COMMUNITY POLICING AND PARTNERSHIP POLICING: A CASE STUDY OF SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES BETWEEN THE POLICE AND ALICE COMMUNITY

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis entitled, **"COMMUNITY POLICING AND PARTNERSHIP POLICING: A CASE STUDY OF SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES BETWEEN THE POLICE AND ALICE COMMUNITY"** presents my own work and that all the sources that I have used, or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This research project has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at another University.

I also declare that I understood and had adhered to the requirements of the Code of Ethics as promulgated by the Human Sciences Research Council as well as the SAPS national Instruction.

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Signature   **Date**

Mr. FM Manganyi

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

With due disdain "**MINTIRHO YA VULAVULA**" which means the deed speak for itself

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Some see a hopeless end, while others see an endless hope

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my late grandmother Mrs. Tsenani Mabasa, My late father Mr. Gezani

Samuel Manganyi and the entire family who are the source of my existence.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the shared responsibilities between the police and the community on crime prevention. Various authorities such as Sir Robert Peel (1829), Sower (1957), William and Kelling (1982), Roelofse (2007), to mention a few, had been advocating community policing as an essential component of democratic policing. In an attempt to understand the shared responsibilities between the police and the community, a thorough literature review had been presented in chapter two. Through the intertwined approach of secondary data, explorations had been noted on the shared responsibility between the police and the community. Literature and theoretical review had been presented in the thesis to clarify critical aspects of the topic.

Triangulation approach was adopted for the purpose of this study. The researcher triangulated, methodologies, sampling methods, data collection methods as well as data analysis methods. Using qualitative approach in Phase A, data was collected through structured interview, observation and content analysis which was thematically presented. The quantitative data (Phase B) was collected through structured questionnaire. In case of codding and analysis SPSS was utilised. The findings of the study in chapter six shows the shared responsibilities between the police and the community exist within Alice. Moreover, the findings shows that there is a need for community empowerment on human rights and its applicability.

Key Words: *Community policing, partnership policing, shared responsibilities and democratic policing.*

ABBREVIATIONS

AEC	Anti-Eviction Campaign
ANC	African National Congress
AJD	Administration of Justice Departments
BACSA	Business Against Crime South Africa
CJD	Criminal Justice Departments
CJS	Criminal Justice System
CPA	Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977
CPF	Community Police Forum
DCS	Department of correctional Services
DoJCD	Department of Justice and Constitutional Department
EC	Eastern Cape
LMP	London Metropolitan Police
MPA	Metropolitan Police Act
NMBP	Nelson Mandela Bay Police
PA	Police Act 68 of 1995
PAGAD	People Against Gangsterism and Drug
RoL	Rule of Law
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SABC TV	South African Broadcasting Commission Television
SABR	South Africa Bill of Rights
SAJS	South African Justice System
SANCO	South African National Civic Association
SAP	South African Police
SAPS	South African Police Services

SAPSVPD	South Africa Police Service Visible Police Division
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UK	United Kingdom
UNODOC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNIVEN	University of Venda
USA	United States of America
US	United States
VOM	Victim Offender Mediation

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CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

Members of the public are understandably concerned and often frightened, for their lives and safety in a society where the incidences of violent crimes are high and the rate of apprehension and conviction of the perpetrators seem to be low. Earl-Tylor (2013) posit that the human emotional states of anger, rage, feelings of helplessness are easily transmitted into groups settings and the anonymity within a group often creates a "moral diffusion" effect making the community to disregard the rule of law and take the law into their own hands (Mgaquelwa, 2013). Crime affects each and every individual person, hence it is imperative that all citizens partake in crime-prevention initiatives.

Maluleke and Nkosi (2009) in their article said, "The same crowbar he used to break-in was used to beat him to death". Incidents of this nature require that focused attention be devoted to community empowerment on how to respond to such social disorder. The fact that communities are being terrorised does not justify their harsh response of taking the law into their own hands. The proper response should rather be for communities to become more active role players in combating crime than participating in vigilante acts.

The championing of partnership policing, between the police and the entire community will positively assist both structures to actively and uniformly show their responsibilities in crime control within the study area.

1.2. THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The lack of a concrete definition for community policing among policing agencies and vague measures of success has contributed to the difficulties in determining the effectiveness of the concept. If one can view this issue circumspectly, one tend to realise that stereotypical attitudes from both the community and the police tend to tarnish the common goal, which is the fight against crime. The police should be more responsive towards community empowerment as this will enable the community to have room for interaction and be available for dissemination of information, joint-problem identification and solving. Current police behaviour tends to provide a very negative image and create an inauspicious atmosphere between the police and the community they serve. Phaliso (2014) reported in one of the daily newspapers, Daily Sun, on Thursday the 6th of February, in an article titled "They rescued him from mob-then filmed him to put on Facebook". The article reports that police officers took pictures of an attacked victim as he was lying on the ground, dying.

The police behaviour portrayed in the incident above does not promote police and community relations instead it promotes vigilante actions from the community. This also raises questions as to whether the police do adhere to their service regulatory framework or whether they misunderstand their core functions and responsibilities as outlined in Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa[1] (Act 108 of 1996).

Mayhill (2004) asserts that improved police-community relationships and community perceptions should enable police officers to increase interaction with and ensure confidence in the community. This simply means that police officers should be the guiding hand and be more responsive so as to win the public's trust to ensure smooth and free flow of information as their success depends on cooperation with the community they serve. Members of the community should be regarded as the best source of information since crime is committed against them which makes them a valuable source of intelligence in the detection and solving of any contemplated criminal activities. Lack of proper consultation with members of the communities makes them view police officers as detached and not cooperative hence, community members often resort to vigilante actions.

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[1] Republic of South Africa. The Constitution of Republic of South Africa. Act 108 0f 1996. This is the current supreme law of the Republic and any provision which comes in to contradiction with the said law may be deemed null and void as it had been provided in terms of section 2.

1.3. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF COMMUNITY POLICING

The concept of traditional policing is based on the work of Sir Robert Peel who implemented the paramilitary model of policing in 1829 (Van Rooyen, 1994). This model served as a basis for the establishment of the London Metropolitan Police (LMP), accepted as the first structured police force. In traditional policing the strict law enforcement approach was followed, which means that laws were applied rigorously and the Criminal Justice System (CJS) had the responsibility to solve crime through application of the law, without much public participation.

In 1829, Sir Robert Peel[2] (Home Secretary of England) introduced the Metropolitan Police Act (MPA) to Parliament with the goal of creating a police force to manage the social conflict resulting from the rapid urbanisation and industrialisation taking place in the city of London (Kelling, 1987). Walker (1977) states that Peel's efforts resulted in the creation of the LMP on September 29, 1829. Historians and scholars alike identify the LMP as the first modern police department. Peel is often referred to as the "father" of modern policing, as he played an integral role in the creation of this department, as well as several basic principles that later guided the formation of police departments in the United States (US).

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[2] Sir Robert Peel the then Home Secretary is the founder of the Metropolitan police who introduced if not proposed the establishment of Morden police force in November 1829 in London. As a police force became accepted a particular view of non-threatening "bobby "prevailed and was perpetuated in fact and fiction.

According to Kelling (1987) past and current police officers working in the LMP Department are often referred to as "B*obbies or Peelers"* as a way to honour the efforts of Sir Robert Peel. Peel believed that the function of the LMP should focus primarily on crime prevention; that is, preventing crime from occurring instead of detecting it after it had occurred. The above assertion can be best supported by the two proponents, namely, Wilson and Kelling (1982) through their 'broken window theory' or 'zero tolerance' approach which aimed at responding to minor offences to prevent (serious) future crimes. They argue that an ambience of unrestrained petty crime creates the impression that "no one is in control" and that more serious crime can be committed with impunity.

To achieve this, the police would have to work in a coordinated and centralised manner, provide coverage across large designated areas, and also be available to the public day and night (Wilson, 1950). It was also during this time that preventive patrol first emerged as a way to potentially deter criminal activity. The idea was that citizens would think twice about committing crimes if they noticed a strong police presence in their community, which any opportunity to commit crime. Police Guidelines (1975) indicate that this approach (preventive patrol) to policing was vastly different from the early watch groups that patrolled the streets in an unorganised and erratic manner.

As noted from the Police Guidelines discussed above, that early watch groups were unorganised, as it seemed people from a specific geographical area were responsible for their "hues and cries". The adoption of this kind of control was problematic in SA which evidently resulted the establishment of organised but informal crime-control groups, such as *Mapogo-a-Mathamaga (Mapogo*, in Northern Province now Limpopo, the Cape Town based People Against Gangsterism and Drugs (PAGAD), *Amafelandawonye* in the Eastern Cape (EC) and many more.

According to Goldstein (1977) watch groups prior to the creation of the LMP were not viewed as an effective or legitimate source of protection by the public. One can deduce from the above assertion that for one to partake in policing activities depends on one's willingness hence participation remains optional. Full involvement of the community in crime control should be encouraged by law enforcement officials by winning public trust through transparency, assurance and quality service to the people. This is also supported by the normative sponsorship theory as it declares that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957).

Community policing has become the dominant theme of contemporary police reform in America. Few scholars or practitioners would argue about the philosophical limitations of this approach, although they might debate how well or to what extent this concept actually has been implemented (Zhao and Thurman, 1997). The origins of community policing, that we see today, can be traced back to the early 1970s when the attention of scholars

and practitioners alike was drawn to questions concerning the proper role of the police in a democratic society.

The South African Police (SAP) had started to operate as a national police force after the unification of South Africa in 1913; this was characterised by the incident-driven or reactive approach (Watson, Stone and Deluca, 1998). Brogden (1993) states that this caused policing to become isolated from people whose peace the police were supposed to be promoting. This meant that the police had to wait around passively for crime to occur and only react to calls for services, rather than to anticipate future problems by identifying criminogenic factors proactively (Brogden, 1993). This notion addressed by Brogden depicts the current state of policing in SA which is supported by policy frameworks such as the Constitution of Republic of South Africa; Police Act 68 of 1995 (PA) and Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977 (CPA).

Peak and Glensor (1996) note that officers who served under traditional policing were viewed as part of a government agency responsible for law enforcement which was based on bureaucratic principles. The nature of police accountability was highly centralised; governed by rules and regulations as well as policy directives. There was one-way downward communication in the form of orders (Van Heerden, 1986). This theory of "top down approach"[3] was followed as those who were regarded as "knowing best" gave inputs and made decisions.

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[3] "Top down approach "refers to a situation where within the organization there are people who claim more to be knowledgeable than others, therefore they alone which makes them to take decision affecting everyone alone.

The "top down approach " is questionable in community policing, since the idea is for community members (with all its structures) together with the police to solve the problems of crime and their possible threats.

The above-mentioned approach illustrates that previously there was no room for inputs from the community on matters affecting them, making it very difficult to deal with "well-known stranger"[4]. Nel and Bezuidenhout (1995) stressed that, in order to provide a favourable climate for the implementation of Community Police Forum (CPF), the South African Police Services (SAPS) should first commit itself to consultation with the community, negotiation and a participative management style. This is just a contradiction with the modus operandi of the then South Africa police (SAP). The diagram below illustrates the process of problem-solving which on its own involves the interaction of various stakeholders. Interaction is the result of common concerns about the high rate of crime within our communities and the common goal which is the fight against crime.

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[4] A 'well-Known stranger' refers to a known member of the community who terrorizes respective communities with the knowledge of police officers, who opt to close their eyes and do not call such a person to order as a result contradicting with the SAPS motto "we protect and we serve".

Figure 1.1. The shared responsibilities between the police and the community.
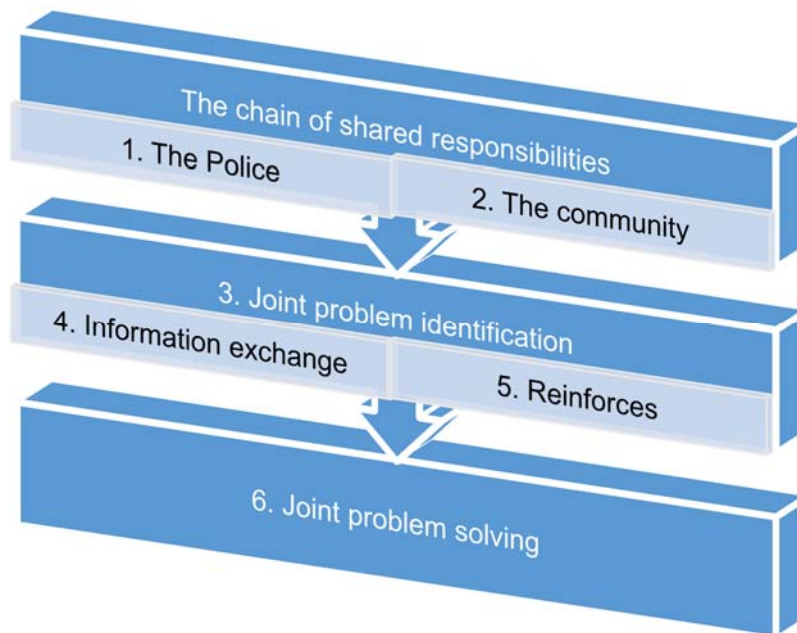
From Figure 1.1, one can deduce that joint "problem identification" requires a common goal from the police and all structures of the community in the Fight against crime. The police and the community need to collectively have meetings; this enables them to have a joint-problem-solving strategies. Reyneke (1997) stresses that a major objective of community policing is the establishment of an active partnership between the police and the community they are serving, through which crime and community relations can be jointly analysed, solutions found and correctly implemented.

Figure 1.1 shows information exchange as a product of joint-problem identification. The Figure further depicts the strength, resultant from joint-problem identification which enables both the police and the community to jointly solve the problem of social disorder since it is their shared common responsibility.

1.4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- How does the Alice policing precinct involve the community in policing?

- To what extent do the police and community understand their shared responsibility in crime-prevention in the area?

- What are the measures taken to empower the community about their responsibility in policing?

1.5. AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of this study is to explore the community's understanding of their role in shared responsibilities in partnership policing, with reference to the Alice precinct in the Eastern Cape Province. The study also aims at examining the practicality of the provision of section 18 (1) of the Police Act 68 of 1995 on the issue of police-community partnerships in crime solving.

The objectives of this study are therefore as follows:

Objective 1: To establish the community's perceptions on its role in partnership policing;

Objective 2: To ascertain the impact of stereotypic attitudes on community-police relationship;

Objective 3: To establish joint community structures which enable both the community and the police to have a joint-problem-solving approach;

Objective 4: To ascertain polices' role in the empowerment of the Alice community relation to crime-prevention and solving;

Objective 5: To explore the level of community understanding about the rule of law; and

Objective 6: To propose ways in which community policing can be promoted.

1.6. SUMMARISED THEORETICAL FRAME WORK OF COMMUNITY POLICING

Barker (2003) defines ' theory' as a "set of interrelated hypotheses, concepts, constructs, definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomenon based on facts and observations, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomenon". More clarity was given on the matter when Bailey (1994) states that a theory attempts to give an explanation of a particular phenomenon, therefore statements which do not explain anything cannot be regarded as a theory; a theory is testable. In the section below, the researcher will provide a brief overview of theories based on the philosophy of community. The researcher will explain the following theories as they best give exposition on community policing functions: critical social theory, 'broken window' theory and normative sponsorship theory.

1.6.1. Critical social theory

Critical social theory is a theory which is capable of taking a critical stance towards itself by recognising its presuppositions and their role in the world. Critical social theory takes a critical stance towards the social reality it investigates, by providing grounds for justification (University of Sussex, 2006). This theory is a practical social science theory that inspires people to become socially active to correct their own socio–economic and political circumstances, so that they might have their expressed needs met (Braiden, 1997). In this regard, if members of the community are not satisfied with the police services, they are able to discuss their issues with the police during CPFs meetings.

This theory focuses much on enlightenment, emancipation and empowerment. Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) stress that enlightenment educates people about their particular problematic situation in order that they may alter the situation and make sure that their needs are satisfactorily met. In the instances of crime solving this can be achieved by creating police community workshops to provide skills and create a better relation between the police and the community (Mafomme, 2001).

Emancipation is liberation resulting from social action. This is achieved through discursive action where the force of the best has the right to change a given situation (Boudreau, 1997). Empowerment refers to the creation of joint responsibility and capacity for addressing issues such as crime, thereby creating a sense of joint ownership of crime problems, service delivery problems and safety and security amongst members of the community and the police. Most of the community members will get an opportunity to

voice their concerns and to address their questions to the relevant people (SAPS, 2006). This can take place through community involvement in various organisations such as South African National Civic Association (SANCO), Business Against Crime South Africa (BACSA) and CPFs.

1.6.2. Broken window theory

Wilson and Kelling (1982) introduced the 'Broken Window Theory' which has had considerable influence on law enforcement thinking. They observed that if someone breaks a window in a building and it is not quickly repaired others will break more windows. This simply means that the police officers must take care of minor offences before it turns into violent crimes.

Police officers must consult with members of the community frequently in order to make sure that there is joint-problem identification and exchange of information. This will help the police to curb crimes from its disposition because what could be regarded as serious offences by the community might not be regarded as such by the police. Even though it considered unnecessary for people to be finger-printed for petty offences, Goodenough (2009) insists that those people should be finger-printed and this has led to the arrest of wanted criminals, of cases like who were responsible for rape and murder. Zero tolerance, where offenders are arrested for minor offences creates an opportunity to search and fingerprint all categories of offenders which sometimes leads to the discovery of other crimes.

1.6.3. Normative sponsorship theory

Normative sponsorship theory declares that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957). It proposes that a community effort will only be sponsored if it is normative to all persons and interested groups involved. The people who are in the best position to reduce crime and create a climate or opportunities for crime are not police but ordinary people. The more various groups share common values, beliefs and goals, the more these groups will agree on common goals when they interact for the purpose of neighbourhood wellness (Braiden, 1997).

In a summary, the researcher viewed the above theories as being very specific and unambiguous, that for community policing to exist, the police, community and CPFs have to share common responsibilities. As had been indicated above by Sower, "most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs". It simply shows that through proper consultation with the community the police can easily achieve the provisions of section 18(1) of the Police Act 68 of 1995. Furthermore, the escalation of public crimes can be caused by lack of proper information on how best can the community can respond to crime and contemplated criminal activities.

The researcher believes that communication should not be made for the sake of communicating, but to disseminate information which should be received and responded to, sometimes, later on. The above-mentioned theories will be discussed and its imperativeness and relation to the study phenomenon on will be clearly explicated in chapter two.

1.7. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Cresswell (2007) asserts the importance of explaining the research approach as an effective strategy to increase the validity of social research. The major part of the following sections is to summarise the research approach adopted in the current study. The discussions are presented in greater detail in chapter four.

1.7.1. Research methodologies

The term "methodology" literally means the 'science of methods' and contains the standards and principles employed to guide the structures and process; it is also explained as the use of methods as an underlying paradigm of a research (Sarantakos, 1988). There are two broad types of research methods, namely, qualitative and quantitative (De Vos, 2002). The researcher opted to use triangulation methodologies which includes quantitative and qualitative research approaches. The rationale behind triangulation method is that the gap that can be left by one method can be supplemented by the other. The researcher also triangulated theories, sampling methods as well as data collection methods.

Bailey (1994) states that qualitative research creates an exciting interdisplinary landscape, rich with perspectives on knowledge construction and is enabled by multitudes of techniques available to generate knowledge. For example, some of the techniques that can generate knowledge in qualitative research are interviews, documentary studies and observation. Table 1.1 below gives a clear and brief summary of the methodological approach followed for the purpose of this study.

Table 1.1 Summary of methods used in this study

Research questions	1. How does the Alice policing precinct involve the community in policing?
	2. To what extent do the police and community understand their shared responsibility in crime prevention?
	3. What are the measures taken to empower the community about their responsibility in policing?
Research method	Burns and Grove (2001) define triangulation as the collection of data from multiple sources maintaining the same foci. The purpose of using multiple methods in a study design according to Beitmayer, Ayres and Knafl (1998) is to counteract the limitations and biases that stem from using a single method, thus increasing the reliability of the findings (Duffy 1993). The researcher opted to use both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies to ensure that the limitations of one methodology can be supplemented by the other method to validate the research outcomes.
Research design	The researcher used exploratory case study in this study, which enabled him to explore the common responsibilities of the police and members of the community in the fight against crime. Exploratory research is conducted when a researcher is concerned with uncovering detailed information about a given phenomenon. Bachman and Schutt (2003) also explain that this design enable

	researchers to d learn as much as possible about subjects in their natural setting (Babbie, 2001, Creswell, 1998; Neuman, 1997).
Population	Burns and Groves (2012) indicate that a population is the entire group of persons or subjects that are of interest to a researcher. Population in this study refers to the police, members of the community and the CPF within the Alice community in the Eastern Cape Province.
Sampling	According to Wilson (1993) sampling is the process of selecting observations, elements or individuals to be studied. The researcher, for the purpose of this study used both probability and non-probability sampling as was guided by the nature of the study.
Selection of respondents	The researcher, during preliminary observation identified members of the SAPS, community and the CPF. In this regard, the researcher relied on the availability and the accessibility of the participants willing to partake in the research. The researcher used non-probability sampling as indicated above to obtain his samples. The researcher purposively interviewed (twenty) 20 participants, from the police and the CPF. Furthermore, the researcher self-administered one hundred (100) questionnaires to members of the community within the study area. The researcher also used cluster sampling to ensure that various structures of the community were involved in this study for the purpose of representativeness. The researcher was guided by the characteristic of purposive sampling that, its main goal is to focus on particular characteristics of a population that are of interest and which will best enable the researcher to answer the research questions.
Data collection	Data collection method refers to a systematic approach to obtain information (Patton, 2002). According to Labovitz (1971) one has to consider which data collection method is the most appropriate in the particular universe in question.

	The researcher used documentary studies, observation, interviews and self-administered questionnaires as methods of data collection in this study
Data analysis	Data analysis is conducted to reduce, organise, and give meaning to the collected data (Burns and Grove: 2001). Data Analysis entails categorising, ordering, manipulation and summarising the data as well describing them in a meaningful term. The collected data was thematically presented in a narrative format, followed by tabulated evidential response from the participants. A narrative should be presenting in such a way that it details the history of an area of interest, tells the particulars of an act or the occurrence of an event (Flick: 1993). The researcher analysed the collected data in narrative format *(see phase one in chapter five (qualitative), followed* by Tables and Figures *(see phase two in chapter five (quantitative)* with statistical analysis and interpretation. The researcher used statistics to validate the responses from d topical issues through cross correlating *(see chapter five).*

The above summarised methodological blueprint will be fully outlined, clearly explained and broadly linked to the entire study as it is the 'engine' of the study which can falsify or confirms the reliability and validity of the research outcomes in chapter four.

1.8. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The researcher chose this topic for a number of reasons. The researcher realised that places such as, Midrand, Polokwane, Muchipisi, Johannesburg and Diepsloot have been researched upon regarding community policing but not around Alice, in the EC. This led him to realise that it is of utmost importance for the area to be researched, in order to uncover challenges experienced by both the police and the community during the implementation and monitoring of the community policing forum. The researcher did not conduct this study as an academic pursuit only but also for the benefit of every person in the research community. If one views the issue of crime circumspectly, one realises that, community policing is one of the solutions that are needed (Roelofse and Manganyi, 2011).

The researcher also selected this research topic considering the crime problem in the study area and the belief that the research can help to identify the problems and come up with solutions. Public vigilantism, public drinking and crimes of personal nature are some of the problematic aspects of day-to-day life of Alice residents. This has caused most of the people to become involved in policing matters. This research serves as a guideline for future initiatives on policing matters within the research area. The research will provide information which will also ensure that members of the community are kept informed about the importance of their involvement in policing. This will be achieved through the release of the outcomes and made them available to the police and community leaders for distribution and dissemination.

The researcher, in chapter two put emphasis on the fact that, crime-prevention is not only the responsibility of the police, but of every individual person in the community; this supports the notion of shared responsibilities. Both the community and the police will benefit, due to the fact that the research report will outline their problems, differences, perceptions and come up with possible solutions. This study additionally, has enabled the researcher to grow academically which will benefit upcoming researchers and other stakeholders.

The study will also encourage the police to consider a positive portrayal of the police image at all times, which may result in a favourable rapport between the police and the community. The study will empower the community and enable them to understand their role in community-based crime-prevention approach, applicable in a democratic country like Republic of South Africa (RSA), as guided by the country's legislative mandates and policies. To offset this, communication strategies should be improved which will publicise the successes of criminal justice initiatives. In particular, the public should be notified when perpetrators of serious offences, violent crime and corruption are convicted. This will encourage community participation in crime-prevention initiatives, which is the core, if not mutual objective of the police and the community at large.

The research should make an immense contribution to the criminal justice education which will result in the rapid development of research on policing, specifically on area-based needs of the study area. Many of the research findings have challenged prevailing police practices and beliefs. The outcomes hence will serve as a guideline of management of transformation of the historical rural areas like Alice, through innovative preventive crime measures. The escalation of public vigilantism in the country necessitates a community-police sense of empowerment through interactive role playing.

1.9. ETHICAL ISSUES

The researcher has adhered to social sciences research ethical issues since the study required human participants to provide information. The accessibility of the participants and information were in line with the provision of the national Instruction 1/2006 Research in the Service. The researcher also conformed to the University of Fort Hare (UFH) ethical procedures.

1.10. DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

Definitions are important vehicles of communication in research. Zetterberg in De Vos (2005) states that definitions are used to facilitate communication as they make it possible to discuss issues easily and clearly than would otherwise be possible.

1.10.1. Community – This definition may have different meanings to different people. Community is a spatial restricted group within society with its own characteristics, physical living conditions, institutions and cultural pattern, peculiar to itself (Van Heerden, 1986).

A community consists of people living in close association and usually under common rules and is sometimes used to mean the general public (Dempsey, 1999). Crawford (1998) defines a community as being represented by a set of shared attitudes, bound together by a shared interest or identity. More generally, a community is a social group that shares common elements such as:

- Similar living conditions;

- Shared interests, values and goals;

- Similar culture, lifestyle, language and attitudes;

- A degree of social interaction resulting from living in close proximity; and

- An agreement on methods of social control.

Similarly, as stated by Oliver (2004), a community is a term that refers to a group of people who share three things: they live in a geographically distinct area (such as, a city or town), they share cultural characteristics, attitudes and lifestyles and they interact with one another on a sustained basis.

1.10.2. Society – is the sum total of people who hold reasonably consistent direct or indirect communication with one another and who conform, to a significant degree, to a communal life (Van Heerden, 1986).

1.10.3. Community policing – the reviewed literature of community policing reveals that the concept has a variety of definitions and meanings. According to Palmiotto (2011) some police administrators believe that community policing has always occurred in small towns where the police officers know residents by their first names. Trojanowicz and Bacqueroux (1994) provide an expanded definition when they indicate that:

> Community policing philosophy is an organisational strategy that promotes a new partnership between the people and their police. It is based on the notion that the police and the community must work together to identify, prioritize and solve contemporary problems such as crime, drugs, fear of crime, social and physical disorder and the overall neighbourhood decay, with the goal of improving the overall quality of life in the area.

Stipak (1994) provides that community policing is a management strategy that promotes the joint responsibility of citizens and the police for community safety through working partnerships and interpersonal contacts. Furthermore, Roelofse (2007) defines community policing as a philosophy or an approach to policing which recognises the interdependence and shared responsibility of the police and the community.

1.10.4. Community police forums – This is a group of people from the police as well as different sectors and interest groups from the community that meet to discuss problems emanating from their communities (James, 1998).

