dumela   5 = Dumela kudu

	Gana kudu	Gana	Magareng	Dumela	Dumela kudu
12. Ke na le kwešišo ka mokgwa wa sephodisa sa ka motseng le gore se šoma bjang mo setšhabeng	1	2	3	4	5
13. Maphodisa a atlega ka go ruta badudi ka mokgwa wo wa sephodisa sa motseng le gore mokgwa wo o šoma bjang setšhabeng	1	2	3	4	5
14. Lekgotla la sephodisa sa motseng se fela se hlakana le badudi ba motse gwa bolelwa ka bosenyi bjo bo amago motse	1	2	3	4	5
15. Go na le tšhumishano ye batse magareng ga badudi le maphodisa go thuša go fokotša bosenyi, moo badudi ba tshephago maphodisa ka tsebo yoe ba ba fago yona	1	2	3	4	5
16. Go na le mapodisa ao a beilwego gore a šumišane le motse go ya ka dikarolo tše di itseng	1	2	3	4	5
17. Gona le polediša magareng a maphodisa le badudi ba dikarolo tša motse mabapi le go bona mathatha le go loga maano a go fediša mathata ao pela ae ba mathata a sephodisa	1	2	3	4	5
18. Maphodisa mo motseng a bonala gohle mo e lego gore badudi ba motse ba bona ba bolokegile	1	2	3	4	5

KAROLO D

Karolo ye e hloka gore motšeakarolo a tliše pele dilo tšeo dihlohloletšago tirelo ya sephodisa mo motseng

A naa o dumela ga kakang ? Šomiša sekala sa dintlha tše 5 go araba

1 = Gana kudu   2 = Gana   3 = Magareng   4 = Dumela   5 = Dumela kudu

	Gana kudu	Gana	Magareng	Dumela	Dumela kudu
19. Bomenetša bja maphodisa bona le ditlamorago tša go se loke go setšhaba	1	2	3	4	5
20. Badudi ba kgetha go dula le tshedimošo ka botsotsi le bohodu ka ge ba sa tshephe maphodisa	1	2	3	4	5
21. Bokgole bja seteišene sa maphodisa le motse bo palediša badudi ba motse gore ba hwetše ditirelo tša sephodisa	1	2	3	4	5
22. Maphodisa a tšea nako ye telele go fihla ge a bitšitšwe ka tšhoganetšo	1	2	3	4	5
23. Maphodisa a swara batho ka hlompho,botho le kwelobohloko	1	2	3	4	5