1.10.5. Problem – in the context of community policing, it is defined as a cluster of similar incidents of crime which raises substantive community concern (Peak and Glensor, 1996).

1.10.6. Problem-solving –'is a broad term that implies more than simply to eliminate and prevent crime. It is based on prevention of crime and the assumption that disorder can be reduced in small geographical areas by studying the characteristics of the problem and resources to solve these problems' (Beaurau of Justice Assistance, 1994).

1.10.7. Research design – This is the selection of units and comparative forms to make descriptive statements about a topic for research (Labovitz, 1971).

1.10.8. Research problem- This is defined as the ideas to be assessed in a study; it usually refers to the first step in the scientific method (Punch, 2005).

1.10.9. Policing – It is that form of coercive action within the structure of formal control, which is directed at the maintenance of internal order in conformity with principles of legal jurisdiction and the constitutional rights of individuals (Van Heerden, 1986). "Policing" the verb, is not to be confused with the noun "police" rather it is an activity which preceded the latter in modern South Africa. Holtzman (1994) and Nina (1994) support the above definition while adding that policing is an activity characterised by protecting individuals so as to maintain safety and security order in the society.

According to Wilson and Brewer (1995) policing is concerned with diverse array of issues and practices. It is also a social service created by human beings, rendered by human beings to human beings in an environment shaped by human beings. Policing is a means to justice and to the security of individual liberty (Stevens, 2003).

1.10.10. Police – this is a governmental department concerned primarily with the maintenance of public order, safety, health and enforcement of the laws and possessing judicial as well as legislative powers (Klockars, 1983). The police comprise the primary societal institution to which has been entrusted the task of preventing crime and of launching crime-prevention programmes (Naudé and Stevens, 1988).

This is a profession, whose work is to maintain order, prevent crime, detect crime and enforce a country's law and regulations. It involves protecting people and property, making people obey the law, detecting and solving crimes, keeping peace and regulating and controlling the community, especially in terms of the maintenance of public order, safety, health, morals and the like (International Dictionary of English,1995).

1.10.11. Communication- the term 'communication' comes from a Latin word 'cummunis' or 'common'. In essence when people communicate they are attempting to share a commonness with another party (Flynn, 1998).

1.12. Summary

The researcher focused on the research problem on the main concern that triggered him to undertake this study. The chapter also provided the research methodology, significance and research demarcations. The researcher realised that similar significant studies have been done in places such as Midrand, Polokwane, Diepsloot and Muchipisi concerning community policing but no such studies have been done on Alice, in the EC. This served as a motivation to assist through research with the development of a partnership between the police and the community as this is very crucial to peace and harmony, not only in the research area but everywhere.

The researcher will present, a thorough reviewed literature on the following chapter two which will serve as the framework for the research. This review enabled the researcher to be informed about the study phenomenon and also assist him in creating a new theory apart from the combination of this empirical research findings, grounded theory and writings from academics in the field.

1.13. STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter one: General orientation of the study

Chapter two: Literature Review

Chapter Three: Theories of community policing

Chapter Four: Methodological approach

Chapter Five: Data Presentation

Chapter Six: Findings of the study: A reflective condensed approach

Chapter Seven: Recommendations of the study and conclusion

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with the general orientation of this study where the researcher provided an overview to the study. In this chapter, the researcher reviews the literature in community policing, its developmental history and the current situation within policing agencies in order to understand the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The notion of community policing cannot be fully understood if the shared responsibilities advocacy receive less attention from both the police and the entire community.

According to educational psychologist, John Creswell, a literature review does several things, such as:

- It shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the research topic;
- It relates a study to the larger ongoing dialogue in the literature about a topic, filling in gaps and extending prior studies"; and
- It provides a framework for establishing the importance of [your] study as well as a benchmark for comparing the results of a study with other findings (Creswell, 2013).

The current study will in the following sections present the results of prior studies that are closely related. The ongoing dialogue on the shared responsibilities will also receive attention, especially from reports in the media as these are clear indication of the daily life of the citizenry. Various studies have been consulted and these have sharpened and deepened the researcher's understanding of the topic. Partnership approach to policing is a central and focus point for this study as it best discusses how shared responsibilities between the police and the community should look like. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) supports the above notion, while further articulating that the aim of literature review is to sharpen and deepen the theoretical support of the study.

According to De Vos *et al*, (2005) the literature review serves four broad functions in qualitative studies which are:

- ❖ It demonstrates that the researcher is thoroughly knowledgeable about related research and intellectual transitions that surround and support the study;

- ❖ It demonstrates the underlying assumption behind the general research question;

- ❖ It shows that the researcher has identified some gaps in previous research and that the present study will fill a demonstrated need; and

- ❖ The review refines and redefines the research question in larger empirical traditions.

As it was further deliberated on during the discussion of the data collection methods (4.7.1) and data analysis (4.7.8) this chapter forms a crucial part of this thesis. The researcher in then discussions below which seeks to give clarity to the shared responsibilities between the police and the community at large.

2.2 SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES BETWEEN THE POLICE AND COMMUNITY

In De Vos et al, (2005) deliberations on the broad functions of literature review above, the following sections focus on community policing. The researcher is of the view that the police cannot work separately on crime prevention, but rather it has to be a shared responsibility between the police and the community. The researcher addresses different views of the diverse authors and also gives his own interpretation on the discussed matter.

2.2.1. Policing together through community policing

According to Stevens and Yatch (2005) the community lies at the heart of effective policing. The above authors indicates that community policing describes a policing style in which safety and security of local areas is not left to the police alone, nor shrouded in secrecy and left to the so-called experts, but one in which local residents are involved too.

According to Stevens and Yatch (1995) note that community policing refer to a policing style, a way of carrying out police services as well as a strategy in which there is active involvement by the communities in their own social ordering and security. In this paradigm, depends for its success on the belief that communities best exist when they share similar values with the police and their members are capable of self-regulation through the development of sound police-community relations.

Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) observe that the Administrative of Justice Departments (AJD), namely, the South African Police Service (SAPS), the Department of Correctional Services (DCS), and also the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJCD) cannot fight crime alone. It is for this reason that the involvement of the community is increasingly being emphasized in crime prevention. Furthermore, the fact that most crimes are usually observed by someone necessitates the involvement of the community in policing matters (Daley, 1991). The growing trend within communities is to participate in the fight against crime and disorder and this has been paralleled by a growing recognition by police, that traditional crime-fighting tactics alone have a limited impact on controlling crime (Farmer and Kowalewski, 1976).

Community policing should not merely be a new structure but it should predominately be a new philosophy of policing. It requires a change of attitudes, approach, planning, execution and feedback, involving the police and the public, in an equal partnership (Roelofse, 2007). Community policing is based on the philosophy that police officers and private citizens should work together in a creative way and help to solve contemporary community problems related to crime, fear of crime as well as social and physical disorder (Stevens and Cloete, 2006).

Community policing does not imply that police are no longer in authority or that their primary duty of preserving law and order is subordinated. Van Rooyen (1994) describes community policing as a philosophy and strategy that is based on the partnership between the police and the community to find a creative solution for community problems. Morgan and Smith (1989) contend that community policing has evolved as a means to influence decision- making at both street and managerial level.

Community policing is a viewpoint that guides police management styles and operational strategies. It also emphasises the establishment of police partnerships and a problem-solving approach, responsive to the needs of the community (Brogden, 1993). Community policing is promising because it builds working relationships with citizens that result in an improved service delivery and an improved police-community relations and mutual problem identification (Daley, 1991). Farmer and Kowalewski (1976) indicate that there is a need for support from the community for successful police work.

Jagwanth (1994) states that in order to be effective, community policing must be defined as essentially a flexible strategy, aimed at the development of better policing. Naudé and Stevens (1998) feel that a good relationship between the police and the community depends on the understanding of "what the community expects from police". Mutual communication and community involvement create a forum for negotiation by means of which problems can be eliminated and support given over a wide front. Some community policing forums that have been established by the police, at the moment under the Community Relation Division (CRD) of the SAPS however do not necessarily meet the needs of the community (Naudé and Stevens, 1998).

Citizen involvement in crime-prevention and control is not an unrealistic expectation. Historically, citizenship has included the responsibility for maintaining peace and justice. The community has to be more actively involved as the "eyes and ears"[5] of their neighbourhoods (Radelet, 1986). Community policing takes many forms, ranging from an officer on foot patrol to an officer in a vehicle. Researchers now generally recognises that police officers are heavily dependent on citizens in carrying out their responsibilities.

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[5] The researcher in this study refers, to the "eyes and ears" of the neighbourhood as they have to be actively involved on their own safety as well as that of others. This notion will reduce the fear of crime and encourages active participation in policing. As it has been noted from the above discussion, it is imperative for the community to develop a conducive environment and provide information to the police as some of the crime takes place in private domains.

The police depend on people to report crimes, make statements, provide information about suspects and cooperate in the investigations (Walker, 1992). Community policing can better address the problem and concerns of the community because it is a proactive, decentralised approach to crime prevention. Unlike the traditional model of policing, the success of community policing should not be measured in terms of the number of arrests (Van Rooyen, 1994).

Feltes (2002) identified the following factors as the results of community policing:

- ❖ An increased confidence and sense of empowerment among citizens;
- ❖ An increase in job satisfaction for police officers;
- ❖ A decrease in target crimes;
- ❖ An initial increase in reported crimes; and
- ❖ A reduced fear of crime.

Okeke (2013) reiterates how community policing is fast becoming a global trend, especially in the 21st century. But the key elements or core component of community policing is not foreign or new in Africa, for example, the pre-colonial Igbo society in Nigeria did not distinguish between policing and fighting crime with the overall role of the society. Conversely, the role of policing in the 'traditional Igbo' society was diffused in that there was no specialised institution whose specific role or primary purpose was to police or fight crime.

It was the role of the entire society, thus, the saying that "elders do not allow goat to be strangulated by the forest"[6]. Similarly, Van Rooyen (2001) conceives community policing as a philosophy and strategy which is based on a partnership between the community and the police to find creative solutions for contemporary community problems, crime and other related matters. Masrofski, Worden and Snipes (1995) indicate community policing as means making the police more cooperative with those who are not police. Adams (1994) as refers to community policing as a shift from a military-inspired approach to fighting crime to one that relies on forming partnership with constituents (Adams, 1994).

Community policing has become a term used by both professionals and scholars alike to replace other terms such as foot patrol, crime prevention, problem-oriented policing, community-oriented policing, police-community relations and others (Friedmann, 1992). Therefore, community policing is a policing strategy or philosophy based on the notion that community interaction and support can help control crime and reduce fear, for community members helping to identify suspects, detain vandals and bring problems to the attention of police.

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[6] This is a saying which is used by most Africans, meaning that elders cannot allow or observe crime taking place and they keep quiet. The saying as quoted from Okeke (2013) supports the study under investigation as it advocates shared responsibility.

2.2.2. POLICE IMAGE AND ITS IMPACT ON THE SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES

The following section focuses on the day-to-day behaviour of police officers and its impact on shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The researcher is of the notion that a good police-public representation will encourage public participation on crime-prevention

2.2.2.1. Community perception towards the police and the police image

The researcher places some importance of community perception[7] and the police image in this study, this approach enabled the researcher to validate and substantiate the responses of the participants in chapter five. To understand the value of research on attitudes toward the police and the need for policies based on such research, one needs only to examine the problems associated with negative perceptions of the police (Brown and Benedict, 2002).

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[7] According to Merian-Webster Dictionary (2006) 'perception' refers to intuitive cognitions or appreciation of something.

Most urban riots of the last half of the twentieth century, were due, in part, to police actions and negative attitudes toward the police (Cox and Fitzgerald, 1996). As Jefferis, Kaminski, Holmes and Hanley (1997) sum it up:

> History has demonstrated that, when relationships between police and minority communities are strained, a single critical incident can have deleterious effects.

Sigler and Dees (1988) explain that police departments hurt their public image by their pattern of instinctive response to criticism. In most cases the police officials deny the allegation which is put to them by the public. Sigler and Dees (1988) surveyed residents of Reno and found that most respondents believe that officers treat the providers of gratuities favourably and should not be allowed to accept gratuities. Residents of Brisbane, Australia indicated similar views toward police acceptance of gratuities (Prenzler and Mackay, 1995). For instance, when it comes to the issue of corruption[8], the police blame the public of being the ones who promise them bribes and only to find that rather the police are the ones who ask for 'kickbacks' in order for a particular matter to receive their favor.

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[8] Historically in common law, the crime presently known as 'corruption' was known as 'bribery'. This common-law crime could be committed by or in respect of a state official only. In order to punish corruption of people who were not state officials, but for example agents in private enterprises, the Prevention of Corruption Act 6 of 1959 created a separate statutory crime. The common law and the above mentioned Act were replaced by the Corruption Act 94 of 1992. The 1992 Act was in turn replaced by the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act 12 of 2004.

Postulations by Reisig and Giacomazzi, (1998), assert that locally-based responses to fear, disorder, and crime (for example, crime-prevention efforts and multi-level collaborative police-community partnerships) involving both citizens and the police have increased substantially over the last decade under the rubric of community policing. Poor police-community relations stem from various reasons across the world based on the experiences of both the police and the community. In South Africa, there have been quite a number of reports in media on police brutality and corruption.

De Vos (2011) commented on the police behaviour in the case of Andries Tatane as in the quotation below:

> The shock and outrage which have followed the brutal assault and killing of Andries Tatane by the South African Police Service during a service delivery protest at Setsoto, in Ficksburg, eastern Free State, is surprising, to say the least. Perhaps because this incident of police brutality was caught on camera and broadcasted on South African Broadcasting Commission Television (SABC TV) news, people are suddenly claiming to be shocked by something that happens every day.

Radalet and Carter (1994) point out that there are many reasons why the police have adverse interactions with the communities they are supposed to "serve and protect." Many of these concerns stem from the fact that overall, police departments have conflicting "perspectives, poor communications, and concerns about the nature of social control in a free society". The researcher' holds a similar view and also supports Rosenbaum (2002) as he is of the notion that in theory the value of partnership lies in their responsiveness to the aetiology of complex problems, their ability to encourage

interagency cooperation both inside and outside the CJS; their ability to attack problems from multiple sources of influence and to target multiple causal mechanisms.

2.2.2.1.1. Police misrepresentation

Any police behaviour, which misrepresents the legal mandates of the SAPS costs the state as well as the police image. Ncube (2014) writes that leadership is another salient aspect that needs to be examined. An analysis of speeches of certain political leaders and those in charge of the police shows a dearth in focused and exemplary leadership. For example, in 2008, Susan Shabangu, the then Deputy Minister of Safety and Security, instructed the police to shoot to kill. She stated,

> You must kill the bastards if they threaten you or the community. You must not worry about the regulations—that is my responsibility. Your responsibility is to serve and protect. I want no warning shots. You have one shot and it must be a kill shot" (Ellis, 2014).

The above sentiment from the former deputy minister conveys a very straight forward message towards promoting police brutality which undermines constitutional rights of citizens and *inter alia* and increasing cost to the state. Below is one of the reports which show the impact of police behaviour on the costs incurred by the state.

De Vos (2011) reported on the financial implication of the police behaviour, which was reported to the cabinet by former minister, Nathi Mthethwa, as quoted below:

> An amount of R87,2m was paid during 2009-10 financial year as far as claims for compensation are concerned, and an amount of R115,9m has been paid during the current financial year as on February 28 2010. The claims involve the following types of compensation: false arrests, assaults and shootings, collision damages to vehicles, damage to property and other issues such as crimen injuria.

On 26 February 2013, Mido Macia, a 26-year-old Mozambican taxi driver, was handcuffed to the back of a South African Police Service (SAPS) van and dragged hundreds of meters through the streets to the Daveyton police station. Two hours later he was found dead in his holding cell. An autopsy would reveal that he died of hypoxia, a lack of oxygen to the brain, after suffering extensive internal bleeding (SAPA, 2013). Prosecutors interpreted this, and blood spatters on Macia's holding cell walls, as evidence of a beating at the hands of police at the station (BBC, 2013).

The court charged the majority of the suspects with murder as they were later convicted. The behaviour portrayed above by police officers tend to tarnish the police community relation as members of the community were seen supporting the families of the above indicated direct victim. The researcher also questioned the rationale of the police behaviour, as this had a negative effects on police image and on police-community relations.

2.2.2.2. Media reports on police actions community relations

Matsheng (2015) reports in the local newspaper about three police officers who unexpectedly arrived at the victim's home on the 25th of May 2015 in Tswelelang extension 10, near Wolmaransstad in the North West. According to the 70-year-old, the police banged on the door and demanded to search his house. To make matters worse, they allegedly threatened and robbed him of cash after he opened the door while they were in full uniform. The researcher holds the notion that misbehaviour of the SAPS has a serious impact on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community.

Furthermore, in terms of section 27(1) of the CPA, a police official who may lawfully search any person or any premise and may use such force as may be reasonably necessary to overcome any resistance against such a search or against entry of the premise, including breaking of any door or a window. The above provision contradicts police behaviour as indicated in the incident above. According to Snyman (2008) police official shall first audibly demand admission to the premises and state the purpose of the search, however sometimes police officials fail to comply with this. Section 27 (2) serves as an exclusionary rule where the above section may not apply to a situation where officials concerned are, on reasonable grounds, of the opinion that any article, which is the subject of the search may be destroyed or disposed of if the *proviso* is first complied with. In the above noted incident, the officials did not comply with any of the mentioned provisions as it is alleged that they threatened and stole cash from the victim.

Jefferis, Kaminski, Holmes and Hanley (1997) in support articulate that history has demonstrated that, when relationships between police and minority communities are strained, a single critical incident can have deleterious effects. Jeranji (2015) reports that in Daily Sun newspaper that three cops stationed at the Ocean View Police Station were arrested while attending to a murder crime scene they stole dagga that was found on the premises and sold it to a community member.

Studies indicate that such incidents cause people to doubt the integrity of the police (Jesilow and Meyer, 2001; Kaminski and Jefferis, 1998). Brown and Benedict (2002) refers to the analysis made by Tuch and Weitzer (1997), on community perceptions of the police before and after three well-publicised brutal incidents in the Los Angeles area: the 1979 killing of Eulia Love; the 1991 beating of Rodney King; and the 1996 beatings of two Mexican immigrants. Tuch and Weitzer found precipitions declined in approval ratings after each major incident of police brutality. The above statement is also supported by the announcement issued by the former ANC national spokesperson, Jackson Mthembu, after the death of a teacher and political activist Andries Tatane. The statement indicate that while some commentators condemned the ANC's reaction to the television coverage of the incident, "some have come to our support especially taking into account the insensitivity of showing grim visuals to sensitive viewers" (Mthembu, 2015).

2.2.3. VIGILANTISM AS AN UNCONVENTIONAL POLICING APPROACH

The occurrence of vigilantism questions the performance of the state and its justice institutions (Black 1983; Spencer 2008). The state has a formal control over the reasonable use of power in most developed countries, thereby harnessing the emotions of citizens into a civilized justice system. The above assertion is not an exception in SA but a legal rule which binds all the citizenry. This section will therefore, discuss the unusual informal policing which had been noted to be escalating in most communities.

2.2.3.1. Conceptualising vigilantism

There have been a lot of reports of incidents of community incitement to violence in response to crime within their respective communities which has caught the attention both international and local media in SA. It is therefore relevant to briefly discuss what vigilantism entails. Importantly, it is not an act that has been defined in (criminal) law; people cannot be charged with 'vigilantism' (Haas, de Keijser and Bruinsma, 2012).

Citizens can only be arrested, prosecuted and/or sentenced for legally-defined acts such as murder; the context is what may result in an additional qualification of the act as vigilantism. Haas, de Keijser and Bruinsma (2012) state that, there exists disagreement on a number of seemingly rudimentary elements of vigilantism, such as:

- ❖ Who partakes in vigilant activities?
- ❖ What encourages the citizenry to resort to vigilantism?
- ❖ Why do the acts of vigilantism constitute human rights violation? and
- ❖ How are these acts accomplished?

It is hoped that, if the above questions can be thoroughly researched more relevant answers can be established on the topic, than those provided by current literature and preconceived notions. The researcher intends to deliberate on alternate notions that of Johnston (1996) who maintains that vigilantes are private (Dumsday 2009; Huggins (1991) while stating that vigilantism as carried out by state agents. The researcher's real-world experience makes him to beleive that the composition of vigilant groups does not single out state agents as they form part of the community/ties who is/are fed-up with crime and criminal activities within their localities.

Rosenbaum and Sederberg in Haas *et al* (2012) are of the opinion that vigilantism can be acts of threats of violence although some also include non-violent versions like neighborhood watches (Hine 1998). The perceived goals of vigilantes also differs widely; they include such as defending an established sociopolitical order (Rosenbaum and Sederberg 1974), imposing law in a lawless setting (Alvarez and Bachman 2007), community social control (Weisburd 1998) and the apprehension and punishment of (alleged) criminals (Ayyildiz 1995; Shotland 1976; Weisburd 1998; Zimring 2003). Additionally, some people claim that vigilantism is always a premeditated or organized act (Dumsday 2009; Johnston 1996), while others also recognize its more spontaneous forms (Adinkrah 2005).

Kappeler and Gaines (2001) explain that previously due to the inadequate justice system and the violent nature of American frontier life, many people had few qualms with acts of taking the law into their own hands. Drawing the line between "responsible" efforts of organised civilian volunteers and vigilantism can thus be difficult. The above authors further indicate that what makes the acts of vigilantism different from "responsible citizen action" is that act often operates in opposition to formal legal norms and is often driven by xenophobia, racism and negative preconceptions about something.

Kappeler and Gaines (2001) state that echoes of some kind of justification can be seen in this particular warning, posted outside Las Vegas, New Mexico, in 1880, as a citizens' manifesto, similar to many of that era:

> The citizens of Las Vegas are tired of robbery, murder and other crimes that have made this town a byword in every civilised community. They are resolved to put crime to stop, even if, in obtaining that end, they have to forget the law and resort to a speedier justice than it will afford. All such characters are notified that they must either leave the town or conform themselves to the requirements of the law or they will be severely dealt with. The flow of blood must and shall be stopped in this community and good citizens of both old and new towns have been determined to stop it if they have to hang by the strong arm of force every violator of law in this country-vigilantes (Otem, 1935)

The concept of public vigilantism have been used worldwide and various authors have defined and given explicit details about the issue. It has been an informal form of crime control in most of the countries where members of the communities have taken the law into their own hands to resolve their social concerns.

According to Exline, Worthington, Hill and McCullough (2003) vigilantism can be seen as the result of a so-called 'injustice gap', a discrepancy between the desired and actual outcome. In support of the above view, Haas *et al* (2012) state that taking the law into one's own hands is a way of reducing this perceived injustice gap and restoring one's sense of justice. Vigilantism may occur when people either do not want the criminal justice authorities to get involved or when the authorities fail to respond, or when the authorities were involved but not to the level of satisfaction of the affected party. The above assertions receive support as Weber (2000) in Hass *et al* (2012) who supports victims or their relatives who physically attack defendants upon finding out that they have been acquitted by a judge or given 'too lenient' a sentence (Weber 2000).

Minaar reports in his study on vigilantism that as a result of community dissatisfaction with the formal response to crime, collectively bailed detained offenders and subsequently kill them (Minnaar 2001). The researcher however questions communities' informal response to this type of crime as it tend to result in a portrait of "the bad becoming the good" and visa-versa. An illustrative example supporting both the researcher and the above authors' views can be best clarified with the case of Marianne Bachmeier as presented below.

> Even though an arrest had been made, and a defendant was brought to trial, she apparently felt that none of the possible judicial sentences would be adequate. She probably saw the death penalty as the only satisfactory result, which was not an option in the German CJS, and effectuated this desired punishment by fatally shooting the defendant (Hass *at e*l, 2012)

Legal rules will sometimes diverge, to a certain extent, from citizens' principles. However, when these incongruities become too large, the danger exists that public respect for the legal system will be lost (Carlsmith 2008; Darley 2001; Roberts and Stalans 1997). Such a lack of respect for the law would be detrimental to the functioning of the CJS, as citizens often obey the law because they find the norms to be legitimate and deserving of compliance (Coffee 1991; Tyler 1990). It has been argued in the literature that moral contempt for specific laws may be generalised to the entire criminal code (Greene and Darley 1998). Thus, if there is no moral consensus in the community vis-à-vis the formal reactions to vigilantism, the state should at least attempt to explain to its citizens why the existing practice is to be preferred (Greene and Darley 1998). If not done, people may lose confidence in the law and the legal authorities, which may ironically bring about a higher frequency of vigilantism.

Harris (2001) define vigilantism as a comprehensive term for activities that occur beyond the parameters of the legal system, purportedly to achieve justice. It covers a wide range of actions and involves an eclectic assortment of perpetrators and victims. Sekhonyane (2000) sums up the common traits of vigilante acts as follows:

- Punishment that often exceeds the crime allegedly committed;
- Engaging in illegal acts such as kidnapping[9], crimen injuria[10], and malicious damage to property, theft, robbery;

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[9] This consist of unlawful and intentional depriving a person of his or her freedom of movement and/or, if such person is a child, the custodian of their control over the child. The definition follows that given in Hunt-Milton, which was accepted as correct as far as child stealing is concerned.
[10] Collins English Dictionary (Law); the laws of South Africa considers an action that injures the dignity of another person, especially the use of racially offensive language. HarperCollins Publishers 1991, 1994,

- Alleged perpetrators being accosted by highly-charged mobs;

- Acts of severe violence, including the serious assault and murder of alleged criminals;

- The lack of a clear structure, rules and limitations in the way the vigilante organisations operate; and

- The absence of communication lines between the groups and state organs such as the police.

Maepa (2001) also made additions to these characteristics as follows:

❖ Acts are carried out in public;

❖ Fear and control are generated through repression; and

❖ They are based on a model of instant, retributive justice[11] and oppositional to the rehabilitative method[12] as prescribed by the South African Justice System (SAJS).

1998, 2000, 2003. CR Snyman (2010) states that *Crimen injuria* consist of the unlawful, intentional and serious violation of the dignity or   privacy of another. Also see Jana 1981 1 SA 671 (A)

[11] The first philosophical approach (or rationale) is that punishment, strictly defined, is not evil. Retribution is a term that means balancing a wrong through punishment. While revenge is personal and not necessarily proportional to the victim's injury, retribution is impersonal and balanced. The second element of the retributive rationale is that the criminal deserves the punishment and, indeed, has a right to be punished. Only by forcing the individual to suffer the consequences of his actions does one accord them the rights of an equal citizen. Herbert Morris explains this view: [F]irst, . . . we have a right to punishment; second . . . this right derives from a fundamental human right to be treated as a person; third . . .this fundamental right is a natural, inalienable, and absolute right; and, fourth, . . . the denial of this right implies the denial of all moral rights and duties (Morris, in Murphy 1995, 75). Morrison is of the view that every person hasto be respected, regardless of their engagement in criminal activities. Therefore the court should determine one's guiltiness and impose a reasonable sentence for which the perpetrator deserves.
[12] Rehabilitation is defined as internal change that results in a cessation of the targeted negative behavior. It may be achieved by inflicting pain as a learning tool (behavior modification) or by other interventions that are not painful at all (for example, self-esteem groups, education, or religion). Under the retributive philosophy described earlier, rehabilitation and treatment are considered more intrusive and less respectful of the individuality of such a person than pure punishment because they attack the internal psyche of the individual.

Paul Feuerbach (1775-1833) is a great German criminologist and the founder of the doctrine *"Nulla poena sine lege," "nulla poena sine crimen" and "nullum crimen sine poena legali"*, which mean that no person can punished without a prior and precise legal norms. This doctrine reflected that Feuerbach was unsatisfied with the criminal sanction system of the courts of his days, where penalties were decided arbitrarily. Presently, Feuerbach's major principles are globally applied, for instance the doctrine of *ex post facto law*, which are "forbidden almost everywhere, countries in the codification tradition are, generally speaking, much stricter on this subject than are common law countries".[13]

Minaar (2004) re-enforces these traits with the following features of vigilantism:

➢ Spontaneous mob-style emotive reaction to a situation often involving immediate punishment;

➢ Once-off-street gathering dispensing *ad hoc* and summary justice; and

➢ Caught-in-the-act (red-handed) citizen response.

Madienyane (2013) asserts that with the above outlined traits, the victims, in the form of accused persons, prefer to be arrested rather than being punished by the mob. The punishment meted out by the vigilante ranges from excessive lashing to death. This pressurises the communities to submit and endorse the might and legitimacy of the formations because any form of dissidence may be countered with the same brutality.

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[13] Niggli, MA. 2002. Security as a goal of Criminal Justice. Asian Criminological Society. 4th Annual conference. Seoul. South Korea, pp. 1-7.

The above assertions will assist the research to give clarity on the research questions and objectives of the study (see chapter 5, the heading on community understanding on the rule of law).

Mr. Thomas Moeng of the Diepsloot branch of Mapogo-aMathamaga (February 2001) was quoted in Sekhonyane and Louw (2002) as saying that,

> "We find a friend of the suspect and plead with him to tell us where his friend is or the loot is. If he refuses, we will give him a taste of the medicine[14]. After tasting the medicine he will confess. Then we give him more lashes for lying or trying to hide a friend. When we find the friend and he confesses to the crime and hands over the loot, we give him lashes too".

The above "*modus operandi"* clearly shows that some members of the community do not understand the democratic values as outlined in the Constitution of the Republic and other legal mandates such as the Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977, the police Act as well as some policy frameworks.

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[14] "Taste of medicine" in this study simply refers to a situation where in suspects will be beaten until they make confessions, generally speaking lashing them with the hope that they will divulge information about the hide-outs of their friends.

2.2.3.2. Vigilantism in South Africa

Schonteich (2000) stresses that vigilantism has become a serious concern for government and civil society in South Africa. The problem is hard to quantify, but the largest and most recent survey conducted in 1999 in the Eastern Cape found that one in 20 people said they had personally been involved in vigilante activity and every fifth person said they would consider becoming involved.

According to Sekhonyane and Louw (2002) vigilantism not only leads to an increase in the overall level of crime, but also influences how government responds to crime generally and most importantly, undermines the rule of law. The activities of vigilante groups like People Against Gangsterism and Drugs (Pagad) in the Western Cape and *Mapogo-a-Mathamaga* (referred to as *'Mapogo'*) in the Limpopo Province are cases in point. The activities of both these groups have seen a rise in gang-related violence in the case of PAGAD, and many instances of assault in the case of *Mapogo*. Sekhonyane and Louw (2002) articulate that the brutal and illegal methods employed by vigilante groups have also forced reactions from the communities in which they operate, which in turn result in more crime.

The emergence of groups such as, *Amampondomise* Thieves Unit in Tsolo and Qumbu in the Eastern Cape in response to *Umfelandawonye wa Bafuyi, Maputla re tla ja Kae* in Mpumalanga in response to Mapogo and the Community Outreach Forum in response to PAGAD in the Western Cape are some examples of such a reaction. Proponents of vigilantism argue that poor service delivery and the inaccessibility of the criminal justice

are the key factors causing people to support and engage in vigilantism. Indeed South Africa is not unique in this regard. Countries like UK, Northern Ireland, and Nigeria experienced vigilantism at some point in their history. The evolution of vigilantism in South Africa dates back to the 1980s and 90s during the period of heightened resistance to the apartheid government.

The re-emergence of vigilantism post 1994 in South Africa could be attributed to unmet public expectations of service delivery, particularly from the CJS. Western Cape Government of Community Safety (2013) states that the incidents of vigilantism in the Western Cape can be seen as manifestations of the systemic failures of the entire CJS and an apparent loss of hope by the citizens in the province. The researcher believes that communities which organize vigilante actions may be just showing a tip of the iceberg in terms of their dissatisfaction with service delivery. Moreover, the above author believes that a long terms solution to vigilantism depends on intensive effort to comprehend vigilantism from the community perspective, for example, as an immediate 'solution to an existing problem'.

In the Western Cape is the existence of two actively vigilante groups in Khayelitsha. The vigilante groups are Peninsula Anti- Crime Agency and Anti-Eviction Campaign (AEC) (Witbooi, 2004). Incidences of vigilantism are not rare in Diesploot which is a densely populated area North of Johannesburg. Media reports point out that, on the 6th of February 2012, angry residents of Diesploot dragged an alleged victim and beat him to death. The vigilantes used sticks, knives, pangas, and concrete blocks. The deceased was

suspected of being involved in illegal activities in the area. Police have since opened a case of premeditated murder. Some residents were left shocked (South African Broadcasting Corporation, 2012).

Similarly, on the 16th of December 2013, a man suspected of robbing a local shop in Diepsloot was brutally assaulted by community members. The assaulted man was part of the four armed group that robbed a shop. As the incident was occurring, a police officer not in the usual uniform caught a man on the scene physically assaulting the alleged criminal. The victim remained in a critical condition in hospital until he later passed away. Police then immediately opened a case of murder against the perpetrator and it remains to be seen whether or not other perpetrators will be arrested (Roetes, 2014).

In Pretoria, an incidence of mob justice erupted targeting a man who had been accused of being a serial killer in the area. The incident happened on the 10th of September 2014. Out of anger, residents attacked the alleged criminal and in the process his property was set on fire. Members of the SAPS failed to contain the situation as community members used stones to prevent the police's intervention. Notably, the house and cars belonging to the alleged criminal were burnt. The incident happened after the alleged criminal was accused of being responsible for the death of five women in the area. Due to these actions, police opened a case on charges of arson and malicious damage to property against some members of the community (South African Broadcasting Corporation, 2014).

Furthermore, in Limpopo, an 86 year old man was killed by 16 people in an alleged incident of vigilantism. The incident happened in April 2014 and the perpetrators were aged of 18 to 45. The incident occurred after the deceased was accused of raping and killing a 79 year old woman. The body of the woman was discovered by community members in the bushes in a nearby village. Police confirmed that the 16 vigilantes are facing charges of murder. Police further stated that community members should refrain from taking the law into their own hands and inform police of any illegal activities (Bendile, 2014).

As stated by Haefele (undated), vigilantism on the Western Cape mostly occurs in areas such Khayelitsha, Gugulethu, and Philippi, Delft, and Nyanga. A major concern is about the unavailability of correct and reliable data relating to the exact number of vigilante activities, and this is attributed to the fact that local police stations do not have sufficient resources at their disposal (SAPS Vigilantism Prevention Strategy Western Cape, 2002).

On Friday 20th February 2015, Mnguni published an article in Daily Sun entitled *"I want justice for my brother"*, the incident happened in Gauteng where the murdered victim who was alleged to have stolen electricity cables in Katlehong was caught and beaten to death. Motseo (2015) reports that in Newspaper in the article entitled *"Mob beats up self-proclaimed thief"* it was indicated that a young man aged 19 was caught red-handed trying to steal in a neighbour's house and was brutally beaten by an angry mob. The mob further specified that they are fed up with crime in their area (Bothashoek). The community in this incident tied the suspect and gave him a beating until he confessed to his previous

robberies. The researcher questioned the behaviour of the community as to whether they really understood the constitution of the Republic or not, section 35 1 (c) provides that no one shall be compelled to make a confession or admission of guilt.

Langa (2015) reports that in the Daily Sun on the 27th of March 2014, in an article *"Hunted, stripped and beaten to death, t*he residents caught and killed a man whom they suspected had gunned down a couple. The relatives of the dead couple indicated she was a Christian and knew that she should not ask for revenge, but the brutal murder left no place in her heart for forgiveness. A gogo[15] in the community said that community members who tracked down and killed the suspected culprits should be seen as heroes not criminals.

The factors that contribute to vigilantism in the province of Western Cape are well documented. These include a lack of confidence in the police in certain communities; limited or lack of knowledge by communities on the functions of the judicial; frustrations about the ever-increasing rate of crime; influence of organised vigilante groups; and the growing culture of fear in communities (SAPS Vigilantism Prevention Strategy Western Cape, 2002). The conclusion from the incidents is that vigilantism in Western Cape is a reflection of the general dissatisfaction in South Africans.

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[15] This is an informal language mostly used in South Africa to refer to an elderly person regardless of one's gender.

The cooperation between SAPS and communities is critical in the prevention and combating of crime. In an inquiry commissioned by SAPS, in Khayelitsha, surrounding the issue of vigilantism, prevention initiatives were discussed. Stakeholders in the CJS recommended that there is an urgent need to educate people on how courts operate, and special emphasis should be on the roles of the public prosecutor and magistrate.

2.2.3.3. Vigilantism in the Eastern Cape Province

According to information supplied by police, on one occasion two men in the Eastern Cape lost their lives in incidences of vigilantism. The first incident involved a man who was heavily beaten by a group of armed vigilantes. He was accused of, but not limited to rape, murder as well as attempting to rape an elderly woman. The above victim sustained serious injuries which resulted on his death later in hospital. In their pursuit police apprehended four men in relation to this incident of vigilantism. The second incident happened in Mthatha, where a man was beaten to death for allegations of housebreaking. Three people were arrested for his death and later appeared in court on charges of murder (South African Press Association, 2011).

Additionally, an incidence of mob attack also happened in Nompumelelo Township in East London after a Grade 12 learner was beaten to death by a group of people in connection with missing children in the area. Police in the Eastern Cape condemned the mob attack and stated that the only solution is the creation of a working relationship that is based on trust between communities and the police. Police consistently discouraged people from taking the law into their own hands. The police after the incident launched an investigation into the matter and urged people with information to come forward (South African Press Association, 2013).

Media reports have disclosed that New Brighton has also witnessed a number of incidences related to vigilantism. The community of New Brighton took to the streets in anger as they searched for two men suspected of engaging in illegal activities. After an intense search the alleged criminals were found in a nearby informal settlement. Soon afterwards, they were stoned and their bodies covered with tires full of paraffin, and were then set alight immediately on the scene. Police later released a statement indicating that two men alleged to have committed crime had lost their lives as a result of the actions performed by the community members (Van Rooyen, 2011).

According to the South African Broadcasting commission (SABC) in 2013 reported that five people have been killed in mob-justice attacks in the Eastern Cape and Limpopo provinces. Two women have been killed in an apparent mob justice attack at Luqhoqhweni village in Port St Johns in the Eastern Cape. It was alleged that the 70-year-old woman and her 50-year-old daughter were brutally killed in front of young children on Wednesday night. Social Development MEC, Pemmy Majodina was reported to be concerned by the killing incidents as she revealed her frustration to the SABC as per the extract below.

"To me this is brutal, inhumane and very barbaric, we expect the so called 'men and leaders' in the community to defend the poor women who are defenseless. Because it is always the case that if you are poor, you will always be accused of witchcraft and I cannot take this thing anymore, this is rather too much in this province."

In another incident a video clip posted on YouTube by the Eastern Cape Daily Dispatch newspaper showed a group of people assaulting a man from Mayabuleni village in Tsolo after he had been accused of stock theft. The footage depicts the victim, who is seen lying on the ground with his hands and legs bound and a bag placed over his head being whipped with sjamboks by several people while others watch (Fuzile, 2015). Villagers alleged that Tsali was the mastermind behind a series of stock theft incidents in the area. The father of four died in hospital the same day from his injuries.

Mthatha police spokesman Lieutenant-Colonel Mzukisi Fatyela confirmed some arrests as noted below.

> "We can confirm the arrest of the suspects. Twenty-three of them are linked to the death of David Tsali and were arrested by detectives who are investigating this case. The victim's wife who has viewed the footage said: "It's difficult for her as the concerned video revealed community modus operandi during the brutalisation. The victim's wife further emphasised how people have turned from being human beings into wild animals".

From these incidences questions can be raised about the community's behavior and the failure of the traditional leadership to take control over incidences of such nature. Furthermore, regardless of the spate of stock theft in the area, it was uncalled for the community to brutalise the victim as a corrective measure. Moreover, it was established that the victim was summoned for questioning and thereafter released. The 'circus' did not end there as he was re-summoned to the headman's kraal a few hours later and was told to bring his sheep with him as checks were going to be done to ensure they were not stolen. "They started asking him about the stock that had been missing in the village and when he said he doesn't know anything about that, they assaulted him" (Fuzile, 2015).

2.2.4. POLICING THROUGH PARTNERSHIP

Partnerships can be formed between a number of individuals, agencies or organisations with a shared interest. The phenomenon under investigation seeks to explore the shared responsibilities between the police and community members, therefore, the researcher opted to discuss partnership policing under the following sections:

2.2.4.1. Conceptual clarification

Lab (2010) points out that the inability of the police to handle the crime problem alone and the recognition that crime and disorder cannot be dealt with solely through arrest and prosecution of offenders have led to the development of alternative responses and methods. Lab further indicates that the underlying philosophy is the encouragement for interaction and cooperation between the police, residents, community groups and other agencies to solve crime.

Rosenbaum (2002) notes that:

> The value of partnership in theories lies in their responsiveness to the aetiology of complex problems, their ability to encourage interagency cooperation both inside and outside the CJS; their ability to attack problems from multiple sources of influence and to target multiple causal mechanisms.

The United Nations Centre for Human Settlements indicate that partnerships against crime make the most of the benefits that different actors bring to crime prevention. This is done in a way that supports all those concerned, by taking into account both the strengths and weaknesses of the public, commercial, private and non-governmental

sectors while their strengths can be developed to help prevent crime. At the same time, the potential for inefficiency caused by their weaknesses can be minimised (United Nations Centre for Human Settlements, 1997).

Chappell (2009) articulates that community policing is based on the assumption that police officers should partner with the community to solve problems that generate repeat calls for service. In order for this to happen, officers must be given the discretion to make independent decisions and act as advocates on behalf of the neighborhoods they serve. Citizens will be a part of the problem-defining process as well as the problem-solving process. The focus is on quality of life, decreasing fear of crime, and cleaning up neighborhoods. Theoretically, confronting quality of life issues will lead to less citizen fear and an increase in informal social control, which will eventually lead to a decrease in crime (Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux, 1990).

The South African Government released a statement during the opening address to Parliament on 25 June 1999, that South Africa's new president has committed the government to take measures to:

> "... Strengthen the Community forum Fora to improve their capacity to mobilise the people against crime and to improve co-operation between the people and the law enforcement agencies." This, he said, would be one of "... the hallmarks of the national offensive against crime and violence." President Mbeki's

The assertion by Trojanowicz and Bucqueroux 1990 intertwined with the commitment of the former president emphasised a joint approach where the shared responsibilities between the police and the community can be depicted. In this regard, it can be argued that no single structure can minimise crime incidents within our respective communities, but rather adherence to partnership-policing approach.

Community policing requires partnerships between officers and citizens. This can be accomplished in various ways, including the following:

(a) putting police on permanent beats so that they get to know residents;

(b) setting up mini-stations in neighborhoods;

(c) instituting foot and bike patrols;

(d) enlisting community organisations to clean up dilapidated buildings, pick up trash, and fix broken windows; and

(e) making the area uninviting to criminals (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 2006; Wilson and Kelling, 1982).

Other programs include neighborhood watches, involving the youth in athletic leagues and afterschool programs, target hardening and environmental design improvements, and codes enforcement and nuisance abatement (Langworthy and Travis, 2003).

2.2.4.2. The role of school in partnership policing

Partnership policing refers to a situation where various role players team up by assuming varying responsibilities when undertaking police activities and roles as a single unit. The result reflects a hegemonic shift in the policing discourse (Bayley and Shearing, 2001). In partnership policing, expertise and resources are combined to ensure the most effective port. Policing outcomes, which are achieved through the adoption of strategies that initiate equitable port-policing partnerships, involving the police, port security and the port community.

Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) hold the notion that many hours of a child's day are spent at school or are taken up by school-related activities. For this reason the school is, apart from the family, the most important institution in the child's life and perhaps more involved than the home in preventing crime in the child. According to Wolf and McDevitt (2008) concerns about gang violence, school shootings, bullying, bias or hate-related threats or violence, and vandalism have led schools to focus increasingly on school safety.

Schools bring children and teenagers together with various risk factors, providing opportunities for conflicts to erupt. But, for the same reason, schools provide a centralised location to engage students at-risk of involvement in gangs and violence in prevention and intervention programming (Gottfredson, 1997). Durlak (1995) recognizes schools as having great potential, as a *locus* for crime prevention. Schools provide regular access to students throughout their developmental years, and perhaps the only consistent access to large numbers of the most crime-prone young children in the early school years.

The results from a study conducted by Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) show that school-based prevention programs include interventions to prevent a variety of forms of "problem behaviour," including theft, violence, alcohol or other drug use; rebellious behaviour, anti-social behaviour, aggressive behaviour, defiance of authority, and disrespect for others. These different forms of delinquent behaviours are highly correlated and share common causes. Many of the programs were not specifically designed to prevent the problem behaviours, but instead to affect presumed causal factors such as school drop-out, truancy, or other correlates which are expected to increase protection against or decrease risk towards engaging in problem behaviours at some later date (Wilson-Brewer, 1994).

Police have served in schools in different countries early as the 1930s the police served in schools in Atlanta and Indianapolis (and possibly in New York City in 1918) (Brown, 2006). Wolf and McDevitt (2008) state that the first publicized school liaison program started in Flint, Michigan in 1958. Liaison responsibilities for police entailed observing student behaviour, identifying delinquent or "pre-delinquent" behaviour, and serving in a counseling capacity. The Tucson, Arizona, Police Department School Resource Officer Program (SRO), developed in 1963, was based on the Flint's initiative but with officers working in full uniform and taking on greater responsibility for referral decisions (Morrison, 1968).

2.2.4.2.1. Functions and Characteristics of School on shared responsibilities towards partnership policing

The International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (ICPC) (2004) articulates that the involvement of the police in schools is not a new phenomenon. They have been associated with schools in many countries, and in a variety of ways, for most of the past century. For much of that time, that role was limited to collecting truants, ensuring bicycle or traffic safety, or the prevention of child abuse (Lambert and McGinty, 2002). Since the 1960's, however, there have been gradual changes, resulting in the 1990s in the development of a variety of much more formalised and closer links between local police and schools. In the USA, for example, the development of dedicated police officers as school resource officers, the delivery of drug prevention programmes, or enforcement of zero tolerance policies, have all brought the police much closer to the day-to-day running of schools (ICPC, 2004).

According to Atkinson (2002) school safety requires a broad-based effort by the entire community, including educators, students, parents, law enforcement agencies, businesses, and faith-based organisations, among others. By adopting a comprehensive approach to addressing school safety focusing on prevention, intervention, and response, schools can increase the safety and security of students. Wolf and McDevitt (2008) state the main goal of school/police partnerships being to maintain a safe environment for students, school personnel, and other people using school facilities. Having a safe place to learn supports student academic achievement and overall well-being.

2.2.4.2.2. Role of the SAPS in addressing the issue of crime and the anticipated response within schools

South African Police Service Visible Policing Division (SAPSVPD) of 2009[16] requires that SAPS members, who work with school safety, should not only focus on serious or criminal issues, but also consider petty offences. Working with the school, educators and other supporting professionals, such as social workers, the causes of petty crimes should be addressed. SAPSVPD outlines the role of the SAPS members in this regard which includes, but not limited to the following:

- o Obtaining and sharing information about factors that contribute to crime in a particular area;

- o Working with the community and stakeholders to determine what can be done;

- o Mobilising other relevant stakeholders to participate in school-safety work, for example, by including them in the safe school committees to deal with specific factors relevant to their work;

- o Implement crime combating and law enforcement initiatives that includes vehicle patrols, searches, arrests and seizures;

- o Building referral networks that help schools to access the correct services for specific crime-prevention and safety-related needs; and

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[16] This is the SAPS document which gives guidelines intended to enrich the participation of police officers in promoting safe and orderly school environments. These guidelines were developed because of a need for a comprehensive reference for police officers who are involved in crime prevention and safer school programmes, including programmes and projects such as Adopt-A-Cop, Top Cops and other local-specific safer schools project.

o   Assist the school in the development of a contingency plan for emergencies.

2.2.4.2.3. Implement crime combating and law enforcement strategies

While conducting their duties, police officers and safety officers at schools should observe the Constitutional provision even though rights in this context are limited in terms of the "limitation clause"[17] (see section 36 of the Constitution). The police should ensure that learner's well-being is of utmost importance to avoid retaliation and a sense of normlessness. The proponent of the anomie theory (Robert Merton) defines anomie as lack of norms and refers it to a condition of tension and frustration occurring within an individual as a result of lack of adequate means to achieve accepted goals (Stevens and Cloete 2006).

Even though the chief rationale for these strategies would be the fight against crime and any acts which can be considered as anti-social behaviour, much attention should focus on assisting the learners than punishing them to avoid a situation where learners will end up retaliating against the expected norms and standard rules of the school. Furthermore, in instances where safety or police officers can find a learner with articles "referred to" in terms of section 20 of the CPA they should treat them with caution respecting children's rights (Maharaj, 2010).

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[17] The section emphasize the dignity which everyone inherent as well as their dignity being respected. Nel and Bezuidenhout 1995 clarify the said provision by indicating that, the rights protected by this section certainly include the right of a person to have their dignity respected by the state in its dealings with or treatment of them. Common law interprets dignity as 'self-esteem'. Our courts have, however linked it to status, honour, reputation or what amounts to esteem in other eyes. Also see University of Pretoria V Tommy Meyer Films (Edms) 1979 (1) SA 441(A).

According to Joubert (2012) the CPA confers powers to search only where the object of the search is to find a certain person or seize an article which falls into one of the three classes of articles. These are:

(a) Articles which are concerned in or are on a reasonable grounds believed to be concerned or suspected in commission of an offence whether within the Republic or elsewhere;

(b) Articles which may afford evidence of the commission or suspected commission of an offence, whether within the Republic or elsewhere; or

(c) Articles which are intended to be used or are on reasonable grounds believed to be intended to be used in the commission of an offence.

(South African Police Service of Visible Policing Division, 2009).

2.2.4.3. The role of the media in partnership policing

Van Heerden (1986) articulates that the failure of endeavours by the police to attain their goals may often be attributed to certain misconceptions[18] on the public with regard to these goals and the method used in attempting to attain them. The misconception can be cleared up through the actual performance of services and through its 'liaison officers', the public is kept informed. Van Heerden, considers the exchange of information as a vital

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[18] The South African Concise Dictionary defines misconception as a false or mistaken view or opinion. In this study it simply means the pre-conceived notions which becomes a barrier between the police and members of the community to can jointly show their shared responsibilities and achieve them.

part of police work, which if neglected, neither understanding nor co-operation can be expected.

Wilson and McLaren outline the functions of a liaison officer as follows:

- To evaluate public opinions and attitudes concerning departmental policy, methods and personnel;

- To evaluate the effects of new departmental programmes; policies; procedures and activities upon public attitudes;

- To initiate programmes for which the public can be informed and discussion with community leaders can be carried on; and

- To advise the administrative unit on the modification of those processes that give rise to hostile attitudes (Wilson and McLaren, 1977).

2.2.4.3.1. Crime newsletter

According to Lab (2010) providing more salient information to the public can be accomplished through the distribution of crime newsletter. Unlike widely distributed mass media campaign, which are limited in terms of their time frame and the level of specificity, newsletters can be targeted to a much more limited audience and tailored to the needs of individuals. Lab further articulates that newsletters can provide information on a wide range of related issues, which are not limited to the level of crime and prevention techniques for the public. Barthe (2010) also supports the above notion as proposed by Lab while stressing that the content of the newsletter may include, but not limited to the following:

- ✓ Self-protection techniques;

- ✓ Ways to report crime;

- ✓ Location of police and protection resources;

- ✓ Dangerous areas; and

- ✓ Areas of crime problem.

Lab (ibid) articulates that newsletters have a potential to influence citizen behaviour in a number of ways. Firstly, newsletters are an educational tool and secondly, they can raise a level of concern about crime among the citizenry. Information like "crime hot spots", the types of crimes that are committed in the area, the types of potential victims that are at risk of victimization and preventive measures can be provided. For example, there was a warning from the SAPS through newspapers to the tourists around Durban, that they must be careful since criminals easily target them for jewelries, cell phones and cash (Maluleke, 2008).

2.2.5. UNDERSTANDING PARTNERSHIP POLICING AS MANDATED BY THE LEGAL MANDATES AND POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

Pelser (1997) stresses that partnership policing developed during the 1980s when the model of police paternalism that was embedded in community policing, evolved into a new concept of independent agents working together in partnership with formal structures. This was supported by various legislation's and policy documents such as the Criminal Procedure Act 51 0f 1977; the Constitution of the Republic of South Act 108 of

1996; the Police Act 68 of 1995, the National Crime-prevention Strategy and the White Paper on safety and security. These are discussed below.

2.2.5.1. The Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977

Section 42 of the Criminal Procedure Act authorises a private person to effect an arrest without warrant if such a person believes beyond a reasonable doubt that such a person is suspected, or might have partaken in criminal activities or contemplated criminal activities. The declaration had been made in normative sponsorship theory by Sower (1957) that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs. Therefore, members of the community can effectively and efficiently engage themselves in partnership policing to satisfy their sense of security within their respective communities. The contents of the above section as extracted from the CPA gives more clarity on the authorisation of a private person in partnership policing below:

> **(1) Any private person may without warrant arrest any person-**
>
> *(a)* who commits or attempts to commit crime in his presence or whom he reasonably suspects of having committed an offence referred to in Schedule 1;

Maharaj (2010) outlines the schedule 1 offences which amongst others, allow a private person to apprehend or else assist towards the apprehension of a perpetrator. The outlined offences are, but not limited to the following offences: Treason[19], Sedition[20]; Public violence[21]; culpable homicide; Rape[22] or compelled rape[23] as contemplated in section 3 and 4 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 2007; assault when a dangerous wound had been inflicted and escaping from lawful custody. There are a few of the offences as outlined in schedule 1, where a private person can either arrest the person or stop the perpetration of such an act.

(b) Whom he reasonably believes to have committed any offence and to be escaping from and to be freshly pursued by a person whom such private person reasonably believes to have authority to arrest that person for that offence;

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[19] Snyman (2008) indicates that a person commits high treason if, owing allegiance to the Republic of South Africa, unlawfully engages in conduct within or outside the Republic, with the intention off overthrowing the government of the Republic; coercing the government by violence into any action or inaction and also changing the constitutional structure of the Republic. See Mayekiso 1988 4 SA 783 (W) 742-750.

[20] This consist of unlawful and intentional taking part in a concourse of people violently or by threats of violence challenging, defying or resisting the authority of the state of the Republic off South Africa or causing such a concourse. The definition is based on the definition of sedition contained in the "Bill to codify the law relating to common-law crimes of high treason, sedition and public violence" drawn up in 1976 by the South African Law Commission (SALC) (RP 17/1976) but which was not submitted to parliament.

[21] It consist of unlawful and intentional commission, together with a number of people, of an act or acts which assume serious dimensions and which are intended forcibly to disturb public peace and tranquillity or to invade the rights of others.

[22] Above indicate that before coming into operation of the present Act (Sexual Offences Amendment Act of 2007) rape was a common law-crime, which consisted in a male having unlawfully and intentional sexual intercourses with a female without her consent. The slight penetration by X of Y was sufficient, and was immaterial whether semen was emitted. Also see Blaauw 1992 SACR 295 (W) 299c.

[23] Compelled rape refers to incidents where a third party coerces two people into having sex. One example would be a housebreaker who forces household residents into having sex with each other. In this instance both parties are treated as victims and the robber is charged with compelled rape (Vetten 2004).

Makhado (2004) reported in a South African daily newspaper about a voluntary informant, a clerk who was travelling with a public transport to Siloam, near Makhado (in Limpopo province), who was listening to radio, while Vhembe Police Captain Ailwei Mushavhanamadi[24] was speaking on Phalaphala FM[25] shortly after 6pm, giving a description of a hijack and murder suspect who had escaped from prison. "She realised that the suspect fitted the description of one of the passengers and immediately phoned the police," Mushavhanamadi said. At Siloam, Oupa Makhoka (30) the suspect caught a taxi but just then the police arrived and the clerk pointed him out in a taxi that was about to leave," he said. When Makhoka saw the police he got out of the taxi and ran away but was later found hiding in a tank of water in the village.

The informant's response informed by the information from the radio is supported by section 42 (1)(b) of the CPA as the clerk believed that the person she saw fitted the description of the suspect as provided by the Captain fitted the suspect who had absconded from police custody.

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[24] Was the former SAPS Vhembe district spokesperson who kept the community informed about crime, contemplated criminal activities; arrest; conviction and acquittal of suspected persons. His commitments and dedication earned him a valuable recognition within the country after obtaining qualifications such as BA Criminal Justice, Honours in Criminal Justice, LLB and Masters of laws. He later joined the University of Venda (UNIVEN) as a Head of Security before he was laid to rest.
[25] Phalaphala FM was born on the 2nd of February 1965 and came into being after a merger between Radio Venda and Radio Thohoyandou in 1998. The two radio stations are of different backgrounds with tone being of Venda Bantustan origin and the other being a SABC public broadcaster. Accessed from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Phalaphala_fm on 4th August 2015.

2.2.5.2. South African Police Act 51 of 1977

The police should endeavour to realise the aims set by section 18 (1) of the South African Police Act (68 of 1995). The researcher discusses in this section selected sub-sections from the above section deemed to be more relevant to shared responsibilities between the police and the community. This section makes provision for SAPS to liaise with the community through community policing forums, area boards and provincial community boards with the view of:

(a) Establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and the police

Oppler (1997) suggests that partnership goes to the heart of what is meant by community safety. Metropolitan Police (1994) states that although this sounds like an advertising jingle, it highlights that no one agency alone can succeed in reducing crime. This is acknowledged by Sir John Smith, who expressed the view that, "any comprehensive strategy to reduce crime must not only include the contribution of the police and the CJS but also the whole range of environmental, social, economic and educational factors which affect the likelihood of crime (Metropolitan Police, 1994)." In this regard, it is the aim of the National Crime-prevention Strategy (NCPS) to establish partnerships between government organisations and to a lesser extent private organisation in addressing crime (NCPS, 1996).

(b) Promoting communication between the service and the community

Schneider (1999) narrating the history of modern policing in North America gives examples of poor communication between police and socially-disadvantaged neighbourhoods. At the very least, poor communication obstructs the effectiveness of policing, and community policing in particular. Schneider further indicates that at the extreme, it can lead to violence and bloodshed. The researcher supports the point made by Schneider (1999) once reports from the media at that time show that members of the community had lost trust in the police making, them to resort to violence and bloodshed.

Communication is a term which simply means that different agencies make a point of sharing information that might be relevant to each other. The Concise Oxford English dictionary (2002) defines the word 'communicate' as 'share or exchange information or ideas'. For example, if the SAPS were going to have a 'Crackdown Operation' in the inner-city, they may merely inform the Members of Parliament (MP) about the date and time that this would be occurring.

Communication is important in any crime-prevention strategy and should not be for the sake of communicating but for the sake of understanding (Roelofse and Manganyi, 2011). Leonard (1980) explains that any communication program should be based on specific institutional procedures which can be described as follows:

❖ All employees involved in police-community relations must have sufficient information about crime problems within a particular area;

❖ All information derived from the external environment should receive the necessary attention in the hierarchy; and

❖ The needs for various race groups for police service should be determined so that communication can be established with each one.

Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) in their study conducted in Vhembe District in Limpopo established that communication is an element for successful implementation of a CPF and must be timeous, comprehensive and direct. The police management must explain the concept of community policing thoroughly to the entire police organisation, the local political leadership, public and private agencies as well as the society at large (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). This study is concerned with the shared responsibilities between the police and the community on crime-prevention and as noted above, the researcher is of the notion that communication is a fundamental part of community policing.

According to Skolnick and Bayley, the words "community" and "communicate" share a common origin: "community-based policing suggests active communication with the public" (Skolnick and Bayley, 1990) while community policing's emphasis on neighbourhood offices, foot patrols, and bike patrols represents an attempt to overcome the real and psychological barriers to communication that the roving and reactive squad car presents (Skolnick and Bayley, 1990).

According to Skogan (1990) notes that when community policing succeeds, it functions in two ways: it opens up informal channels of communication for the flow of information and demands for action from the people to the police, and secondly, it facilitates police action on that basis. Communication is also imperative in engaging citizen support for community policing and mobilising neighbourhoods around crime-prevention (Schneider, 1999). Community crime-prevention is premised on the belief that for neighbourhoods to promote community safety, action must be pursued through a collective effort. Schneider's study entitled "overcoming barriers to communication between police and socially disadvantaged neighborhoods: a critical theory of community policing" reveals that police and community crime-prevention practitioners interviewed assert that communication is pivotal in promoting participation in crime-prevention and community policing programs.

(c) Improving the rendering of services to the community at national, provincial and local levels

The White paper on Safety and Security (WPSS) (1998) assert that legislation affirms the key principles of a single line of direction, responsibility and accountability as well as a single line of command, control and communication within the operational structures of the SAPS. Proper compliance with the legal mandates which give guidelines to the SAPS will ensure good service delivery to communities. The mandated role of provincial government, as outlined in the constitution section 206(3) are:

- To monitor police conduct;

- To oversee the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service, including receiving reports on the police service;

- To promote good relations between the police and the community;

- To assess the effectiveness of visible policing; and

- To liaise with the Cabinet member responsible for policing with respect to crime and policing in the province.

Leonard (1980) defines the service function of the police institution as what the public demands. Service is an unselfish dedication to the needs of the clientele. The service motto "we serve and we protect" is a clear indication of the service function of the police in the society. Devotion to the service ideal requires a constant altruistic awareness of the philosophy of policing. Conflict between personal objectives and public needs, which can damage the sound partnership arrangement in policing, should be avoided at all times.

Wilson and McLaren (1977) point out that it is particularly the police officer on his beat who is in a unique position to build and maintain a healthy relationship with the residents. This does not only assist in the spread of information about the problem of crime among the public, but also gives the public an opportunity of knowing the patrol unit. This enables the community to assist as well as to support them where necessary. An important part of service is the security inspection of business premises, to eliminate crime risks. Giving information and suggestions to the public on ways of protecting themselves and their property should be a high priority with every police institution. The relations established

in the course of serving the public determine the nature of the police image. Furthermore, this creates the ideal platform for the police to obtain information from the public about planned crime and suspected individuals in the community.

(d) **Promoting joint-problem identification and problem-solving**

Stevens and Yatch (1995) are of the opinion that the police will be effective in dealing with crime only if they have the trust and support of their local communities. The police depend on public co-operation, and therefore public perceptions of and confidence in the police determine the extent and nature of the flow of information from the community to the police. Loveday, 1994; Shapland and Vagg, 1998 quoted in Stevens and Yatch (1995) state that the problem-solving approach developed within a wider context of community safety and social crime-prevention is likely to prove most fruitful in terms of crime reduction.

The theory of "top down approach" was followed which was based on the assumption that those who "knew best" gave inputs and made decisions. In traditional policing the police were always reactive because they were used to responding to calls for service and for crimes already committed (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994). Community policing emphasises tackling the underlying causes of crime by addressing problems at grassroots level. To maximise the time that the patrol officer can spend interacting with the community members, community policing encourages the use of the phone number, 10111, only for true emergencies. Community policing alters the contemporary functions of the supervisors and managers.

Under community policing, management serves to guide, rather than dominate the action of patrol officers and ensures that patrol officers have the necessary resources to solve problems in the communities (Ottemeier and Bleck, 1987). Community policing in effect allows community members to bring problems of great concern to the attention of the police. Once informed of the community concerns, the police must work with these citizens to address these concerns while encouraging citizens to assist in solving the problem of concern (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994).

The diagram below illustrates the process of problem-solving which on its own involves the interaction of various stakeholders. Interaction is the result of common concerns about the high rate of crime within communities and the common goal which is the fight against crime. The diagram depicts policing through partnership where mutual understanding is very crucial for its success. Joint-problem identification shows that the police and citizenry are not living in separation; this assist the inclusion of community members in decision-making processes. In this process information exchange is the end product of co-operation, transparency, involvement, just and fair actions and unremitting communication between the police and the community.

The Beaurau of Justice Assistance (1994) considers problem-solving as a broad term that implies more than simply eliminating and preventing crime and disorder. The term is based on the assumption that disorder can be reduced in a small geographical area by studying the characteristics of the problem which may reveal the necessary clue as to how to solve it.

Diagram 2.1. Problem-solving processes through partnership policing
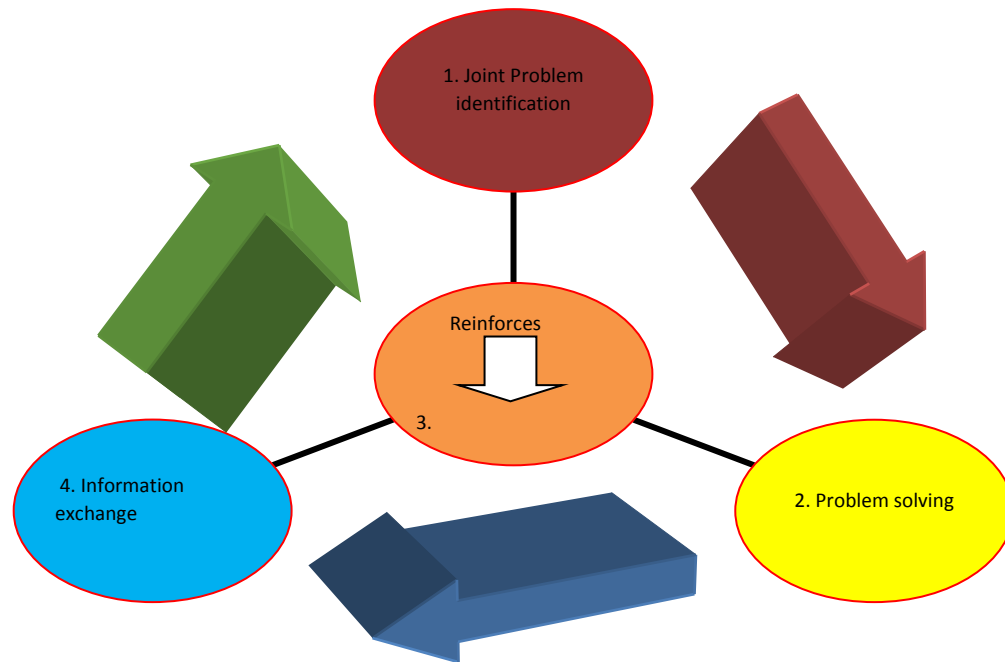
Section 152 (1) (e) of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa provides that the objects of Local Government (LG) amongst others is to encourage the involvement of the communities and community organisations in the matters of local government. The above provision supports the concept that crime-prevention is not the responsibility of the police only, but concerns every citizenry of the Republic as their safety matters. The civilian Secretariat for Police Community Safety Forums states that as a broad structure for integrated local crime-prevention planning, coordination and implementation, Community Safety Forums (CSFs) must involve participants from all three spheres of government, as well as community-based organisations and formations.

2.2.6. DEMOCRATIC POLICING: A CLOSER LOOK ON THE POLICING AND THE LAW

South Africa is one of the countries which promote the rights of every citizenry as Section 2 of the constitution advocates its supremacy. This section offers a discussion on the relevant legal mandates and international obligations which, regulates policing activities within our communities. The Unite Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC) (2011) the mechanisms established by States to protect people's rights, create and maintain order and guarantee stability and security are usually referred to, collectively, as the 'security sector'.[26] An important factor in the security sector is the police, whose functions, as a minimum, are:[27]

- Prevention and detection of crime;

- Maintenance of public order; and

- Provision of assistance to the public

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[26] It is generally agreed that the security sector includes "core security actors (e.g. armed forces, police, border guards, customs and immigration, and intelligence and security services); security management and oversight bodies (e.g. ministries of defence and internal affairs, financial management bodies and public complaints commissions); justice and law enforcement institutions (e.g. the judiciary, prisons, prosecution services, traditional justice systems); and non-statutory security forces (e.g. private security companies, guerrilla armies and private militia)." (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, *OECD DAC Handbook on Security System Reform: Supporting Security and Justice* (Paris, 2007), p.5). Available from www.oecd.org/dataoecd/43/25/38406485. Pdf. A similar definition is given in the report of the Secretary-General on securing peace and development: the role of the United Nations in supporting security sector reform (A/62/659-S/2008/39).

[27] See for example: Council of Europe, Recommendation Rec(2001)10 of the Committee of Ministers to member States on the European Code of Police Ethics, adopted by the Committee of Ministers on 19 September 2001; Cees de Rover, *To Serve and to Protect: Human Rights and Humanitarian Law for Police and Security Forces* (Geneva, Inter– national Committee of the Red Cross, 1998)

In order to carry out these functions, the police have certain powers, namely the power to arrest and detain and the power to use force. It is precisely this monopoly on the use of force and the power to arrest and detain that place the police in a unique and sensitive position within the democratic state, hence that adequate control mechanisms are required to ensure that these powers are consistently used in the public interest. Furthermore, the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime indicates that like any other public service, the police must operate with impartiality.

The above assertion as outlined by the UNODC (2004) is also supported by Steven and Cloete (2006) while indicating that that the SAPS is a national police service and an independent state department. According to the Police Act 58 of 1995 the main functions of the police are to preserve internal security; maintain law and order as well as to preserve it. The Police Act also receives support from section 205 (3) of the supreme law of the Republic, which outline more or less the same function and further that the security of the inhabitants and their property, should be upheld, through law enforcement.

The 1996 Constitution completes SA's constitutional revolution. Currie and de Waal (2005) states that constitutionalism is the idea that government should derive its powers from the written constitution and its powers should be limited to those set out in the constitution. As private person(s) are authorised to effect an arrest in terms of section 42 of the CPA 51 of 1977, the Act on its own does not supersede the constitutional provisions. Section 2 of the Constitution of the Republic considers the constitution as the supreme law of the Republic, which further brought forward the fact that the law or any

conduct in consistent with it is invalid and obligations imposed by it must be fulfilled.[28] Therefore, it should be clearly noted that currently (in SA) there is no legislation or policy which gives powers to members of the communities to assault or murder anyone while effecting an arrest.

Section 8 of the constitution provides that the Bill of Rights has supremacy over all forms of law and that the Bill binds all branches of the states. Carrie and de Waal (2005) indicate that constitutional supremacy would mean little if its provisions were not justifiable. For example, in the case of S v Makwanyane 1995 3 SA 391 CC; the court held that the death penalty would be an inappropriate sentence, because it undermined the right to life. The issue now is "when members of the community arrest, beat up suspects and sometimes kill them are they not aware of the Constitution?

According to Rwelamira in Nel and Bezuidenhout (1997) policing in SA must therefore be viewed in a broader context of a democratic society. Rwelamira further indicates that the process of building a democratic society should encompass an earnest endeavor to abandon the institution of tyranny and to replace them with institutions capable of engendering unity, nation-building and reconciliation.

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[28] See also section 237. All constitutional obligations must be performed diligently and without delay.

De Vos and Freedman (2014) support the call for a change which will be applicable in the current situation in policing when they states that:

> The South African Bill of Rights (SABR) was constructed in a manner which gives effect to the transformation vision of the Constitution which sets out a unique human rights vision. The above authors further indicate that the broad application of the SABR to both the state and private parties, and the range of rights protected in it, establish the Bill as a post-liberal text aimed at facilitating social and economic transformation of SA while protecting the human dignity for all.

Article 5 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that no one shall be subjected to torture or to cruellity, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment. It was reported in the Sowetan of the 27th of February 2015 that ten people are up for the murder of a youth. The alleged suspects beat up the teenager, drowned him and thereafter hanged his body on the tree. The victim belonged to a gang called "*Boko Haram*" in the Dan village around Tzaneen and he was alleged to have shot dead, a local man (Nkhwashu, 2015). In this regard the Constitution of Republic of South Africa, specifically section 12 (c) stipulates that "everyone has the right to freedom and security of person and as such one should be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources".

In the above case, the response of the community to the allegation against the deceased person undermines the supreme law of the Republic and some international obligations which advocates human rights. Section 9 (1) of the Constitution provides that everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and the benefit of law. It should be noted that members of the community should not judge any person, whether such a person was caught red-handed or is suspected of committing crime.

As Section 42 of the Criminal Procedure Act authorises a private person to effect an arrest without warrant if such a person believes, beyond a reasonable doubt, that such a person is suspected to might have taken part in criminal activities, this does not necessitate that members of the community should take the law into their own hands because this often results in victims being perpetrators. Furthermore, Van der Walt, Cronje and Smit quoted in Stevens and Cloete (2006) indicate that a person can only be regarded as a criminal when he or she has transgressed the law, his or guilt has been proven in court and a penalty imposed.

Stevens and Cloete (2006) support Van der Walt's notion while defining a criminal from a juridical perspective, by indicating that a person can only be regarded as a criminal after it has been proven by the state that he or she is guilty of an offense. The current situation in SA where members of the community engages themselves in vigilant acts portrays unconventional policing approach.

Mr. Thomas Moeng of the Diepsloot branch of Mapogo-aMathamaga (February 2001) was quoted in Sekhonyane and Louw (2002) as saying that,

> "We find a friend of the suspect and plead with him to tell us where his friend is or the loot is. If he refuses, we give him a taste of the medicine. After tasting the medicine he will confess. Then we give him more lashes for lying or trying to hide a friend. When we find the friend and he confesses to the crime and hands over the loot, we give him lashes too.

The above quotation provides the *modus operandi* of community members involved in vigilantism in some parts of the country. As this research focuses on the shared responsibilities of the police and the community the following questions arose:

- Is giving suspects a test of "medicine" to make them confess a proper way of showing the shared responsibilities between the police and the community?
- Does the court accept evidence which had been obtained through confession which had been made after the alleged criminal tested the "medicine" indicated above?

Section 34 of the Constitution provides that everyone has the right to have any dispute that can be resolved by the application of law, decided on in a fair public hearing before the court, or any other independent and impartial tribunal. The above provision firmly differs with the above vigilante approach where people are beaten to ensure that they make admissions and confessions.

2.2.6.1. The Rule of Law (RoL), application and implication on community response to crime

The Rule of Law (RoL) is a principle of governance. It is also a fundamental aspect of peacebuilding and related efforts to build effective and credible criminal justice institutions (The United Nations Rule of Law Indicators, 2011). Although the term "rule of law" is widely used and often linked to State-building efforts, there is no single agreed upon definition.

The definition below, articulated by the United Nations Secretary-General in a report to the Security Council in 2004, provides a foundation for concept of the RoL.

> It refers to a principle of governance in which all persons, institutions and entities, public and private, including the State itself, are accountable to laws that are publicly promulgated, equally enforced and independently adjudicated, and which are consistent with international human rights norms and standards. It requires, as well, measures to ensure adherence to the principles of supremacy of law, equality before the law, accountability to the law, fairness in the application of the law, separation of powers, participation in decision-making, legal certainty, avoidance of arbitrariness and procedural and legal transparency.[29]

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[29] Report of the Secretary-General on the Rule of Law and transitional justice in conflict and post-conflict societies (S/2004/616), para. 6.

2.2.6.2. Legal mandates and the admissibility of evidence

Legal mandates provide valuable clarity on how we should respond to a certain problematic situation, such as crime incidents. This section offers a discussion on the legal mandates which should be understood and complied with while community members are effecting their shared responsibilities within their respective communities on crime prevention. The Constitution of the Republic, policies and some other international obligations render a very clear directive on human rights such as the constitution of the Republic of SA Act 108/1996, Police Act 58 of 1995, NCPS of 1996 and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. If scrutinized well, one can find that there is a general non-compliance with the above-mentioned mandates, due to ignorance or lack of information.

Section 9 (1) states that everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit of the law. The community must understand that even if they caught a particular person an unlawful act, they are legally forbidden to take the law into their own hands, considering the supremacy of the constitution of the Republic. Furthermore, section 35 (3) (h) provides that every accused person has the right to be presumed innocent, to remain silent, and not to testify during any proceedings. The above provision contradicts the *modus operandi* applied with suspected persons by the community because, there are instances where suspects were caught, beaten and even killed.

The researcher is of the view that the above outlined modus operandi undermines the Constitutional provision and international obligations. Section 217 (1) states that evidence of any confession made by any person in relation to the commission of any offence shall, if such confession is proved to have been freely and voluntarily made by such person in his sound and sober senses and without having been unduly influenced thereto, be admissible in evidence against such person at criminal proceedings relating to such offence. As have been noted on previous sections, on incidents of public vigilantism, its occurrence may even force alleged criminals to confess involuntarily with the hope that such a confession may save their lives.

In the case of *Mnene V state CA&R159/2006* there was observation of Section 35(5) of the constitution. A vigilante group conducted an unlawful search where they entered the premise of the appellant and the group found the complainant in possession of a stolen article (articles referred to in terms of section 20 of the CPA). The appellant was also assaulted, in court it was held that the evidence was inadmissible because it was obtained in violation of the appellant's fundamental rights to dignity (s10), freedom and security of the person and privacy (12) and its admission would be detrimental to the administration of justice. The complainant and his vigilante group had deliberately chosen to resort to self-help, to unlawful methods of achieving their aims and there was no reason why they could not have involved the police had they wanted to. The conviction of the appellant was set aside. The above decision affirms the supremacy of the law, compliance and its applicability of real logic.

2.7. SUMMARY

The researcher reviewed the literature in community policing, its developmental history and the current situation within policing agencies in order to understand the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The use of inputs from various authorities have been beneficial as it enabled the acquisition of relevant arguments. The discussions above covered the state of unconventional policing in SA and they were supported by various incidents reported in the media. Legislations were also consulted which clarified what is it expected from the communities when responding to crime, as these prevent them from taking the law into their own hands.

The reviewed secondary data assisted him to substantiating the responses of the participants as presented in chapter five and the findings in chapter six. A thorough review of the literature intertwined with the theoretical inputs shed more light by clarifying the shared responsibilities between the police and the society at large. The legal mandates also enabled the researcher to identify the gap between previous research and the current situation on democratic policing in SA. As Creswell (2003) reiterates that literature review shares with the reader the results of other studies that are closely related to the topic under focus. Various studies were consulted which sharpened and deepened our understanding of the current study. Partnership approach to policing was the central focus point as it best justifies how shared responsibilities between the police should look like.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF COMMUNITY POLICING

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented reviewed literature, which included various topical issues related to the study. Literature review empowers the researcher and enables him to obtain the secondary data from the previous research out-put, day to day issues and incidents. This chapter presents the theoretical input and clarifications on the current study phenomenon. A thorough literature review and theoretical explanation intertwined with empirical data will enable the researcher to develop a new theory.

Pelser (1999) states that, for it is here, in the vicious political violence that engulfed the country shortly after the unbanning of the liberation movements in February 1990 that the shape of South Africa's community policing was set. During the first months of 1991, increasing violence was destabilising KwaZulu-Natal and large areas of the Transvaal (now Gauteng), and evidence of police collusion in the violence was mounting (Human Rights Commission, 1993). To address this, the African National Congress (ANC) began to motivate for a peace summit at which a formally binding agreement between themselves, the Inkatha movement and the government (apartheid government) could be struck.

Following long and often bitter negotiations, the ANC, Inkatha and the government signed a National Peace Accord on 14 September 1991. The agreement contained 'general provisions' which included the following:

"The police shall endeavor to protect the people of South Africa from all criminal acts and shall do so in a rigorously non-partisan fashion, regardless of the political belief and affiliation, race, religion, gender or ethnic origin of the perpetrators or victims of such acts ... The police shall be guided by the belief that they are accountable to society in rendering their policing services and shall therefore conduct themselves so as to secure and retain the respect and approval of the public. Through such accountability and friendly, effective and prompt service, the police shall endeavor to obtain the co-operation of the public whose partnership in the task of crime control and prevention is essential ..." (National Peace Accord, 1991).

It is clear from the assertion of the National Peace Accord that partnership in the task of crime control and prevention is essential. Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) supports the above assertion by stating that partnership policing must be seen as co-operative efforts involving all role players to identify, address and solve problems related to crime, service delivery and community police relations. Theories will be discussed in detail in the following section shadowed by a brief point of departure to show its relevancy to the current study and their inter-relationship in explaining the shared responsibilities between the police and the community at large.

3.2. THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE OF COMMUNITY POLICING

According to the Community Policing Consortium Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994) community policing encompasses a variety of philosophical and practical approaches and is still evolving rapidly. Community policing strategies vary, depending on the needs and responses of the community involved. Feltes (2002) stresses that community policing is a new philosophy rather than just a technique of police work. The police and the communities must work hand-in-hand to achieve their common goal, which is the fight against crime.

Another example of working hand-in-hand with police officers is identifying problems in the community and finding solutions to the problems. A new philosophy means a total change in thinking which cannot come from a single institution, but it should come from the police, CPFs and community (Sebola, 2006). The philosophy of community policing is based on the following theories: critical social theory, broken window theory and normative sponsorship theory.

3.2.1. CRITICAL SOCIAL THEORY

Critical social theory means a theory which is capable of taking a critical stance towards itself by recognising its presupposition and its own role in the world. Critical social theory takes a critical stance towards the social reality it investigates, by providing grounds for justification (University of Sussex, 2006). This theory is a practical social science theory that inspires people to become socially active to correct their socio–economic and political circumstances, so that they might have their expressed needs met (Braiden, 1997).

In this regard, if members of the community are not satisfied with the police services, they are able to discuss their issues with the police during CPFs meetings. The goals of this is the improvement of human condition through enlightenment, emancipation and empowerment which strives to improve the human condition. The researcher took a look at each of the above-mentioned conditions which if viewed analytically, it tends to keep the community informed in how to deal with crime issues, current conditions and possible perpetrator related issues.

3.2.1.1. Enlightenment

Enlightenment educates people about their particular problematic situation in order that they may alter the situation and make sure that their needs are satisfactorily met. This is achieved by creating police community workshops to provide skills and create a better relation between the police and the community (Mafomme, 2001). Sigwela (2013) reported in Daily Sun on the article entitled "Know your rights on bed" where warrant officer Thembi Gwe of the Nelson Mandela Bay Police (NMBP) handed out leaflets on members of the community on sex education. The rationale behind this was to educate them of sexual violation by their husbands. The researcher learnt that some members of the community need much information as one of the Motherwell resident told the journalist that "The police did a good job by advising, but I still don't believe that a man can be raped by a woman."

The findings from Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) indicate that there is a forum for reflection, communication and determination of problematic social conditions within the SAPS and the community. The researcher established a very close link between Roelofse and Manganyi findings and the above report by Sigwela. The researcher hold the notion that dissemination of information through educational programmes and workshops is very much imperative in a democratic policing.

Rakgoadi (1995) reasons that the exchange of information between the police and the community is one of the important principles of community policing. For example, police officers can give feedback on the success of various modus operandi, which they might have been taught during workshops. National, provincial and local organisations often use media to educate the public on the extent, nature and prevention of crime. Educational programmes also include workshops; symposia as well as campaigns related to crime problems such as alcohol and drug abuse as well as crime-prevention and self-defence.

There was for example, a certain radio programme at Phalaphala frequency modulation (FM) in which superintendent Ailwei Mushavhanamadi from Thohoyandou policing precinct kept the public informed about crime, criminal activities as well as possible arrests. The programme aimed at giving feedback to the community about possible arrests, perpetrators charged, progress of the investigations, prosecutions and convictions as well as sentences imposed on convicted offenders.

The theory of community policing is based on the belief that the regular exchange of information between residents and the law enforcement personnel is required for effective policing (Moras, 1997). Mafomme (2001) adds that police education should include development of multiple skills to improve the system and to increase the knowledge of the police about changes in South African policing system. The researcher is of the view that such can be done through campaigns, community outreach and through the use of media

3.2.1.2. Emancipation

Emancipation is liberation resulting from social action. This is achieved through discursive action where the force of the best has the right to change a given situation (Boudreau, 1997). According to the US Department of Justice (1999) discussions and analysis of previous controversies between the police and the minorities have revealed a general need, for better community understanding of the "nuts and bolts" of the police department's mission and responsibilities. Community organisations can contribute to better police-community relations by educating their constituencies about the difficulties confronting officers on the streets.

According to community members, CPF provides residents with the opportunity to learn about local law enforcement, while providing community input to the departments about law enforcement issues that exist in their neighbourhood (Roelofse and Manganyi, 2011). The sustainability of the CPFs does not only depend on monetary assistance, but also on skills which will enhance the functioning of the forums.

Some of these skills once acquired will enable the CPFs to sustain them and be able to raise funds on their own (Rakgoadi, 1995). There are two kinds of skills that are essential for the proper running of the CPFs. First, CPFs require skills such as conflict management, conflict resolution, organising, mediation, facilitation as well as networking. These skills are necessary in areas experiencing relationship problems between the police and the communities as well as places where the level of community participation in the CPFs is very low or non-existent. The community as a whole can rationally and freely determine the direction of their own lives by changing and improving their own situation. The manner in which people organise themselves in the fight against crime, simply supports this theory. Usually, people form groups or subgroups with the aim of reducing crime within their respective areas and as a result of such common goal, they remain united.

Boudreau (1997) indicates that emancipation is liberation resulting from social action which is achieved through discursive action. If one tends to view issue of community policing circumspectly, one realises that, if police officers could associate themselves with the community they could change the communities' attitude towards the fight against crime.

3.2.1.3. Empowerment

CPF's to be sustainable, empowerment refers to the creation of joint responsibility and capacity for addressing crime, creating a sense of joint ownership of crime problems, service delivery problems and safety and security amongst members of the community and the police. It also refers to the process by which people organize, attain collective goals and learn about their own personal power. This has the advantage of educating members of the community about the vision and goals of the CPFs.

Diamond and Weiss (2009) provides that community policing envisions the empowerment of officers. They further indicate that it is a process wherein officers are given the opportunity to take an independent action to solve problems, work with members of the community and strive to improve social ecology of the neighbourhoods. Empowerment enables members of the community to play a meaningful role through their participation in community activities against crime. Empowerment is regarded as a practical force which is meant to take action thereby improving social conditions (Fay, 1984).

Most of the community members will get an opportunity to voice their concerns and to address their questions to the relevant people (SAPS, 2006). The partnership between the police and other organisations enables members of the community to voice out their concerns to the police. This can take place through community involvement in various organisations such as South African National Civic Association (SANCO), Business Against Crime South Africa (BACSA) and CPFs. The integrated initiatives from these organisation means that they are able to share their concerns and come up with the

solution to those problems. Empowerment is the process by which people organise, attain a collective objective and learn about their own personal power (Heskin, 1991).

An empowered community is structured in such a way that it provides members of the community with the opportunity to participate in community activities and to be responsible for the community. Community policing must be a fully integrated approach that involves all police officials and employees regardless of their specific functional responsibilities. Community policing requires drastic changes and new mind set at all levels of the police organisation.

According to Palmiotto (1998) empowerment begins with the community organisations and groups that take an activist role with common purpose. One way that the community can become more empowered is periodically reappraising their current activities to determine if they are still relevant and effective. The police executive and top command should empower those at the bottom to make more decisions and to develop more innovative solutions. The police executive should ensure that the rules and regulations manuals contain enough discretion to allow the rank and file to experiment the risk. Obviously, if liaison officers are given an opportunity to address the community about a particular problem, they might be taking risks depending on the situation.

According to Kanter (1983) one must understand that empowerment is critical in sustaining long term organisational goal. Organisations that are change-orientated will have a large number of integrative mechanisms encouraging fluidity of boundaries and the free flow of ideas as well as the empowerment of the society at large to act on new information (Palmiotto, 2000). The whole idea of CPFs is to create a free exchange of information between the police and communities. It needs to break down the boundaries of "us and them".

3.2.2. BROKEN WINDOW THEORY

Kappeler and Gaines (2001) cites how the notion of broken window has provided important insights and innovation to field of policing. The above authors further indicate that at times, however, these ideas have been misunderstood, misapplied and often viewed outside the context of community policing.

> Broken window is based on the idea that signs of incivility, like broken windows, signify nobody cares, which leads to greater fear of crime and a reduction of community efficacy, which in turn leads to more serious crimes and greater signs of incivility, repeating the cycle and causing a potential spiral of decay.

Adam Graycar the director of Australian Institute of Criminology stressed that the idea of zero tolerance[30] policing is based on ideas developed by two criminologists in the United

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[30] Zero tolerance as explained by McArdle and Ezren (2001) as one of the aggressive programmes applied in the New York City, which enabled police officers to lower their tolerance and enforced many minor infractions that historically were ignored by the police.

States, James Q. Wilson and George Kelling who, in 1982, published a seminal article entitled "Broken Windows" in the Atlantic Monthly magazine (Wilson and Kelling 1982). They argued that an ambience of unrestrained petty crime creates the impression that "no one is in control" and that more serious crime can be committed with impunity. In other words, unchecked disorder and incivility in a given locality send an implicit invitation to more predatory criminals. The above assertion does not single out the researcher area, as it is occupied by most of the municipal abandoned structures, which are occupied by whosoever wishes so. As a result there is a lot of illegal activities taking place in such places which range from truancy to prostitution.

The above-mentioned proponents of broken window theory together with the principles of Sir Robert Peel Wilson had considerable influence on law enforcement approach and thinking. Practically speaking, one can observe that if someone breaks a window in a building and it is not quickly repaired others will break more windows (Sebola, 2006). This simply means that the police must take care of minor offences before it turns to violent crimes. Police officers must consult with members of the community frequently in order to make sure that there is joint-problem identification and exchange of information. This will help the police to curb crimes from its disposition because what could be regarded as serious offences by the community might not be regarded as such by the police due to their knowledge and experience in dealing with such incidents.

Wilson and Kelling in Siegel (2003) stress that "they asked police administrators to get their officers out of depersonalising patrol cars". Instead of deploying police on the basis of crime rate or in the areas where citizens make most calls for help, police administrators should station officers where they can do most to promote public confidence and elicit citizen's co-operation.

To achieve public confidence and the elicitation of community participation on the shared responsibilities, needs police officers to reconsider their actions. Co-operation is still a challenging matter within most of the police agencies, which in turn tarnishes the relationship between the police and the community and makes it difficult for the police to obtain information about crime. For example,

> On the 27th August 2013 it was reported in the local newspaper (Daily Sun) in the article "residents heard that a woman's body had been found with her eyes gouged out and her lips cut off. The above incident was followed by protest, where community members were holding placards reading "who is going to protect us while the police can't even protect us", *phansi nga mapolice*". Furthermore, on the 27th of August 2013 it was reported in the local newspaper (Daily Sun) on the article "they rescued him from the mob-then filmed him 'to put on Facebook'.

The above two incidents can make it difficult for police officers to win public and co-operation rather promote more violent crimes and public vigilantism. Van Heerden (1986) held that the contention that the public's latent willingness to help is often not translated into actual help because of objections to the way in which the police role is fulfilled. The

objections not only discourage the public from helping the police but also create a gulf between the police and the public.

The following is a list of complaints and accusations against the police behaviour:

They are brusque, apathetic, insensitive, hostile, incompetent and racialist

- Are not available when their services are needed;

- Do not respond promptly to emergency calls;

- Violate the constitutional rights of individuals;

- Show no regard for human dignity;

- Are unsympathetic about community needs; and

- Do not always set a good example in terms of their own obedience to the laws of the land (Van Heerden, 1986).

The above incident's and accusations shed more light on the shared role and responsibilities between the police and the community on crime-prevention as they both depend on each other for their normal functioning. Furthermore, Donovan and Walsh (1989) stressed that the public complaints about corruption meanwhile community members are the ones who attempt to bribe the police. But regarding this matter, in most of the cases where the public attempts to bribe the police it can be inferred from community awareness, on the existence of corrupt activities; and that officers accept those bribes.

The critical point outlined by the proponents of this theory is based on the "zero tolerance" which it is not targeted to any single individuals but preventing any criminal or contemplated criminal activities by whosoever attempts to or tends to.

3.2.2.1. Legislative and policy support to broken window theory

Section 205(3) of the Constitution of Republic of South Africa provides that the object of the police service is 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. From the above section, much emphasis should be based on the idea of "zero tolerance" which depends much on reactive policing rather than pro-active policing approach. The above provision extracted from the constitution is also supported with the provisions of the Criminal Procedure Act 51of 1977 and the Police Act 68 of 1995. Section 42 of the Criminal Procedure Act which confers powers to a private person to effect arrest supported very well the notion of broken window theory, and also the shared responsibilities between the police and the community on their common goal.

Section 42 (1) provide that any person who commits or attempts to commit in his presence or whom he reasonably suspects of having committed a First Schedule offence the private person may pursue that person, and any other person to whom the purpose of the pursuit has been made known may join and assist therein. Furthermore, sub-section 2 provides that any person who he reasonably believes to have committed any offence and to be escaping from and to be hotly pursued by a person whom such a private person reasonable to have authority to arrest that that person for the offence. The above

provision support the thoughts provided by various authors such as Kappeler and Gaines 2001; Adam Graycar, 1999; Wilson and Kelling 1982 and Sebola, 2006. Sub-section 3 gives powers to a private person to effect an arrest to a person of characteristics mentioned above without a search warrant.

As noted from the Peelian principles "that the police are the public and the public are the police" it gives a diverse interpretation on the role played by both the police and the community in minimizing the risk of crime within their respective communities. It should be understood that police officials are just governmental officials who are also affected by the occurrence of crime who needs assistance from the community to can jointly identify crime risks and come up with preventive measures to can objectively achieve the zero tolerance approach.

It should be considered as supported by Grabosky (1999) that not all physical indicia of disorder are the product of criminal conduct. Dilapidated buildings and general disrepair may result from neglect rather than from vandalism. Regardless of the cause, police may not be in a position to repair or restore damaged property. Local authorities such as local municipalities, Churches, schools, business sector, housing commissions, neighborhood residents, and many more may be more responsive to social control.

Wilson and Kelling conclude as follows, "Just as physicians now recognize the importance of fostering health than simply treating illness, in the same way the police and the community ought to recognize the importance of maintaining intact communities without broken windows" (Siegel, 2003). Since crime is a socials problem, the researcher can figuratively link it to any social problem which need a social response or the involvement of other stake holders to control such problems.

Wilson and Kelling in the broken window theory stressed that if someone breaks the window and it is not quickly repaired others will break more. It is clear that broken window theory supports police community collaborations. Rinehart and Laszle (2001) outline the components of effective collaboration as follows:

- Expertise
- Shared vision and common goals
- Open communication
- Motivated partners
- Action plan

If the notion that police efficiency depends on arrest can diminish, and proactive approach be promoted peace and harmony can be easily achieved within the communities. A more critical proposition was inferred by Roelofse and Manganyi (2011) who posited that the perception that criminals can commit crime and run away without being caught can diminish if the community gets involved and reports the crimes to the police.

Goodenough (2009) indicated that she was inspired by the "broken window theory" which drastically reduced the crime rate in New York under the mayor ship of Rudy Giuliani. It was indicated that ten people were arrested for illegal car washing. Even though it was said that it was not necessary for people to be finger printed for petty offences, Rudy insisted that those people should be finger printed. This led to the arrest of wanted criminals who were responsible for rape and murder. Zero tolerance, where offenders are arrested for minor offences and create the opportunity to search and fingerprint these individuals leading to the discovery of other crimes.

Diagram 3.1. Clarification of the broken window concept

Broken Window theory

1. Disoreder is noticed by community members

2. Citizens becomes fearful and withdraw from the community

3. Informal social control decreases or is perceived to be low by crimainals

4. Disorder and crime increases as criminals increase their activities in the area
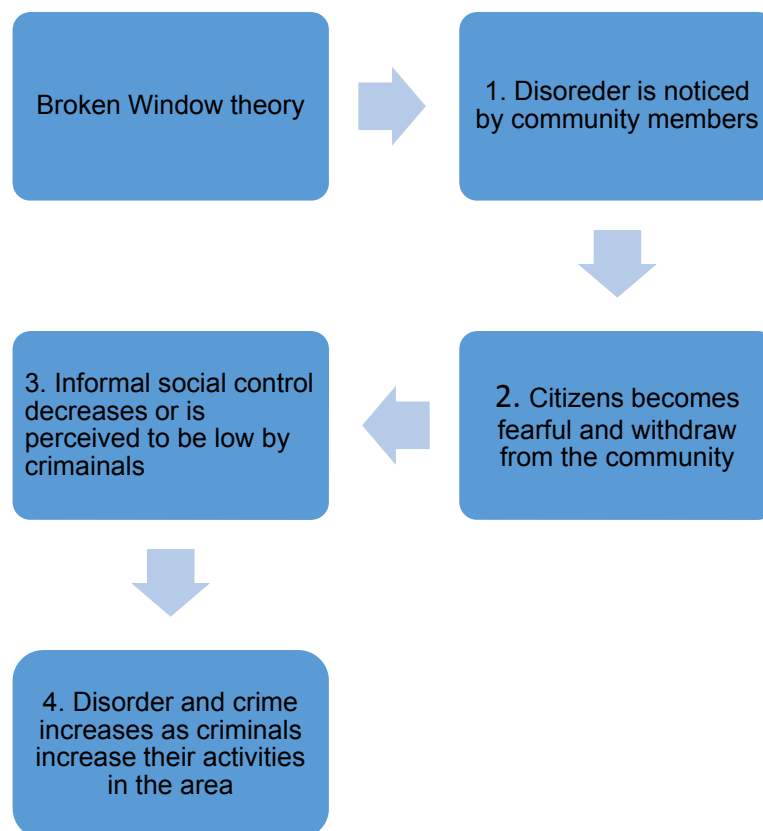
The researcher views the above depiction as a true intellect of this theory. The moment community members notices disorder within their respective communities and they do not respond to such more crimes are going to be committed. Through a thorough literature review, the researcher had also noted that broken window theory had been used interchangeably with zero tolerance policing approach. Grabosky (1999) indicates that the term "zero tolerance policing" is ambiguous. To some, it connotes comprehensive, aggressive law enforcement with "no holds barred". To others, it refers to a policing strategy which exists as part of a package of carefully designed approaches to combat the crime problems of a specific locality.

The researcher hold more or less the same notion with that of Grobosky intertwined with the clarification shown on the above diagram. The researcher is of the view that when citizens becomes fearful and withdraw from the community crime and disorder may increase within a certain geographic setting.

The study of Hinkle (2009) entitled "Making sense of Broken window: the relationship between perceptions of disorder, fear of crime, collective efficacy and perceptions of crime" exhibited that Kelling and Wilson ideas on broken window theory were greatly influenced by a social psychological experiment conducted by Stanford psychologist Philip Zimbardo in 1969. Zimbardo abandoned a car with its hood up in two places, the Bronx in New York City and on the Stanford Campus in Palo Alto, California. The car in the Bronx was vandalized within 10 minutes, and within 24 hours everything of value was removed. The car in Palo Alto, however, was not touched for more than a week.

Zimbardo then smashed the windshield with a sledgehammer, and from that point on people passing by and saw the activity and the damaged car and joined in the destruction. Apart from the above experimentation it can be deduced that if a minor offense is committed and not responded to serious crimes cam be committed.

The researcher's continuous clarification of this concept seeks to elucidate the imperativeness of carefully designing strategies which makes it difficult for perpetrating or attempting to commit crime. This theory has a relatively link with shared responsibilities in the sense that community members can assist police officers in detecting, deterring and reporting any criminal activity. The idea that crime should be prevented before it occurs is best supported by community policing because that is where the police and the entire community work hand in glove to solve crime issues.

It can be hardly differed that the police depend on the community in resolving most of the offences and there are some of the offences that perpetrators can go away without the knowledge of the police, such as domestic violence since most of them occur within the home environment. The following section discusses normative sponsorship theory which is concerned with community willingness to partake in crime-prevention initiatives.

3.2.3. Normative sponsorship theory

Normative sponsorship theory declares that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957). It proposes that a community effort will only be sponsored if it is normative to all persons and interested groups involved. The people who are in the best position to reduce crime and create a climate or opportunities for crime are not police but ordinary people. The more various groups share common values, beliefs and goals, the more these groups will agree on common goals when they interact for the purpose of neighbourhood wellness (Braiden, 1997).

Kelling and Coles (1996) stress that the police should at all times preserve a healthy relationship with the public. In critical social theory it was stressed that the police should educate the public about problematic situations. Mafomme (2003) supported this by adding that community workshops should be initiated which aims at providing skills to the community and create a better relation between the police and the public. In normative sponsorship theory, it is stressed that people who are in the best position to reduce or prevent crime are members of the community. This is based on the assumption that crime is committed within a community on a daily basis, where members of the community become direct or indirect victims of crime. Communities are where crime happens; communities are where crime should be combated in a partnership between the community and the police. This simply means that communities' involvement in policing matters can reduce the high rate of crime problems within respective communities.

The more members of the community share a common goal with the police, the more they are likely to agree on issues about their common goal when they interact. For example, members of the community are likely to conform and accept means of achieving their goals (Stevens and Cloete, 2006).

This will ensure that the community will no longer take the law into their own hands, since they will be well informed on how to police themselves. Failure of the police to win public trust as well as to maintain partnership can lead the community to innovative practices where they will reject the appropriate means to maintain order and come up with their own alternatives.

3.3. Summary

This chapter comprised literature and theoretical perspectives. According to the Community Policing Consortium Bureau of Justice Assistance (1994) community policing encompasses a variety of philosophical and practical approaches and is still evolving rapidly. Various theories have been presented in this chapter to give a thorough interpretation of community policing. It has been postulated in the broken window theory that if a window is broken and takes long for it to be fixed, criminals will realise that the owner does not care and they will continue breaking more windows. This is what happens in some communities when immediate actions are not taken against crime. The community should also be empowered on how best to deal with the problem of crime within their respective areas.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the theoretical inputs of community policing with special focus on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. Theories are explanations of a natural or social behaviour, event, or phenomenon. More formally, a scientific theory is a system of constructs (concepts) and propositions (relationships between those constructs) that collectively presents a logical, systematic, and coherent explanation of a phenomenon of interest within some assumptions and boundary conditions (Bacharach, 1989). The applied theories had contributed in clarifying the concept of community policing in a more diversified manner.

In this chapter, the researcher presents the methodological approach applied for the purpose of this study this includes, but not limited to the following: type of the methodology used, research design, geographical setting of the research area, study population, sampling and its methods, data collection and instruments, data presentation and data analysis. Research, according to the Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (1973), is an investigation directed to the discovery of some facts by careful study of a subject; a case of critical, or scientific inquiry. It is apposite, therefore that the researcher begins the study by explaining the research strategy and methodology as discussed below.

4.2. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Babbie and Mouton (2001), a research methodology, refers to the various methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing a research project. Every piece of social research therefore demands a clear set of steps in order to achieve its objectives. The researcher opted to use exploratory study for the purpose of this project which was guided by the rationale to explore the manner in which the police and the community understand their shared responsibilities on the prevention of crime.

Zainal (2007) notes that there are several categories of case study. According to Yin cited in Zainal (2007) there are three categories, namely, exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies. First, exploratory case study sets out to explore any phenomenon which serves as a point of interest to the researcher. For instance, a researcher may conduct an exploratory case study about the involvement of the community in policing. Questions that can be asked include: Does the police consider community member during decision-making processes? In seeking an answer to this question influenced him to opt for an exploratory case study. The citation below indicates case studies value in research:

> Some argue that because a case study is such a narrow field that its results cannot be extrapolated to fit an entire question and that they show only one narrow example. On the other hand, it is argued that a case study provides more realistic responses than a purely statistical survey. The truth probably lies between the two and it is probably best to try and synergize the two approaches. It is

valid to conduct case studies but they should be tied in with more general statistical processes (Shuttleworth, 2016)[31]

Qualitative case study is an approach to research that facilitates exploration of a phenomenon within its context, using a variety of data sources. This ensures that the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood. There are two key approaches that guide case study methodology' one proposed by Robert Stake (1995) and the second by Robert Yin (2003, 2006). Both approaches seek to ensure that the topic of interest is well explored, and that the essence of the phenomenon is revealed. The researcher was guided by the above assertion, as his rationale for conducting this study was to explore the shared responsibilities between the police and the community in Alice.

Stake (1995) and Yin (2003) base their approach to case study on a constructivist paradigm. Constructivists claim that truth is relative and that it is dependent on one's perspective. This paradigm recognizes the importance of the subjective human creation of meaning, but doesn't reject outright some notion of objectivity. Pluralism, not relativism, is stressed with focus on the circular dynamic tension of subject and object (Crabtree and Miller, 1999). Constructivism is built upon the premise of a social construction of reality (Searle, 1995). One of the advantages of this approach is the close collaboration between

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[31] Available at: https://explorable.com/case-study-research-design Accessed on 8 March 2016

the researcher and the participant, to enable participants to tell their stories (Crabtree and Miller, 1999). The researcher deemed constructivist paradigm as a relevant approaches in this study as participants were allowed to partake in the study through the provision of their train of thoughts on distinct topical issues which emanated from the main study phenomenon. The researcher discusses the methodological approach followed in this study in the sections below.

4.2.1. Research design

According to Burns and Grove (1997), the design of a study is the end result of a series of decisions made by the researcher concerning how the study will be conducted. The design is closely associated with the framework of the study and guides planning for implementing the study. It is a blueprint for conducting the study that maximises control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the findings. According to Polit and Hungler (1995), research designs vary with regard to how much structure the researcher imposes on the research situation and how much flexibility is allowed once the study is under way. The researcher used triangulation design in this study which enabled him to use both quantitative and qualitative research approach and methodologies.

4.2.2. Triangulation

Triangulation is broadly defined by Denzin (1978) as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon." The triangulation metaphor is from navigation and military strategy that use multiple reference points to locate an object's exact position (Smith, 1975). According to De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2002), the concept of triangulation is sometimes used to designate a conscious combination of qualitative and quantitative methodology. The above authors also cite Mouton and Marais (1990), who argue that the term 'triangulation' refers mainly to the use of multiple methods of data collection with a view to increasing the reliability of observation, and not specifically to the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The researcher triangulated methodologies, theories and also data collection methods as outlined in chapter one, three, and the current chapter.

Babbie and Mouton (2001) cite Denzin who explains the advantage of triangulation as follows:

- By combining methods and investigators in the same study, observers can partially overcome the deficiencies that flow from one investigator or method.
- Another advantage of designing multi-method research lies in the potential for enhancement of the validity of the study findings.

According to Polit and Hungler (1999), a researcher can be more confident about the validity of the findings when they are supported by multiple and complementary types of data. For the purpose of this study, triangulation refers to the use of both qualitative and quantitative approaches and data triangulation from the use of multiple data sources in a study. A qualitative approach was used in Phase A of the study where the researcher interviewed small samples from both the police ten (10) and the CPF ten (10). In Phase A, data were also obtained through observation, reviewing of literature and relevant theories to validate the responses from the participants.

Quantitative approach was used in Phase B of the study, where the researcher had purposefully self-administered one hundred (100) questionnaires to available members of the community. The rationale behind the use of multiple sources is to ensure that validity is clearly met so that one can rely on the research outcomes, which additionally was pre and post-tested.

Figure 4.1. The applied triangulation research methodologies

Triangulation methods	
Qualitative research	Quantitative

Exploratory Case study	
Non-probability sampling	Probabilty sampling

Data collection	
Documentary studies Interviews observation	Questionnaire
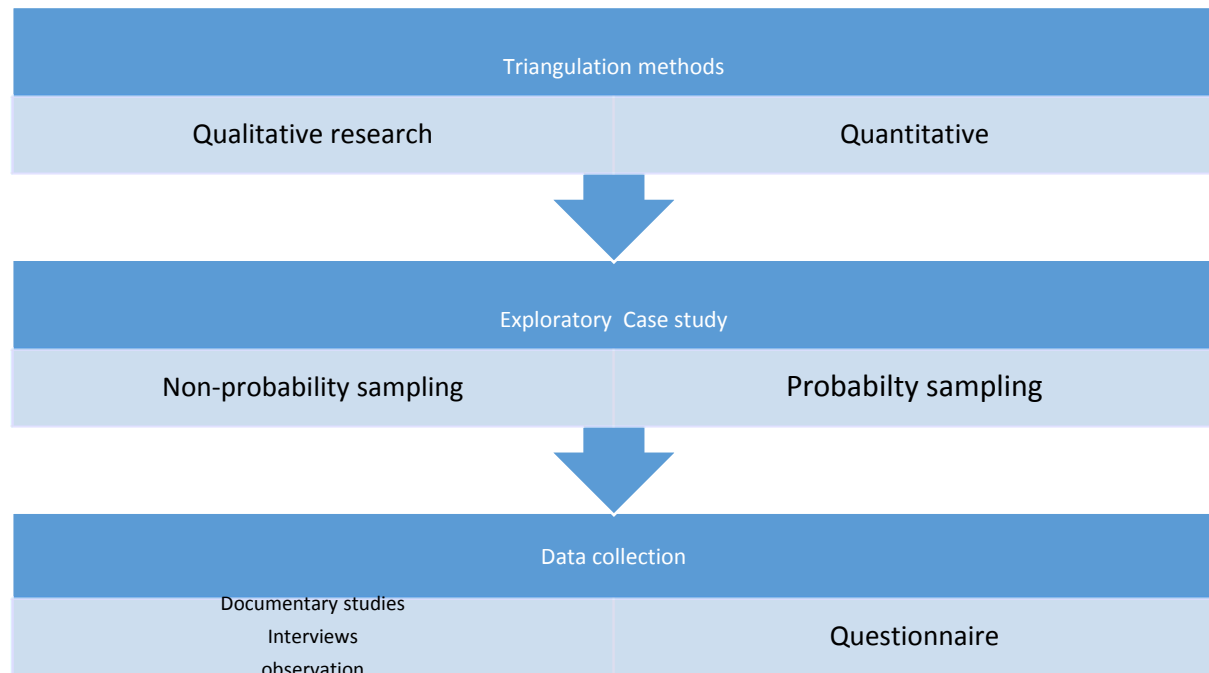
Figure 4.1 above is supported by Polit and Hungler (1999), when they state that the purpose of triangulation is to provide a basis for convergence on the truth. They further note that "by using multiple methods and perspectives, researchers strive to sort out 'true' information from 'error' information". The researcher used multiple methods in order to fill the gap left behind by the other method. For example, an "error" that can be obtained or identified in qualitative data presentation can be verified through quantitative data presented thereafter. Wrong transliterating during presentation of qualitative data can also be rectified with quantitative data since this type of information has pre-set of responses which ensure homogeneousness.

4.2.3. Geographic Setting of the research area.

According to the report issued by National Treasury (2010) Alice falls under the Nkonkobe Municipality in the Eastern Cape Province. The Nkonkobe Municipality is the second largest Municipality in the Amathole District, covering an area of some 3 725 km2 with a population density of 43 people per square kilometer with Alice as the second largest town in the Municipal area. Alice is a service centre and a university town nestled in the Tyume Valley, at the foothills of the Amatola Mountains, at the confluence of the Gaga and Tyume Rivers.

The researcher conducted this research in the rural setting served by the Alice policing precinct, with a number of small settlements established on the outskirts. Which are heavily reliant on Alice as a service centre. The following image provides an overview of various areas where the researcher undertook his research.

Figure 4.2 Geographical setting
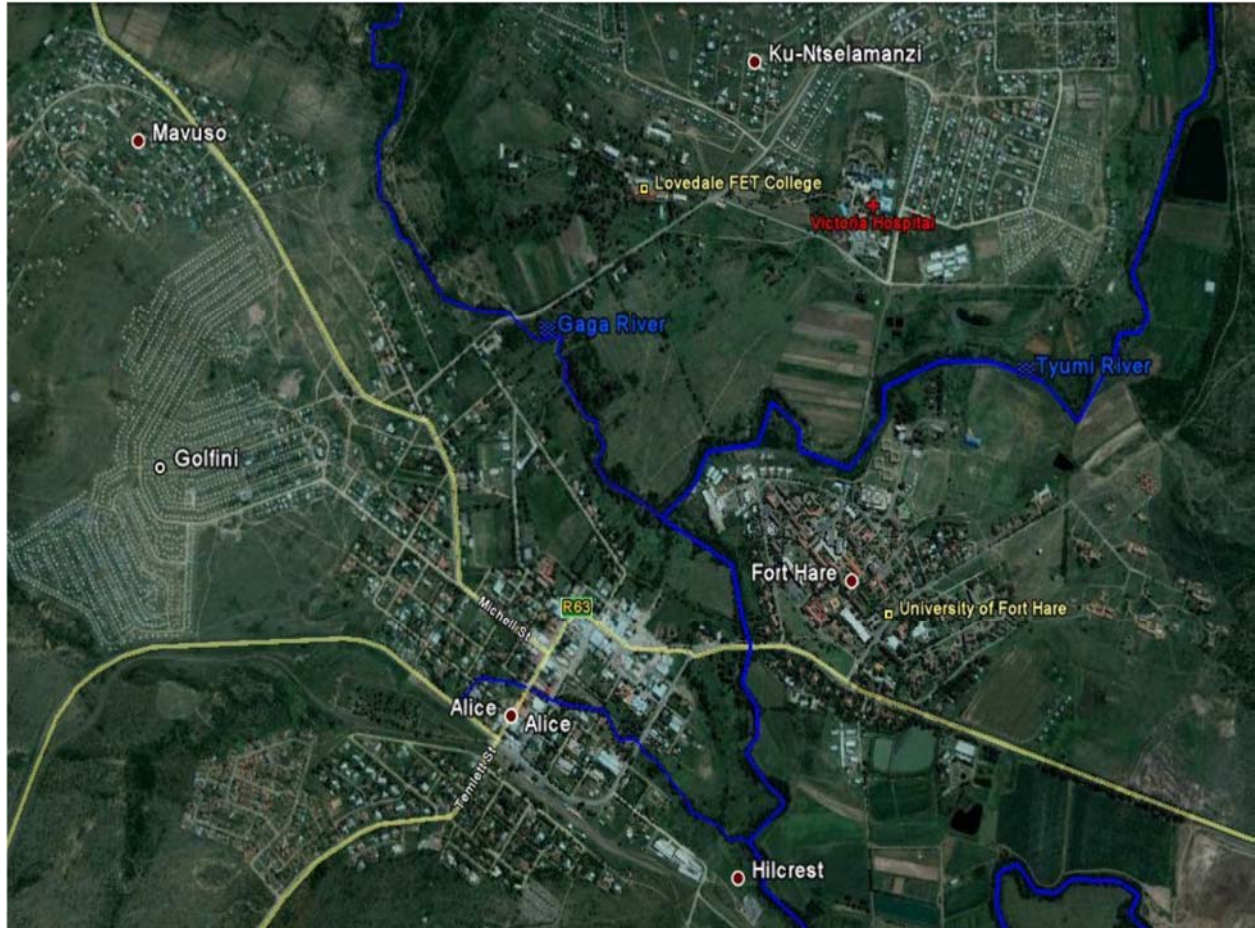
Obtained from the report prepared by National Treasury in October 2010.

4.2.4. Study population

A population is the total group of subjects that meet a designated set of criteria. Polit and Hungler (1999) distinguish between the 'target population' and the 'accessible population'. The target population includes all the cases about which the researcher would like to make generalisations on.

The researcher's accessible population includes members of the SAPS within the Alice cluster, CPF members from selected communities within the said cluster and members of the public at large' which include matured individuals of any level. The participants from all three (3) clusters amounted to hundred and twenty (120) which the researcher considered a satisfactory number to ensure validity and reliability.

4.2.5. Sampling

According to Wilson (1993) sampling is the process of selecting observations, elements or individuals to be studied. A sample is drawn from the larger population about which the researcher wishes to make conclusions or generalisations. A sample is drawn and studied because it is more feasible and much less expensive than studying the entire population. Maxfield and Babbie (1995) define sampling as a method of selecting some part of a group to represent the entire population. Every stage of research necessitates some kind of sampling (Peil, 1981). Sampling means taking any portion of a population or universe as a representative of that population (De Vos, 2009). There are two known sampling methods which are, probability and non-probability sampling.

The researcher had specifically intended to use non-probability sampling in this study even though at some other point during the data collection, the researcher was forced by the nature of the study to combine both non-probability and probability sampling methods as discussed in the hereunder.

4.2.5.1. Non probability sampling

Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006) relate non-probability sampling to a case where the probability of including each element of the population in a sample is unknown. Gravetter and Forzano (2003) and Salkind (2000) support the above definition by stating that in non-probability sampling the odds of selecting a particular individual are not known because the researcher does not know the population size or members of the population. Unrau, Gabor and Grinnell (2007) add that in non-probability sampling each unit in a sampling frame does not have an equal opportunity of being selected for a particular study. Non-probability sampling comprises accidental sampling, purposive sampling, snowball sampling, spatial sampling and quota sampling (Boudreau, 1997).

The researcher used purposive sampling as one of the non-probability sampling methods and stratified sampling from probability sampling to ensure that clusters mentioned in Figure 4.2 below are all embraced. In this regard the researcher sampled, interviewed and self-administered the questionnaires to the willing and available participants, in order to let them share their train of thoughts on the shared responsibilities between the police and the society at large, See annexure B and C.

4.2.5.2 Purposive sampling

Denzin (1978) maintains that purposive sampling represents a group of different non-probability sampling techniques. Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006) indicate that this method is based on the judgement of the researcher regarding the characteristics of a representative. The researcher purposively ensured that respondents from various levels such as business sector, schools, local government and ordinary members of the society were included in the study. The researcher did not specifically request as to what kind of employment participant had, but he definitely asked a question on their employment status. The rationale behind that was to ensure that people from different spheres within the community were included and that their input receive proper attention for the study outcomes to be considered valid and reliable.

Rubin and Babbie (2005) explain that purposive sampling technique is also called 'judgemental sampling'. The above assertion is also supported by Grinnell and Unrau (2008) while stating that sampling is composed of elements that contain the most characteristics representative or typical attributes of the population that serve the purpose of the study best. The researcher considered willing participants, who were available and were ready to partake on the study.

4.2.5.3. Stratified Sampling

Stratified sampling is suitable for a heterogeneous population because the inclusion of small subgroups can be ensured. Stratification consists of the universe being divided into a number of strata that are homogeneous with regard to characteristics (Van der Walt, Cronje and Smith, Patton, 2002 and Bailey, 1994). The researcher ensured that the participants who are homogenous with regard to some characteristics, were grouped together as it is also noted by the authors above. The categorisation of participants is shown in Figure 4.3 below.

This type of sampling is mainly used to ensure that different segments or groups of a population acquire sufficient representation in the sample. The desired number of persons is then selected proportionally within each of the different strata. This means drawing the sample according to the number of persons in the stratum hence a larger sample from the larger strata and a small sample from smaller strata (De Vos, 2009).

4.3. SELECTION OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS

The target population comprised SAPS members, CPF members and the community at large. The accessible population from the above distinct clusters were as follows:

Figure 4.3. Participants per cluster
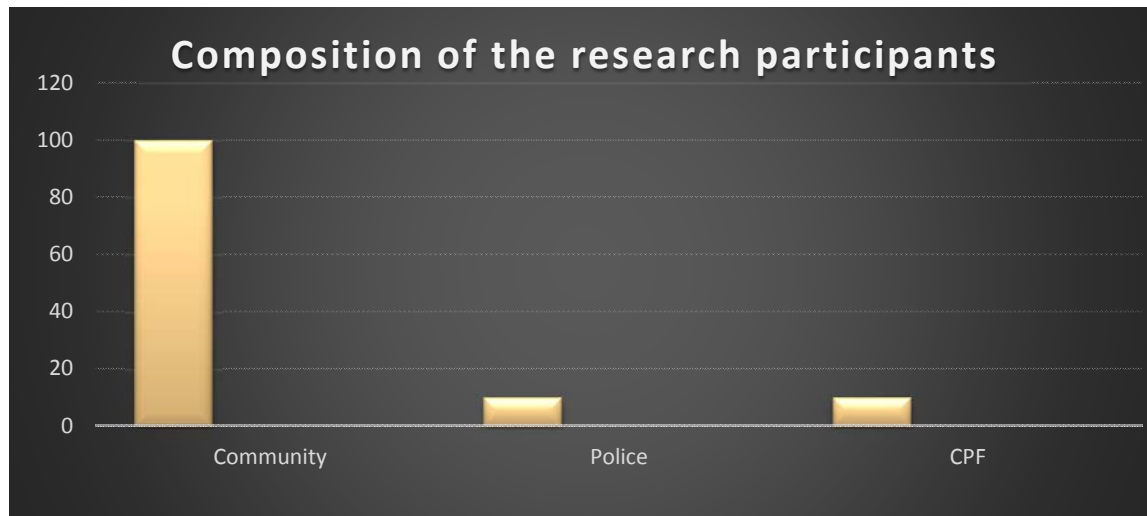
The researcher's accessible population includes ten (10) members of the SAPS within the Alice cluster, ten (10) CPF members from selected communities within the said cluster and one hundred (100) members of the public at large which include matured individuals of any background. The participants from all three (3) constellations amounted to one hundred and twenty (120) which the researcher deem satisfactorily to ensure validity and reliability.

4.4. DATA COLLECTION AND INSTRUMENT

Data collection method refers to the systematic approach to data collection (Patton, 2002). According to Labovitz (1971) one has to consider which data collection method is the most appropriate in the particular universe in question. The researcher used various methods such as interviews, documentary studies and questionnaires as discussed below.

4.4.1. Documentary studies

The researcher made use of diverse valuable sources of informative records, books, newspapers, online journals and articles, legislations, and archives which constituted particular rich source of information about many organisations and programs on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. In contemporary society, all kinds of entities have a trail of paper, a kind of 'spoor' that can be mined as part of the fieldwork (Strydom and Venter, 2002). For example, families keep photographs, letters, sentimental objects; people who commit suicide leave behind suicide notes; gangs inscribe public places with graffiti; organisations produce records; service providers keep client files. Indeed and often, an intriguing form of analysis involves comparing official statements found in public documents with private memoranda and with what an observer actually hears or sees (Kruger, 2001).

Mouton (1996) suggests that at the very beginning of a study, access to important documents and records should be negotiated. The ideal situation would be to have access to all routine records, correspondence, financial and budget records, organisational rules, regulations, memoranda and any other official and unofficial documents generated by or for the program.

Document review can be valuable in guiding the researcher in what needs to be pursued further in direct observation and interviewing. Confidentiality must be respected, as with all information to which a researcher has access. The extent to which actual references to and quotations from, records and documents are included in the final reports depend on whether the documents are considered part of a public record and therefore able to be publicised without breach of confidentiality. Smit (1995) states that in some cases, with permission and proper safeguards to protect confidentiality, some information from private documents can be quoted directly and cited as has been done throughout the entire study.

Advantages of a documentary study

- ❖ Documentary sources are easy to come by;
- ❖ It is a cheap research technique; and
- ❖ As an aid to the study it has the following advantages:
    - ⬩ It orientates the investigator to his study subject;

- Several possible directions may materialise because documentary studies may simplify complicated aspects which the researcher may come across during the process of the study;

- The investigator can test any tentative assumption on the basis of the data;

- It obviates unnecessary repetitive work; and

- The investigator learns from mistakes of others.

According to Bailey (1994) a person may be more likely to confess to a particular course in a document.

Disadvantages of documentary study

- ❖ Documentary sources always have to be checked and evaluated before use; and.

- ❖ The fact that documentary study which is a secondary source and hence an indirect form of information must not be forgotten.

The researcher covered a wide range of aspects from different authors and also used different sources in clarifying aspects which enabled him to validate and hence consider the information reliable. The use of published and unpublished researches, articles and journal kept the researcher up to date as he thoroughly scrutinised various sources.

4.4.2. Interview

The interview is one of the main tools in qualitative research. It is beneficial in accessing peoples' perception, meanings, definitions situations and construction of reality (Punch, 1998). Voce (2005) describes interview as face-to-face situation in which the researcher solicits responses from the subjects. In addition Berg (1998) defined interview as a conversation with a purpose. The actual rationale for the researcher to interview the participants was to establish if the police, the community as well as CPF members understood their common goal in preventing crime and contemplated criminal activities.

Ritchie and Lewis (2005), distinguish two types of qualitative interviews which are unstructured and structured. The researcher used structured interviews with open ended questions which were only focused on the police and the CPF members considering their sample size.

Interviewing is a broad agenda which maps the issue explored across the sample, but the order, wording and the procedures followed vary considerably (Ritchie and Lewis, 2005). The researcher used structured interviews to obtain information from the research participants. This enables the participants to feel at ease and provide whatever information they wish to furnish about their experiences within the parameters of the interview schedule. Interviewing also enables the researcher to understand other people's construction of reality (Punch, 1998). Patton (2002) mentions that as with other techniques of data gathering, the advantages and disadvantages of interviewing should be considered.

Advantages of interview

❖ Interview provides an opportunity for a face-to-face discussion between the researcher and the respondent.

❖ It provides valuable information which is not always possible in the case of other methods, for example, questionnaires.

Disadvantages of interview

The disadvantages of interview include:

❖ Distorted answers as a result of personal bias;

❖ Recall error;

❖ Reactivity of the interviewee to the interviewer and self-serving responses; and

❖ The interview also offers no assurance of anonymity.

These disadvantages may pose a threat to the respondents if, for example, the information is incriminating (Bailey, 1994). In this study, the researcher addressed the above identified concerns by ensuring that the research participants were fully informed and that information provided would only be used for the purpose of this research.

4.4.3. Questionnaire

Babbie (2007) defines a questionnaire as a document containing questions and/or other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis. Babbie and Mouton (2001) state that although that the term 'questionnaire' suggests a collection of questions, a typical questionnaire will probably contain as many statements as questions, especially if the researcher is interested in determining the extent to which the respondents hold a particular attitude or perspective.

According to Boslaugh (2007), secondary data on the other hand refers to data available in documented form, such as, books, magazines, websites and other sources of already documented data. As such, in this research, the collection of data had been fragmented to focus on these two separate categories of data, primary data through interviews and secondary data through thorough literature and theoretical reviewing of the existing data, notions and inputs from various authors.

4.4.4. Observation

Science begins with observation and must ultimately return to observation for its final validation. A researcher must train himself/herself to observe carefully. This makes researchers start their investigation with a lot of information at their disposal and are less likely to forget that the object of a study is social behaviour (Goode, 1952). In scientific inquiry rigorous preparation must be used (Voce, 2005).

Training to become a skilled observer includes the following, as outlined by Voce (2005):

- ❖ Learning to pay attention, seeing what there is to see; what there is to hear;

- ❖ Practice in writing descriptively;

- ❖ Acquiring discipline in recording field notes;

- ❖ Knowing how to separate detail from trivia to achieve the former without being overwhelmed by the latter; and

- ❖ Using rigorous methods to validate and triangulate observations.

Observation means establishing the focus of the researcher on what is to be observed and for this study the researcher observed the interaction between the police and the community (De Vos, 2009). Observation enables the collection of first hand data that are uncontaminated by factors standing between investigators and factors of the research.

The following advantages of observation are identified:

- ❖ By participating in the activities of the community, the researcher does not stand as an outsider.

- ❖ By observing, especially in an unobtrusive manner, the research will achieve the most objective experience of the community; and

- ❖ It often makes the observer less obtrusive and in so doing reduces the likelihood that the observer will influence the participants' behaviour (De Vos, 2009).

The researcher provides clarity on the analytical approach used in this study in the following section.

4.5. Data analysis

According to Denscombe (2007) data analysis is concerned with sorting, cleaning, and managing the collected data. The researcher is required to carefully apply systematic techniques to analyse data. Qualitative and quantitative research methods provide appropriate and specific processes that can be implemented in the analysis of the data. Therefore, researchers are at all times advised to select appropriate data analysis methods. Selection of correct methods of data analysis leads into valid and reliable research findings.

Moreover, data analysis is one of the important steps in scientific inquiry. A researcher conducts analysis of data after the review of literature, research methodology, and data collection have been finalised (De Vos and Strydom, 2005). Treiman (2009) further points out that, data collection transforms the collected data into credible evidence. For the analysis the researcher considered content analysis, grounded theory, thematic analysis and statistics.

4.5.1. Content analysis and grounded theory

4.5.1.1. Content analysis

Randolph (2007) purports that 'content analysis' refers to the study of the content and meaning of texts and information resources, such as books, essays, interviews, discussions, historical documents, speeches, conversations, websites and images. Strauss and Corbin (1998) refer to Holsti to give them a broad definition of content analysis as any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically

identifying specified characteristics of messages. It usually addresses itself to questions such as '*who says what', 'to whom', 'why', 'to what extent' and 'with what effect'* (Stemler, 2001). A variety of sources and theories relating to the subject under investigation was consulted so as to provide secondary data as has been explicitly discussed in the section on documentary studies above.

4.5.1.2. Grounded theory

Qualitative research methods reflect an inductive mode of analysis or a process of moving from specific observations to a general theory (Norwood, 2000). This mode of analysis is in contrast to quantitative research methods, which rely on deductive thinking or a process of moving from a general theory to specific observations. Grounded theory, a mode of inductive analysis, can be thought of as a theory that is derived from or "grounded" in everyday experiences. The researcher will present the collected data in the following chapter (see chapter five). An interpretation, analysis and deductions will be made from the data to fill the gap between the already existing outcomes from previous researches and the current study. Grounded theory strategies first were reported and attributed to sociologists, Glaser and Strauss in 1967. According to Dempsey and Dempsey (2000) the foundations of grounded theory are embedded in symbolic interactionism, which assumes that one's communications and actions express meaning.

4.5.2. Thematic analysis

The researcher was guided by the aims of the study, research questions, interview schedule and questionnaires, which necessitated that themes should be adopted in order to be clear and specific so as to avoid confusion of information. Creswell, (2003) posits that qualitative research analysis starts with the coding of the data. The research questions mentioned in chapter one constituted the main themes of the research data in this study. Thematic analysis had been adopted in both the qualitative and quantitative data from this study.

Braun and Clarke (2006) define thematic analysis as the process of identifying patterns or themes within qualitative data; these authors further suggest that it is the first method that should be learned in research as it provides core skills which are useful for conducting many other kinds of analysis. Therefore, it is regarded as a method rather than a methodology. Russel and Bernard (2006) note that thematic analysis in its simplest form is a categorising strategy for qualitative data. A researcher will review the data, make notes and will sort it into categories. Styled as a data analytic strategy, this approach helps researchers move their analysis from a broad reading of the data towards discovering patterns and developing themes.

4.6. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

A researcher should, every time while conducting his or her research, for whatever rationale ensure that he depicts the true sense of the phenomenon under investigation and avoid biasness because it will result in the output being unreliable and invalid. The following section discusses validity and reliability as well as how the researcher ensured these qualities in the study.

4.6.1. Validity

The validity of an instrument is the degree to which an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Polit and Hungler, 1993). Content validity refers to the extent to which an instrument represents the factors under study. Factors in the study were discussed in chapter two which specifically looked at the shared responsibilities between the police and the community in policing and policing matters. To achieve content validity, questionnaires included a variety of questions on the knowledge of community members, the police and the CPF on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community in a broader sense (Polit and Hungler 1993).

All questionnaires were self-administered to subjects by the researcher personally. The language usage was very fair since the participants answered all the questions with ease, for the majority of participants did not even ask any question while responding to the questionnaires. Clear instructions were given (see instructions from annexure B and C) to the subjects and the researcher completed the questionnaires for those participants who could not read.

All completed the questionnaires in the presence of the researcher to avoid a situation wherein participants would get another person to complete the questionnaires on their behalf.

During pre-testing rephrasing of some questions was done to clarify the questions and more appropriate alternative response choices were added to the closed-ended questions to provide for meaningful data analysis (Burns & Grove 1993). External validity was safeguarded as Burns and Grove (1993) refers to external validity as the extent to which study findings can be generalised beyond the sample used. All the persons approached to participate in the study completed the questionnaires. Generalising the findings to all members of the population is therefore justified.

4.6.2. Reliability

Polit and Hungler (1993) refer to 'reliability' as the degree of consistency with which an instrument measures the attribute it is designed to measure. The researcher did not interfere while the subjects were responding to the questions. This makes it clear that the empirical data collected is reliable in this instance. The use of different forms of sources such as thorough literature review, interviews and observation was of paramount importance in ensuring the reliability of the second-hand data.

4.7. Pretesting the questionnaire

A pre-test refers to a trial administration of an instrument to identify flaws. The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire on five participants, as a result the researcher modified some of the questions. When a questionnaire is used as a data gathering instrument, it is necessary to determine whether questions and directions are clear to subjects and whether they understand what is required from them. This is referred to as the 'pretesting' of a questionnaire (Polit & Hungler 1995). The interview schedule did not require any amendments because the interviewees could answer the questions without any difficulties.

4.8. ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Ethics are expression of our values and a guide to achieving them and are important to research (Heppner, 1992). Ethical consideration in research is valued and vital because the participants in a study should be protected from treats, injuries and prejudices. The researcher adhered to the human and social sciences ethical issues which are concerned much with the use of human beings as research participants. The University of Fort Hare ethical clearance processes and was fully observed. The researcher also followed the ethical issues as provided in the SAPS National Instruction of 2006.

4.9. Summary

As noted in 4.6 when Babbie and Mouton indicates that a research methodology, refers to the various methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing a research project research. The researcher systematically outlined the methodological approach applied in this study under the following: the study population, sampling, data collection and its instruments, data analysis, validity and reliability and ethical consideration. The researcher has clarified fully all relevant issues and also showed the link between this chapter and other chapters, 1; 3; 5; 6; and 7. The following chapter will present of the empirical data obtained from the research participants.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explicitly presented methodological approach applied for the purpose of this study. The researcher explained the type of methodology used, under the headings research design, study population, geographical setting of the research area, sampling procedures, data collection and instruments, data presentation and data analysis. The current chapter presents the empirical data obtained from the participants. As it has been outlined in Table 1.1, the researcher used triangulation methods. The collected data were obtained through interview (see the attached interview schedule, annexure B) and questionnaires (see annexure C).

Respondents were arranged according to their groups, (Phase A and B) which informed the researcher to also categorise the responses in the form of themes. Furthermore, the researcher sub-divided the participants in Phase A into two sub-groups which are the police (group 1) and the CPF (group 2). Phase A of the data presentation contains information obtained through interviews with the police and the CPF. Phase B presents quantitative data obtained through self-administered questionnaires from members of the community on their shared responsibilities with regard to policing within their respective communities.

Data is presented thematically below where, the researcher will focus on a particular topical issue at a time followed by the interpretation and analysis. The overall interpretation and analysis will be done through cross correlation, where the researcher will cluster related themes to compare and interpret responses of the participants. The following sections hence, present the responses from Phase A participants.

PHASE A (QUALITATIVE DATA)

This section comprises two sub-groups of respondents the police and the CPF members. The researcher present empirical data obtained from the police respondents first, followed by the CPF.

5.2. Group 1: The Police

This section presents data obtained from the police within the Alice policing precinct who participated in this study. The researcher regards the police as the key role players on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. Considering section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic and section 18(1) of the Police Act, the police should guide the community they are serving in a transparent manner, which in turn will increase public participation, joint-problem identification and joint-problem-solving.

5.2.1. Biographical details of the police respondents

The researcher presents the biographical details of the participants in this section. The researcher asked the participants about their biographical details in order to establish their background which can have an influence on the study topic. The age group of the respondents ranged from twenty six (26) up to fifty three (53) years; this age range was considered very relevant for this study as it enabled the researcher to obtain information from both the youth and the adults. The gender of the respondents was balanced as both male and female were equally represented. The majority of the research participants, six (6) were Africans, three were (3) Coloured and the remaining participants were White.

The researcher deemed the numbers for each of the racial group to be representative considering the research area which is predominately an African-populated rural environment. Nine out of ten respondents provided that they had been in the service for more than ten years. The researcher believes that the representativeness also in terms of experience made the study informative as this indicates that the data was collected from the participants who had been dealing with community issues for some years.

Deduction 1

The researcher deduced that participants were well represented based on the biographical details depicted in the Table below. It can be inferred that the length of time participants had spent in the service means that they would contribute valuable data this study as they had been part of the policing transition in SA, and they would also have extensive experience in dealing with community issues.

As far as the biographical data depicted on the Table below, it can be deduced that their representativeness in terms the people dealing with community policing within Alice police precinct add value to our understanding of the shared responsibilities in policing.

Table 5.1 Profile of the respondents

Respondent	Age	Gender	Race	Marital status	Rank	Number of years in service
A	50	Male	African	M	SGT	30
B	32	Male	Coloured	NM	WO	08
C	48	Female	Coloured	NM	CONST	12
D	52	Male	African	MM	WO	28
E	50	Female	White	NM	CPT	30
F	26	Female	African	NM	CONST	04
G	48	Male	African	NM	SGT	21
H	56	Male	African	M	CTP	35
I	50	Female	African	M	Lieutenant	28
J	53	Female	Coloured	M	WO	29

5.2.2. Theme 1: Community involvement in decision-making processes

Theme one is concerned with the engagement of the community members while matters affecting them are being discussed. The researcher intended to clarify the issue of shared responsibilities between the community and police, as outlined in the Peelian's principles that the police are the public and the public are the police (Roelofse, 2007). Therefore, the inclusion of the community in decision-making processes is very much imperative.

5.2.2.1. Community meetings

The researcher asked the respondents as to how frequently they hold meetings with the community. The rationale for the said question was to check whether police officers allow members of the community to jointly contribute on the policing matters within their respective. Table 5.2 indicate that meetings with the community were held very frequent as it was reported by nine out of ten respondents. Only one respondent differed from the rest by indicating 'none'; it is not clear whether the respondent is indicating 'no' meaning there are no meetings held or the respondent was not interested in the question posed.

Deduction 2

The responses provided by the participants enabled the researcher to surmise that meetings were held within the study area. Considering that nine out of the ten participants who had been interviewed had indicated that meetings were held frequently, the researcher concludes that frequent meetings are necessary for continuous exchange of information which is the cornerstone of community policing.

Table 5.2: Frequency of community meetings

Question: How frequently do you hold meeting with the communities?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Very frequent, more especially during the weekends
B	During the weekend
C	Frequently but it depends on the programmes, it can be during the week or month.
D	We usually hold our meetings on a weekly basis
E	Weekly
F	The meetings are held quarterly
G	None
H	The meetings are usually held during the weekends
I	Vey frequent
J	Very frequent

5.2.2.2 Meeting place

The researcher asked the respondents about the place where the police hold meetings with members of the community to establish the accessibility of the place. The majority of the respondents pointed out that meetings would usually be held in the following places: headman's kraal, schools as well as community halls. Three out of the ten respondents were not sure as to whether the meetings were held as their responses ranged from 'not applicable' to 'none', which contradict with in previous responses as they had indicated that meetings do take place frequently.

Deduction 3

The researcher had noted that there are distinct places where meetings are held within Alice as some of the participants pointed out that they usually meet at schools, headman's kraal and in community halls. Three participants provided different responses from the rest which made the researcher to infer that such resulted from lack of interest in the question.

Table 5.3: Place of community police meetings with the community

Question: Where do you hold your meetings with members of the community?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	We usually meet with the community at the local community halls or schools
B	The meetings are usually held in the community hall, schools or headman's kraal
C	Not applicable
D	None
E	Community hall or church sometimes in schools
F	The headman's kraal or at the schools
G	At the headman's kraal
H	The meetings are usually held at schools or community halls
I	Usually it takes place at the precinct, headman's kraal and the tribal authority
J	None

5.2.2.3. Engagement in decision-making processes

The researcher asked the participants as to which groups, within the community do they engage with, in their meetings. The rationale for the researcher to ask this question was to establish whether the meetings were inclusive. This was intended to establish if the two parties involved entire community, such as business sector, schools churches, media and local government. All participants responded that all stake holders are included in the police-community meetings. Stevens and Yatch (1995) are of the notion that the police will be effective in dealing with crime only if they have the trust and support of their local communities. The police depends on public co-operation, and therefore public perceptions of and confidence in the police determine the extent and nature of the flow of information from the community to the police.

Deduction 4

As far as the respondents are concerned, it can be deduced that the community of Alice is engaged during-decision-making processes. Furthermore, the researcher inferred that this inclusiveness ensures that input are considered from different levels before deciding on certain issues.

Table 5.4 Cluster consideration on decision-making processes

Question: Which cluster within the community do you involve in your meetings?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	The meetings are not selective, meaning every citizenry is welcome to attend
B	Not Known
C	Every structure within the community is included because we need inputs from all the clusters
D	Every cluster is included since crime concerns every person
E	All the clusters are important, so there is no specific preferred cluster
F	All stakeholders are included during the meetings since crime-prevention is everyone's responsibility
G	All stakeholders are included in the meetings because they are within the same policing area
H	All stake holders are included because they are the cornerstone of crime-prevention within their respective communities
I	All stakeholders
J	All stakeholders

5.2.2.4. Commitment

The researcher asked the respondents whether there are any officer's within the CPF dedicated specifically to this. The researcher's rationale was to establish if there were officers specifically dealing with the CPF. The study reveals that six out of ten respondents are of the notion that there are dedicated officers serving in the CPF within the study area. Furthermore, one respondent elaborated the point that emphasis has recently been put on increased participation in police-community crime-prevention programmes. Four respondents differed as their responses ranged from 'not known' to 'no'. One of the respondent emphasised that even though there are officers dealing with the CPF, the escalation of vigilant incidents leaves a lot of questionable instances unanswered.

Deduction 5

Even though there are some respondents who provided the 'Not know' and 'no' responses to the question, the researcher inferred that dedicated officers are there in Alice, dealing with the issue.

Table 5.5 Officers' commitment on community police forum

Are there dedicated officers participating in the CPF?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, as it can be observed from the previous questions above
B	Not known
C	None
D	Yes, officers who directly deal with CPFs are very dedicated because they ensure that they participate in any activities concerning the community
E	Not known
F	Yes, as it evident because there are frequent meetings held with members of the community to discuss social problems and to get very closely to the community
G	Yes, this also enables us to get to know the current problems experienced by community members rather than waiting for them to come and report crimes or lodge complains
H	No, even though there are officers who are specifically dealing with community policing the escalation of vigilantism leaves a lot of questions being unanswered
I	Yes
J	Yes, they are perfectly dedicated regardless to any criticism attached to any organization

5.2.2.5. Police reservist involvement

The researcher asked the respondents, whether the police reservists are included in crime-prevention decision-making in the Alice policing precinct. The researcher wanted to establish whether there was use of new recruits in community problem-solving approach. Table 5.6 indicates that reservists are included as six out of ten responded in the affirmative. Respondent A indicated that the inclusion of the reservist enable them to understand community-based needs. Four participants differed with the others as their responses ranged from 'not know', 'not applicable' and 'don't know'. The researcher deems the inclusion of police reservists as something of importance because it creates rooms for new recruits to understand the community needs. As noted from the responses below, the respondents concurred that police reservists are included. This promotes a good participative approach which gets rid of the notion that "those who know best gives inputs" resulting in a non-exclusion methodology.

Deduction 6

As far as the participants are concerned, there are reservist serving the community within the study area. It is vital to groom such people and expose them to community policing as it provides an opportunity for them to understand joint-problem identification resulting in joint-problem-solving.

Table 5.6 Inclusion of police reservists in crime prevention

How are police reservists included in crime-prevention decision-making in the Alice policing precinct?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	They are included by letting them attend the police-community meetings, which enables them to understand the community-based needs
B	Not known
C	Not applicable
D	They are tasked to handle issues within the clusters
E	By giving them the opportunity to engage with the community which informs their decision-making process when dealing with matters affecting the community
F	Reservist are included occasionally
G	I don't know
H	They are included occasionally
I	Not known
J	Yes, they are included

5.2.3. Theme 2: Police-community relations and empowerment

This theme is concerned with police-community relations and the empowerment of community members on their shared responsibilities in policing. The researcher deemed it necessary to shed light on some aspects that can improve police-community relations as discussed hereunder.

5.2.3.1. Communication

The researcher asked the respondents a question concerning communication between the police and the community. The rationale for the question was to establish the *modus operandi* used to communicate with the public.

Respondents provided various responses to the question which showed the way in which the police communicate with their clients. Their responses were varied but not limited to the following: meetings with the community, pasting notices in public areas, the use of media and communiques in the precinct. Only one out of the ten respondents indicated that communication is not applicable in this regard.

Skolnick and Bayley (1990) write that community policing's emphasis on neighbourhood offices, foot patrols, and bike patrols represent an attempt to overcome the real and psychological barriers to communication that the roving and reactive squad car presents. The above authors' view concurred with the majority of the responses which showed the importance of communication. The researcher holds the notion that communication should not just be made for the sake of communicating but for conveying certain message, which should be received and responded to. Based on recent vigilant incidences happening in SA, if police officers can advocate non-violent approach to crime prevention, shared responsibilities can be objectively met.

According to Skogan (1990) when community policing succeeds, it functions in two ways:

    (a) it opens up informal channels of communication for the flow of information and demands for action from the people, to the police, and

    (b) it facilitates police action on that basis.

An informal communication between the police and the community can diminishes the preconceived ideas of "them and us" as if approached with caution, communication can make the two groups get closer to each other.

Deduction 7

The researcher deduced that communication exist between the police and the community of Alice. As provided in Table 5.7 below there are various *modus operandi* used to communicate with the community. Communication whether formal or informal gives both the police and the community a chance to exchange valuable information that can lead to arrest, conviction and reduced fear of crime, which as a result may increase a person's safety and security.

Table 5.7 Communication between the police and the community

	How the communication between the police and the community takes place?
Respondent	**Response**
A	It takes place in various ways which is not limited to, face-to-face during reporting crimes, CPF meetings, local social events and many more
B	Not applicable
C	They give the police information about the suspects by pasting notices of wanted criminals in accessible public areas such as supermarkets, police stations, hospitals and clinics
D	The police communicates with members of the community while holding meetings aimed at Fighting against crime
E	The communication takes place in various ways since the partnership exist well within our communities
F	It takes place though transparent interactive manner during capacity-building meetings
G	Only partially when there are incidents which is a result of lack of interest in policing matters
H	It takes place verbally during the capacity building meetings
I	It takes place in many ways which is not limited to the use of media, notices and personal contacts with members of the community during meetings
J	It takes place through the use of media, notices in public places and face-to-face contacts with members of the community

5.2.3.2. Information exchange

Table 5.8 below indicates that police officers do disseminate reports on crime trends and success. The majority of the participants provided information that dissemination of information takes place through the use of newspapers, informal meetings and notices in the local shops. One out of ten respondents indicated that they don't know how police officers disseminate reports on crime trends and success while having meetings with the CPF.

Deduction 8

It had been deducted that reports on crime trends and success are disseminated to the community. Dissemination of such information is vital, and not because one has the right to access information but to maintain a vivacious and community relations. The researcher is of the opinion that a good reflective communication is very much imperative during information exchange as is portrayed in Diagram 5.1 below:

Diagram 5.1. Reflective communication
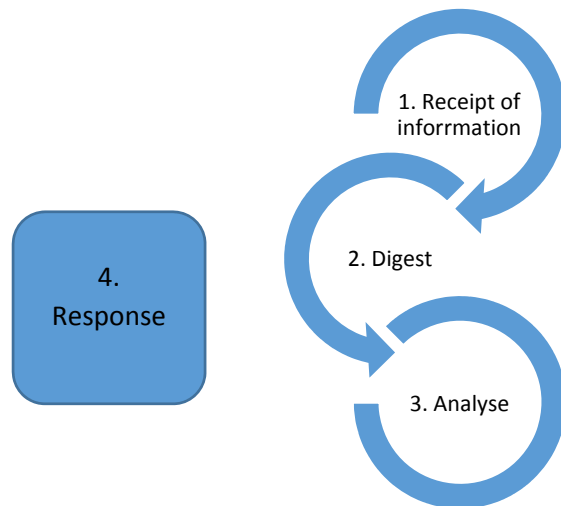
If reports can be disseminated as depicted above, police-community relations will be strengthened. The diagram shows the flow of information starting from receipt of information by the police, digestion of information which results in the understanding of the problem; analysing the problem, in order to come up with the solution, and lastly responding, which is done through the dissemination of information.

The depiction presented above can increase community shared responsibilities and ownership policing. Thus, information exchange is very much important as it may enable crime analysts to do mapping within specific geographic setting.

Table 5.8 Dissemination of reports on crime trends and success

How do police officers disseminate reports on crime trends and success when having meetings with the CPFs?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	The information is mostly communicated to the community through the use of local newspaper, notices on the local shops and within the precinct itself
B	Not known
C	This is done through police-community meetings, sometimes is done through the use of newspapers where faces of wanted criminals are displayed.
D	The police disseminates the information informally by meeting with headmen during patrol in both residential and business areas
E	Police officers educate the community to speak out about their problems so that solutions can be brought forward
F	Through the Sector Crime Forum (SCF) crime overview item
G	Dissemination is done through the release of statistics about crime, crime trends, convictions and exoneration of suspects
H	Through the Sector Crime Forum (SCF) crime overview item
I	police officers usually give report on crime trends to the community through the use of newspapers, radio stations and television
J	Police officers report on crime trends and success when they have meetings with the communities by giving feedback on the issues which had been raised from the previous meeting

5.2.3.3. Community empowerment

The researcher asked the respondents whether campaigns aimed at empowering the community were organised. The question emanated from the researcher's interest to establish a sense of police's responsibility in the empowerment of the community, on policing issues. The Table below indicates that the community is empowered about their rights and the rule of law. Eighty out of ten respondents indicated that the police do organise campaigns. Although their responses covered different things, much emphasis was on educating the community. The responses also indicate that the youth were equally considered during empowerments as campaigns included the church and schools. Conversely, two of the ten respondents emphasised lack of mutual understanding or communication between the community and police structures as a critical challenges.

Deduction 9

From the participants' responses, it had been inferred that police officers do organise community empowerment campaigns. Moreover, the current state of an informal alternated equivocal policing contradicts with the provided responses or else they leave some questions unanswered. Thus, it can be inferred that community members are not effectively empowered or they are not ready to conform to transition which had been existing for over twenty years.

Table 5.9 Police-community educational campaigns

	Do police officers organise campaigns which educate the community about their rights and the rule of law? If yes how? If not why?
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, the police mostly organise crime-prevention campaigns which gives them a platform to empower the community on how are they expected to respond to crime incidents.
B	Not applicable
C	Yes, police officers also visit schools and churches in the community
D	Yes, this is sometimes done by educating the youth about drug abuse
E	Yes, through community-empowerment initiatives which enable the police to teach the community about their constitutional rights
F	Yes, this is done through network coordination
G	No, this is a result of lack of mutual relationship between the community and the police structures
H	Yes, the police always do empower the community through network coordination
I	Yes, campaigns which are aimed at empowering the community and not only limited rights but including community broader issues.
J	Yes, the police usually do campaigns within the communities so as to empower the community with what their rights are and their limitations.

5.2.3.4. Police understanding

The researcher asked the respondents about police understanding of the problems encountered by the community. The researcher was interested in establishing the role of the police in joint-problem-solving approach. The majority of the respondents indicated that police officers have an understanding of the problems encountered by the community. One respondent indicated that members of the community patrol their respective areas if they are requested to do so. Respondent C, reported that the police has developed a good rapport which makes it very easy for them to discuss matters affecting the community and this results in possible solutions to the problems. Only 'one'

percent of the respondents indicated that police understanding of community problems is not applicable.

Deduction 10

The researcher deduced that police officers understand community problems. As has been noted and deliberated, in 5.2.3.2, on information exchange, the majority of the participants indicated that police officers disseminate information. Furthermore, it is inferred that police officers understand community problems but still there is a need for reflective communication as depicted in Diagram 5.1.

Table 5.10 Police understanding of community problems

Do the police understand community problems? If yes, how do they solve the problems? If not why?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, police officers make follow-up meetings with the community if there are matters to be resolved through their intervention
B	Not applicable
C	Yes and also develop a good rapport which makes it very easy to discuss the problems and comes up with the solution
D	Yes, they do understand because we find members of the community effecting arrests and patrolling their respective areas if they are requested to do so
E	Yes, because the police usually conduct workshops
F	Yes, police officers usually attend to complaints from the community and try to help the community to solve their problems.
G	Yes, as some members of the community have clear understanding of the functioning of the CJS
H	Yes, this can be seen through the multi-disciplinary approach
I	Yes, every time when members of the community bring complaints, we attend to them.
J	Yes, The police use a very disciplined approach and respect to show their understanding of community problems

5.2.3.5. Police perception

The researcher asked the respondents about police attitudes towards the community. The rationale for the question was to check whether a conducive environment is created which enables both the police and the community to work effectively. The responses from six out of ten respondents indicated that the police's attitude towards community members is favourable creating a good working environment. Respondent A indicated that it depends on an individual officer on how best he/she creates a conducive atmosphere between them (police) and the community.

Furthermore, respondent A confirms that the improved community relations, as well as the increase in crime-reporting level are the result of dedication to any task assigned to them. Four out of ten differed with the above questions concerning police attitude towards members of the community. Respondent G concurred that police attitude does not win public trust, but the community needs to be empowered through knowledge of the constitution of the Republic to alter their perceptions. Respondent B is of the same view with respondent G, even though their emphasis was on the issue of inexperienced officers who fail to handle community problems.

Deduction 11

As far as the responses are concerned, the researcher deduced that the attitudes of the

police towards the community is favourable

Table 5.11 Police attitude towards the community

Does the police attitude towards the community win public trust?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, but it depends on an individual officer on how best he/she creates a conducive atmosphere between them (police) and the community
B	No, because inexperienced officers sometimes fail to handle community problems properly
C	No, community members do not trust the police which makes it difficult to partake in intelligence
D	Not applicable
E	Yes because the police share information during the meetings
F	Yes, through partnership promotion
G	Not at all, but the community needs to be empowered on the Constitution of the Republic to alter their perceptions
H	Yes, through partnership approach
I	Yes, the improved community relations as well as the increase of crime reporting level is a result of their dedication to any task assigned to them
J	Yes,

5.2.3.6. Community role in investigation

The researcher asked the respondents about community understanding of their role in crime solving. The reason for this question was to establish the involvement of community members in crime solving. Half of the respondents (5/10) provided answers that the communities do not understand their role in investigation. The respondents further elaborated, as respondent A emphasised that members of the community do not understand what is expected from them. Respondent B detailed that community members do not understand because there are intelligence secrets which (he/she) thought that it should not be disclosed to ensure fruitfulness of the investigations.

Four of the respondents answered that community members are quite astute in their understanding of their role. Respondent E indicated that members of the community understand their role in intelligence because they are used as informants, while one participant was not sure.

Deduction 12

The researcher deduced that members of the community do not fully understand their role in investigation. The above inference had been influenced by the participants' responses where-in five out of ten indicated that community members do not understand their role. Therefore, the researcher is of the notion that community members should be empowered on their valuable role during the investigation of crime.

Table 5.12 Community understand on their role in investigation

Do members of the community understand their role on investigation? If yes, how? If no, why?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	No, I think members of the community do not understand what we actually expect from them
B	No, because there are intelligence secrets which I think should not be disclosed to the community, for the fruitfulness of the investigations
C	Not applicable
D	No, because members of the community does not understand how intelligence operates
E	Yes, because members of the community serve as informants who provide information to the police
F	Some members of the community do understand but not all
G	No, because they do not have knowledge on intelligence operations
H	Yes, but not all of them
I	I doubt as to whether they actually do
J	Yes

5.2.3.7. police-community encouragement

The researcher asked the respondents on the encouragement given to community members to use anonymous crime-reporting hotline. The rationale for the said question was to establish whether there is a non-contact continuous communication between the parties apart from meetings and also to check whether an alternative way to disseminate information to the public is available. The Table below indicate that police officers do encourage members of the community to use the anonymous crime reporting hotline.

Two respondents (A and E) further indicated that members of the community are also encouraged to use the 112 emergency line which can be transferred to their local precinct. Two other respondents provided an additional input as they emphasised on the issue of members of the community misusing the hotlines which are meant to assist them.

Deduction 13

As far as these responses are concerned, the researcher deduced that community members are encouraged to make use of the crime hotlines. The continuous use of tip-offs contribute to the tracking and detention of offenders, while also portraying the shared responsibilities between the police and the community.

Table 5.13 Police–community encouragement on the use of anonymous crime reporting hotline.

Do the police encourage members of the community to use hotline to report crime? If yes how? If no, why?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Members of the community are encouraged to make use of the hotline to report crime, they also make use of the 112 emergency line to be transferred to the local stations.
B	Yes
C	Not applicable
D	Yes
E	Yes, or else they call the emergency 112 call centre
F	Yes
G	Yes, but some community members think that the line had been made to play games with the police since they abuse it
H	Yes
I	Yes, the police encourage members of the community to use the hotline; even though some members use it to report false incidents.
J	Yes

5.2.4. Summary of the responses from the police

The researcher engaged with the participants on many relevant topical issues concerning the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The researcher was interested in information that will shed light on police-community interaction or continuous meetings. The researcher also looked at police educational campaigns as well as police understanding of community problems. The rationale behind police understanding community problems is that, they will be able to provide a more focused programme which will address the problems. The following section presents valuable information obtained from the CPF members.

5.3 GROUP 2: CPF MEMBERS

The following section focuses on the CPF as the second cluster in Phase A. The researcher included this sub-group to ensure more representativeness from community members working closely with the police. Below are the empirical data obtained from the participants.

5.3.1. Biographical details of the respondents

The researcher presents data collected from the CPF in this section. Biographical details were obtained from the participants to establish their background which can have an influence on the concerned phenomenon. The age group of the respondents ranged from twenty eight (28) up to fifty (50) years; this range was considered necessary in this study as it enabled the researcher to obtain information from both the youth and adults. The gender of the respondents had a difference as female participants were six compared to the four, representing male participants. The majority of the research participants (7/10) were Africans, while three were Coloured. All participants were literate as their level of education ranged from grade 10 up to university level, and most were employed whereas the remainder indicated that they were not employed.

Deduction 14

The researcher inferred that participants were well represented in the biographies depicted below. It had also been noted that there was a slight gender imbalance as females were more compared to their counterparts. This was because the researcher deemed it significant to have more views of the previously disadvantaged group (women). The participant's age range was justifiable as the respondents were from the era when SA introduced a policing transition different from the apartheid policing approach.

Table 5.14. Biographical details of the CPF members

Respondent	Age	Gender	Race	Marital status	Educational Level	Occupation
A	45	F	A	M	Grade 10	unemployed
B	30	F	A	S	Grade 12	Unemployed
C	35	F	A	M	Grade 12	Unemployed
D	47	F	A	W	Degree	Employed
E	49	M	C	M	Grade 12	Self employed
F	33	F	A	M	Grade 11	Employed
G	28	M	C	NM	Grade 12	unemployed
H	46	F	A	M	Degree	Employed
I	34	M	A	M	Grade 11	Employed
J	50	M	C	M	Degree	Employed

5.3.2. Theme 5: The dissemination and exchange of information

The researcher presents responses concerning the interaction between the CPF and the entire community below. This section focuses on dissemination of information to the community, an exchange which is important for the success of the contributions and shows the display of shared responsibilities between the community and the police**.**

5.3.2.1. Regularity of meeting

The researcher asked the respondents about the CPF meetings. The notion behind the question was to actually establish whether there is good communication between the police and the community. The researcher also cross-correlated responses from the police, the community and the CPF about the meetings. Table 5.15 below indicates that all the respondents agreed that meetings are held frequently as it is evident from the data presented below. The responses obtained indicate that meetings are either held on a monthly, weekly, fortnightly or else quarterly basis.

Deduction 15

As far as the respondents are concerned, it can be deduced that meetings do take place within the study area; see as well Table 5.2 and Figure 5.5. The overall views of the participants on meetings have been presented in Table 5.29 for ease of reference.

Table 5.15 Frequency of community meetings

Question: How frequently are meetings of the CPF held?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	The meetings are held on a monthly basis in most cases but sometimes it can be weekly depending on the matter to be discussed
B	Monthly
C	The meetings are held on a monthly basis
D	The meetings are held frequently but it depends on the current matter to be discussed which can make it to be weekly, fortnightly or else monthly
E	We usually hold our meetings on a weekly basis
F	The meetings are usually held during the weekends
G	The meetings are held quarterly
H	The meetings are usually held during the weekends
I	The meetings are held monthly
J	Very frequent, more especially during the weekends

5.3.2.2. Place of meetings

The researcher wanted to establish the place where the CPF hold its meetings. All respondents provided information that indeed meetings are held, even though they provided different meeting places. Half of the respondents (5/10) were placing much emphasis on meetings being held at the local policing precinct. While the remainder indicated that meetings were either held at schools, local town halls or at churches.

Deduction 16

The researcher deduced that meetings are held at distinct places which is also determined by the availability of the place.

Table 5.16 Place of CPF gatherings

Question: Where do those meetings take place?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	The meetings are usually held in our local satellite offices or at nearest police stations
B	The meetings take place at the local police station
C	We hold our meetings in town hall, headman's kraal or in our local schools
D	The meetings are either held at the local police station, town hall or else in our schools
E	The meetings are usually held at schools or community halls
F	The headman's kraal or at the schools
G	At the headman's kraal
H	The meetings are usually held at schools or community halls
I	Usually it takes place at the precinct, headman's kraal and the tribal authority
J	They take place at police station

5.3.2.3. Community involvement

Table 5.17 indicates that members of the community are included in the meetings when decisions affecting them are taken. The researcher was interested on establishing whether the meetings were inclusive to an extent that every individual person could attend. The entire respondents indicated that members of the community are involved in the meetings although, one of the respondents indicated that even though the meetings were open to everyone, most of the youth do not attend the meetings. Respondent G provides that different clusters within the community attend the meetings, more especially if they are scheduled for weekends.

Section 152 (1) (e) of the Constitution of RSA provides that the objects of the Local Government (LG) amongst others is to encourage the involvement of the communities and community organisations in the matters of local government. The police should endeavour to realise the aims set by section 18 (1) (a-f) of the South African Police Act (68 of 1995). This section makes provision for SAPS to liaise with the community through community policing forums, area boards and provincial community boards. The above-mentioned provision advocates the establishment and maintenance of partnership between the community and the police, with the view of promoting communication between the service and the community.

Moreover, the Act further promotes joint-problem identification and problem-solving by the service and the community. Since legal mandates are imperative sources on relationships regulation, if the above provisions can be scrutinised closely one can understand that the community should at no point be excluded during decision-making processes.

Deduction 17

From the responses provided in Table 5.17, it can be deduced that community members are included in decision-making processes.

Table 5.17 Community members' consideration in decision-making processes

Question: Do the meetings involve all members of the community?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, they are involved as the meetings, including the headman's, the entire community and other stakeholders.
B	Yes, they are involved but in most cases it can only be seen when there is social disorder.
C	Yes, the police-community meetings are inclusive as all stakeholders are considered for the meetings.
D	Yes, even though sometimes community members think that meetings target specific group of people
E	Yes, as it is evident from their participation on crime-prevention initiatives which aim at empowering the community at large.
F	Yes, even though most of the youth do not attend the meetings.
G	Yes, different clusters within the community do attend the meetings, especially if they are taking place during weekends
H	Yes, the meetings are open for everyone. It's only that some community members do not attend due to their commitments
I	Yes, members of the community are very involved in policing matters.
J	Yes, members of the community are considered very much as the meetings do not exclude any group of persons.

5.3.3. Theme 6: Community empowerment

The researcher presents community empowerment issues in this section, as noted from normative sponsorship theory which declares that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957). If police-community relations can be maintained within our respective communities, it would be easy to ensure that community members fully engage themselves in shared responsibilities with the police.

5.3.3.1. Feedback

The researcher asked the CPF whether community members were informed about the meetings. The rationale was to establish the "modus operandi" used on information dissemination to members of the community. The Table below shows that all participants interviewed provided answers that members of the community were kept informed about the meetings. The responses below show various ways in which information is disseminated to the community, such as through announcements after community gatherings, telephonically, through the use of a messenger and during consultations with the community.

The researcher is of the notion that if dissemination of information can be regarded as one of the important aspects of policing, the objective of shared responsibilities between the police and the community can be satisfactorily met. As noted from the responses below, the researcher realised that the participants concurs that information is disseminated during the meetings.

Deduction 18

It had been presumed that community members are kept informed about the meetings.

Table 5.18 Dissemination of information to the community

Question: Are members of the community kept informed about CPF meetings? If not, why? If yes, how?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, members of the community are kept informed but the problem is sometimes lack of transport for the concerned group within a certain geographical area.
B	Yes, this is done through announcements after community gatherings where most of the people might have attended with the belief that they will inform others.
C	Yes, it takes place in various ways such as telephonically or communicated in person
D	Yes, there is good communication which sometimes takes place through telephone or in person
E	Yes, it takes place in various ways such as consultation
F	Yes, it takes place telephonically as they have our contacts numbers at the station
G	Yes, this is done telephonically sometimes information is disseminated to learners at school who have to inform their parents at home
H	Yes, we sometimes send the messenger who will inform members of the community
I	Yes, through personal contacts as well as telephonically with people who can easily conveys the information to a large numbers of people at the same time such as nurses; pastors and teachers
J	Yes, members of the community are kept informed about the meetings during community gatherings.

5.3.3.2. Community-police support

Table 5.19 shows the responses from the CPF members concerning the place where members of the community receive assistance. All the respondents indicated that they do not have a specific office where they attend community issues. Respondent A added that even though there are no specific offices, the CPF at station level do assist in finding a place for meetings.

Deduction 19

All the participants mentioned that they do not have specific offices. This is one of the many challenges facing the CPF and it should be noted and responded to, not at a station level, but from the national level while drawing the budget and distributing resources.

Table 5.19 Place of community police assistance

Question: Do you have a consultation office where members of the community get assisted?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	No, there is no specific offices, but the CPF at station level do assist us to find a place where we usually hold meetings
B	No there is no specific office
C	No, there is no specific office
D	No, there is no specific office
E	No, there is no specific office
F	No, there is no specific office
G	No, there is no specific office
H	No, there is no specific office
I	No, there is no specific office
J	No, there is no specific office

5.3.3.3. Police-community initiatives

The researcher wanted to know whether within Alice policing precinct, there were any crime-prevention programmes taking place. The rationale for the question was to establish whether community members form part of policing in the study area and to establish the existence of shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The Table below (Table 5.20) shows that seven out of ten of the respondents indicated that crime-prevention programmes exist within the Alice policing precinct.

Respondent J indicated that, the programmes do exist but there is a need to improve their approach so as to improve public participation. Three respondents answered that they do not have knowledge of the existence of crime-prevention programmes within the study area. Lack of knowledge on the part of some respondents, made the researcher to be judgemental that they do not have knowledge about the programmes, but those who also remained neutral were observed.

Deduction 20

From the furnished information from the participants, it can be deduced that programmes aimed at crime-prevention exist within the study area. Some of the participants emphasized the issue of improving the crime-prevention programmes approach to ensure that members of the community are inspired.

Table 5.20 Crime-prevention initiatives

Question: Is there any crime-prevention programme in Alice policing precinct?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Yes, because the projects assist in minimising the rate of crime within our respective areas.
B	Yes, it is updated during the formation of new structures within our communities.
C	Yes, they involve themselves in patrolling their respective areas when there is a problem it enables them to share information.
D	Yes, but in most cases we find police officers searching people and closing illegal tavern
E	Yes, programmes are there but it needs a lot of efforts since members of the community do not always support them.
F	I do not know of any project taking place around Alice
G	I am not sure about any crime-prevention project taking place in our area.
H	Yes, the municipality together with community members organise activities that consume most of the leisure time which could have been spent on alcohol and drugs
I	I am not sure, as I had not heard of any programmes apart from patrols which sometimes take place
J	Yes, the programmes are there but there is a need to improve its approach so as to improve public participation

5.3.3.4 Difficulties facing the CPF

The Table below presents problems experienced by the CPF, which have had an impact on, the day-to-day normal functioning of their roles. The researcher's rationale in asking the participants about the problem experienced by the CPF, was of the notion that it serves as a guide on the recommendation to be presented. All the respondents answered the question where different problems had been pointed out to the researcher. The majority of the respondents emphasised on the resources, which include transport and lack of input from senior officials.

Furthermore, members of the community partake in vigilantism using the name of the CPF. Respondent G indicated that there is a problem of risky situations where the CPF has to act as a buffer between the community and the police. They are also called "impimpis" by some people in the community because of their close relationship with the police.

Deduction 21

The researcher took note of the problems experienced by the CPF and taken with the participants responses as shown in Table 5.21, which made him to deduce that lack of resources is a great challenge facing the CPF. Furthermore, some of the community members who do not want to associate themselves with the police label the CPF as the "impimpis".

Table 5.21 Problems experienced by the CPF

Question: Which problems have the CPF faced in its activities, since it was formed?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	The problem experienced by the CPF is lack of transport because when we urgently need the police in some cases, they will indicate that there is shortage of vehicles and for them to respond to our call they have to wait for the vehicle which might still be busy
B	The problem faced by the CPF is the formation of new structures which take part in public vigilantism in the CPF's name
C	Lack of resources makes it very difficult to respond swiftly to community calls
D	Lack of capacity building in the form of training which hinders the effectiveness of its operations
E	CPF members are sometimes attacked by criminals who label them as being too soft with the police and they are also accused of spying for the police.
F	The cultural and race differences within our area cause differences and conflicts between people residing in the same area.

G	There is a problem of risky situations where the CPF has to act as a buffer between the community and the police. They are also called "impimpis" by some people in the community because of their close relationship with the police
H	Lack of available funds to pay CPF members makes it difficult for people to volunteer for a long period because when they get casual jobs they have to leave and focus on something that they can make money.
I	Senior officials who should give guidelines to the officers do not attend the meetings whereas they are the ones to direct the CPF
J	Poor representativeness (in the form of gender, race and class) of the CPF creates divisions within our respective communities

5.3.3.5. Threats to the community

Table 5.22 presents the crimes threatening the community of Alice in the EC. Receiving the most attention is murder where four out of ten respondents highlighted and showed concern as one of the crimes threatening the community. Some (three) participants indicated that alcohol and drug abuse is also a problem within the study area. The rest of the participants indicated that housebreaking and theft as well as shoplifting were a problem within the study area.

Deduction 22

The researcher deuced that murder is one of the serious crimes bothering the community of Alice. Even though there are various crimes presented in the Table below, the accessibility and availability of drugs and alcohol to young persons might be a contributory factor to the commission of serious crimes.

Table 5.22 Crimes threatening the community

	Question: What are the main crimes threatening the community and how do you solve them?
Respondent	**Response**
A	Murder[32], the community patrol the most affected areas but it is dangerous because some cases involve the use of firearms and dangerous objects
B	The current crimes threatening our community is that members of the community are dealing with drugs and make them easily accessible to the youth
C	Illegal selling of alcohol and drug abuse is one of our concern, and if awareness campaigns are organised the concerned people do not attend
D	Shoplifting, this is prevented through the use of cameras but it is still a challenge to small businesses as the installation costs them
E	Murder, we anonymously give information to the police
F	House breaking and theft which resulted in street committees resolving the problem
G	The problem around our area is the use of a drug called "Tik", and I am not sure as to what been done so far but we work closely with the police
H	Murder, we work with the entire community which leads to the apprehension of perpetrators
I	Crimes affecting the community include rape, dealing with drugs, housebreaking and theft, we try to resolve this problem by working hand-in-hand with the police
J	Murder

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[32] Snyman (2008) defines murder as the unlawful and intentional causing of the death of another human being, for further reading and clarity one can read the case of Ntuli 1975 1 SA 429 (A) 436-437; Sigwahla 1967 4 SA 566 (A) 570-571. Moreover, the elements of this crime is divided into (i) an act or omission (ii) which causes (iii) the death.

5.3.3.6. The overall threats facing the community

Table 5.23 indicates crimes which pose a threat to most of the community. Murder is one of the crimes that received attention, as five out of ten respondents said that it was a problem within the study area. Housebreaking and theft also received more or less equal percentage compared to murder. The Table further indicates that assault with intent to cause grievously bodily harm also poses a threat to the community.

Deduction 23

Murder is a serious problem within the community of Alice.

Table 5.23 General crimes threatening the community

Question: In general, what are the crimes threatening the community?	
Respondent	**Response**
A	Murder
B	Murder
C	Murder
D	Assault with intent to cause grievously bodily harm
F	House breaking and theft
G	House breaking and theft
H	Murder
I	House breaking and theft
J	House breaking and theft
K	There are various crimes threatening the community but the most committed are murder, house breaking and theft, robbery and shoplifting.

5.3.4. Summary of the responses from the CPF

The researcher engaged with the participants on relevant topical issues concerning the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The researcher covered various aspects which seek police intervention as the role players in policing. The discussion above included community members' opinions on decision-making processes. The researcher also interviewed the participants about crime-prevention initiatives in Alice policing precinct. The researcher intended to establish how police officers engage the community in policing. Furthermore, the researcher identified the crimes threatening the Alice residents with the hope of recommending possible solutions in chapter seven.

PHASE B (QUANTITATIVE DATA)

5.4. Group 3: MEMBERS OF THE COMMUNITY

In this section the researcher presents quantitative data collected from the 100 surveyed participants who provided their views on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. Data presented below was collected through self-administered questionnaires which were distributed to willing members of the community. The researcher's target population as indicated in chapter one, was 100 participants which the researcher achieved as he managed to obtain the targeted number of the population from the community.

5.4.1. Biographical information

This consists of the information concerning the population structure of the participants in the study in order to compare variability of their response with variability in population attributes. This includes the age, marital status, educational background and occupational status of the participants. The gender of the participants is representative, 50 female and 50 male participants. Table 5.24; Figure 5.1 and 5.2 below present the biographical details of the participants surveyed.

5.4.1.1. Age and Marital Status

The researcher cross tabulated the age and marital status of the respondents from the community in Table 5.24 below. The researcher deemed the above details as imperative for this study as the age may determines participants' understanding of the phenomenon and marital status may determine the level of one's involvement in shared responsibilities. The research participants were between the age of sixteen and sixty. The rationale for consideration of the above age groups was influenced by the notion of obtaining ideas from different age groups, within the community. The respondents were categorised according to their age groups which ranged from 16-20, 21-30, 31-40, 41-50 and 51-60 years. The Table below (Table 5.25) indicates that almost 85% of the respondents were between the ages of 21 to 40, whereas 9% of the percipients were between the ages of 41 to 60. The above indicated age groups allowed the researcher to obtain inputs from different types of participants, those who witnessed the transition in policing and those who did not.

The Table also shows marital status of the research participants which were categorised in terms of the following: *Married, not married; cohabitant; widowed and divorced.* The rationale to include marital status was influenced by the notion that one's commitment may have an impact on participant's involvement in the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The Table below indicates that 80% of the respondents were not married nor cohabiting which means they can use their spare time being involved in shared responsibilities.

Table 5.24 Cross tabulation of age and marital status

		Marital Status					Total
		Married	Not Married	Cohabitating	Widowed	Divorced	
Age	16-20	0	6	0	0	0	6
	21-30	2	40	2	0	0	44
	31-40	8	25	3	2	3	41
	41-50	4	4	0	0	0	8
	51-50	1	0	0	0	0	1
Total		15	75	5	2	3	100

5.4.1.2. Education

Education measures the level of understanding of an individual in a society, people with higher levels of education can easily understand the norms and values as well as beliefs in a society. However, this question tries to understand the general educational status in the community and tries to link it to how well community members can show their responsibilities in policing which can diminish the notion of "us and them".

From Figure 5.1 it is important to learn that the majority of the respondents surpassed high school level of education. It had been shown in the diagram below that 42% of the respondents confirmed to holding a high school level certificate, 23% have University Degrees, and 18% hold College Certificates and Diplomas and 14% possess Post Graduate Degrees. Only 3% of the respondents from the survey confirmed that they never reached Grade 12. The respondents' level of education was very instrumental to the success of this study as their full understanding of the phenomenon under investigation can be assumed.

The researcher deduced that the educational level of the respondents made the study feasible since the respondents were literate which is very rare in most of the rural settings like Alice in the EC. The researcher realised that their educational level made them informed about the study phenomenon as it is evident from the responses in the sections that follow**.**

Figure 5.1 Educational background

Educational Background

(Bar chart showing Percent on the vertical axis with the following values: High School = 42, College = 18, University = 23, Post Graduate = 14, Other = 3)
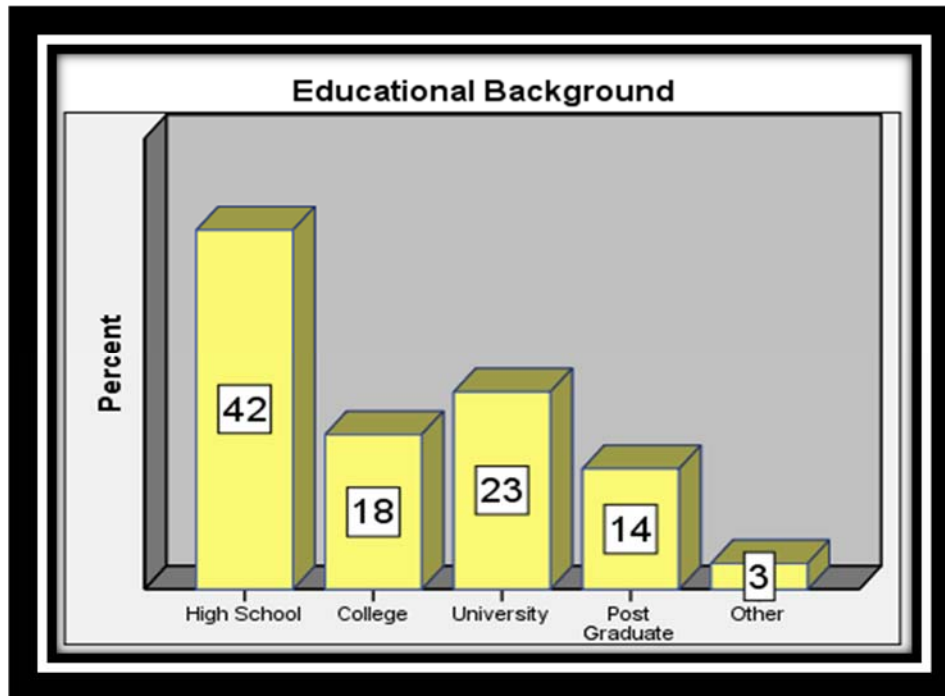
5.4.1.3. Occupation

The general understanding is that the greater the percentage of an unemployed population in a community, the higher the number of crime committed in such a community. It is also important to point out that criminals also think that it is the duty of the police to stop crimes in the community, while members of the community can do it as well. Figure 5.2 shows that only 30% of the respondents in the survey are unemployed and 41% are either employed or self-employed.

The researcher inferred from the percentages provided above that even though a moderate number of participants are employed, they can still attend CPF meetings as some of them indicated that they are self-employed. The researcher also noted that 27% of the respondents were students, hence this group can also contain a considerable number of respondents who might be have an influential role in the society, because they read about the incidents of crime in newspapers; they may be studying towards qualifications dealing with social disorder and being amongst the targeted victims in the study area as they are considered as having valuable asserts. The outstanding percentage (2%) of the participants surveyed did not specify their exact status as they indicated 'other' as their occupation.

Figure 5.2 Occupational Status
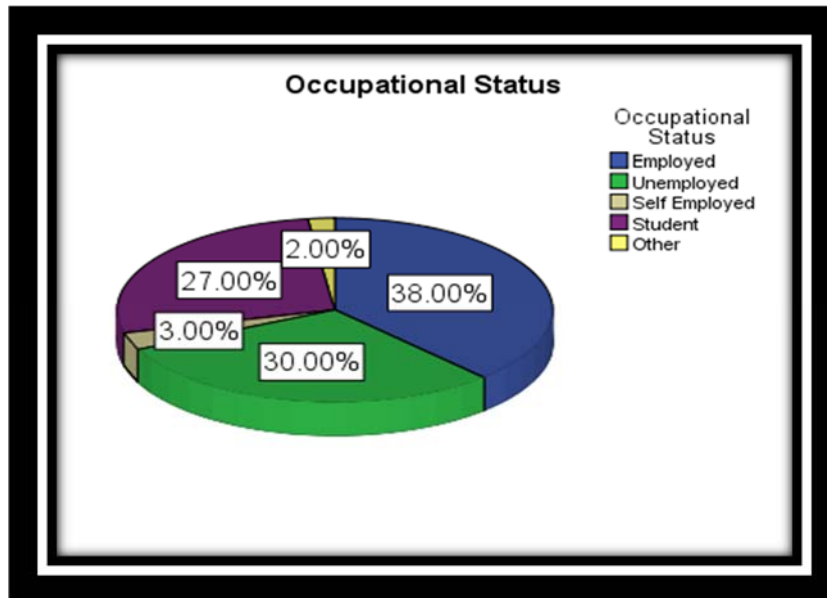
5.4.2. Theme 7: Community perception towards partnership policing

The following section focuses on the perception of the community towards shared responsibilities between the police and the community.

5.4.2.1. Confidence in the police

The researcher asked the respondents about community trust of the police. Figure 5.3 shows the general understanding of the respondents on trusting the police. The researcher during preliminary investigation established that some members of the community have confidence and trust in the police. Figure 5.3 below depicted various responses from the participants where 59% of the respondents neither 'trust' the police nor 'tend to trust, them. The Figure also shows that 25% of the surveyed percipients indicated that they did not trust the police. The remainder 16% of the respondents were neutral on this matter.

Figure 5.3 Community Trust
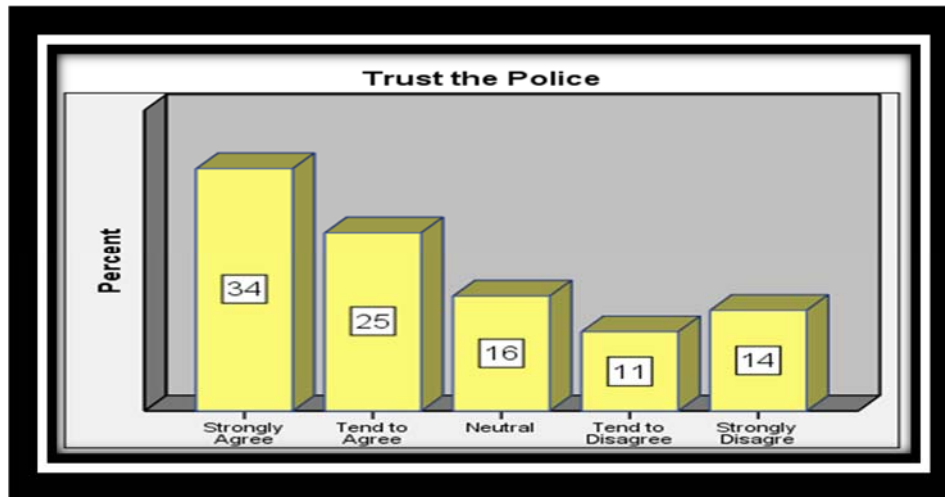
5.4.2.2 Perceptions towards community relations

The researcher asked the participants whether community perceptions towards the police tarnish police-community relations. As shown in Figure 5.4 below, half of the participants pointed out that the perception of the community tarnishes police-community relations. In the Figure below, that 50% of the respondents agreed that the community perceptions towards the community tarnishes police-community relations as 24% 'strongly agree', while 26% 'tend to agree'. Furthermore, 23% of the respondents answered that they do not think community perceptions tarnish police-community relations as 11% tend to disagree' while 14% 'strongly agree'. The remaining 27% were not sure whether community perceptions tarnish police-community relations. The information shown below made the researcher to deduce that community perception towards the police is negative; this opinion is from the statistics shown in the Figure below from participants who strongly agreed, tend to agree and those who provided neutral responses.

Figure 5.4 Community Perceptions

Community Perceptions

- Strongly Agree
- Tend to Agree
- Neutral
- Tend to Disagree
- Strongly Disagre

7.00%
16.00%
24.00%
27.00%
26.00%
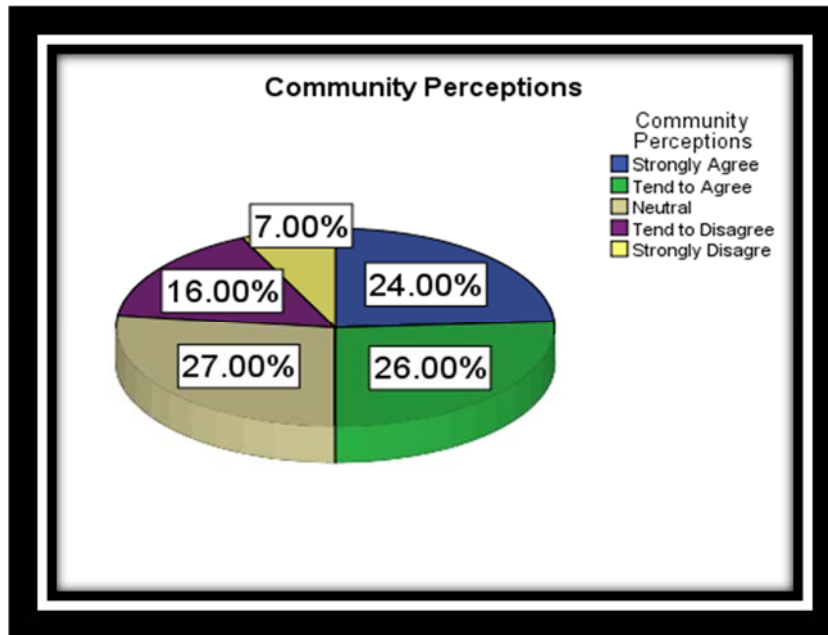
5.4.2.3. Community engagement in policing

The researcher asked members of the community if they partake in anti-crime campaigns. The question was intended to establish the community's sense of engagement in policing matter as this is central to this study. Table 5.25 indicates that the majority of the respondents are of the view that members of the community partake in anti-crime prevention campaigns. The Table below shows that 74% of the surveyed participants agreed that members of the community participate in anti-crime campaigns, 35% 'strongly agree' whereas while 39% 'tend to agree'.

Furthermore, 10% of the respondents were unsure whether community members do take part or not. The remaining 16% differed with the notion that community members engage in anti-crime campaigns. 5% of the participants under survey 'tend to disagree' while 11% 'strongly agree'. The researcher deduced that anti-crime campaigns exist within the research area and community members partake in such programmes.

Table 5.25. Participation in ant-crime programmes

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
	Strongly Agree	35	35.0	35.0
	Tend to Agree	39	39.0	39.0
	Neutral	10	10.0	10.0
	Tend to Disagree	11	11.0	11.0
	Strongly Disagree	5	5.0	5.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0

5.4.3. Theme 8: The interaction between the community and the police

The following section focuses on the interaction between the community and the police. The researcher categorised it in terms of meetings; programme arrangements and information dissemination.

5.4.3.1. Community interactions

The researcher asked the participants about community meetings; this was intended to obtain views on this issue from different groups, in order to compare and validate the responses through cross correlation. Figure 5.5 shows that 29% of the participants surveyed agree that members of the community attend the meetings, whereas 33% have more or less the same idea as they tend to agree that members of the community attend meetings arranged by the SAPS. Therefore, it is evident from the Figure below that a higher percentage (62%) of the respondents agree that members of the community attend meetings.

The Table below also depicts that 18% of the participants differed with ideas of the above indicated responses as 6% 'tend to disagree' while 12% 'strongly disagreed' with the notion that members of the community attend meetings. The remaining 20% of the respondents were not sure whether community members attend the meetings or not. The researcher is of the notion that meeting attendance is much crucial on shared responsibilities as it provides involved parties with an opportunity to exchange information and plan ahead to harmonise the community.

Figure 5.5 Meeting attendance

Meeting Attendance
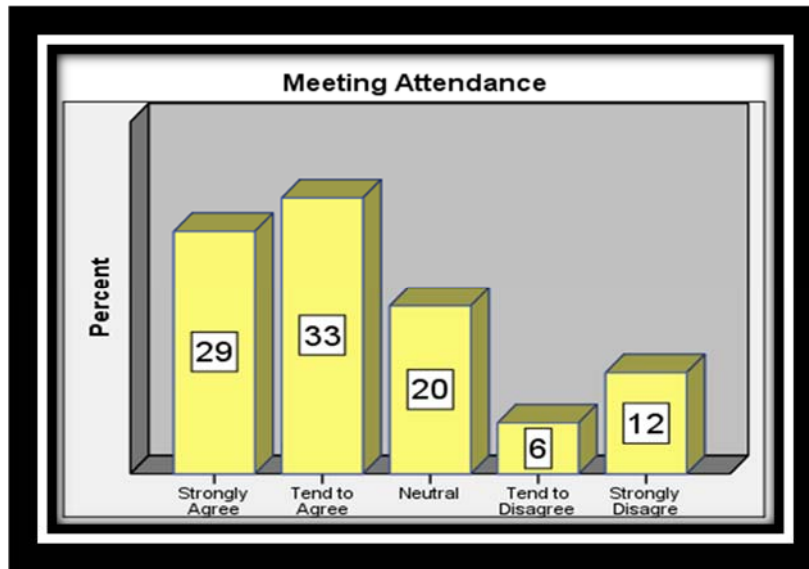
5.4.3.2. Meeting attendance

The researcher in this subsection (cross tabulate Table 5.26) presents the responses from the participants on two distinct matters. The participants were asked about programmes which are aimed at providing the community with an opportunity to interact with the police, secondly participants were also asked whether they disseminate information to the police. The rationale for the above questions was to confirm whether there existed police-community information services where community members get the opportunity to provide the police with information. The Table below indicates that 54% of the respondents either 'strongly agree' (26%) or tend to agree (28) that programmes aimed at preventing crime are arranged by the police for the community.

Additionally, the Table depicts that 14% of the participants were not sure whether programmes are arranged or not. The remaining 32% of the participants 'disagree' with the notion that the SAPS arrange programmes for the community, as indicated on the Table below that 12% of the participants 'tend to disagree' while 20% 'strongly agree'.

Furthermore, Table 5.26 below shows that 69% of the participants surveyed agree that the police disseminate information to the community. The Table indicates that 41% of the participants 'strongly agree', while 28% 'tend to agree' that the police disseminate information to the community. The researcher took note that 15% of the respondents differed with the above view as 5% of the surveyed participants strongly disagree while 10% 'tend to disagree' that the police disseminate information to the community. The remaining 16% were not sure whether the police disseminate information or not.

Table 5.26 Programmes' Arrangements and Information Dissemination (Cross tabulation)

		Information Dissemination					Total
		Strongly Agree	Tend to Agree	Neutral	Tend to Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Programmes' Arrangements	Strongly Agree	19	4	1	1	1	26
	Tend to Agree	7	13	4	4	0	28
	Neutral	2	5	5	1	1	14
	Tend to Disagree	2	4	3	3	0	12
	Strongly Disagree	11	2	3	1	3	20
Total		41	28	16	10	5	100

5.4.4. Theme 9: Community empowerment

The following section focuses on police-community empowerment. The researcher covered a broad range of aspects which were concerned with community empowerment such as: consultation, reporting criminal activities, feedback and anti-crimes campaigns, community participation in vigilante action, community participation in crime prevention, community education on their rights, limitations as well as understanding of the Bill of Rights.

5.4.4.1 Consultation

The researcher asked the participants whether the police consult the community while decision affecting them are being taken. The rationale for the question was to find out whether decisions are taken as 'commands' or they are inclusive and transparent. Figure 5.6 indicates that the majority (60%) of the participants surveyed agree that the police consult community members when important decisions affecting the community are taken. The Figure below indicates that 36% of respondents 'strongly agree' with the idea that police officers consult the community while taking decisions, while 24% 'tend to agree'. 30% of the participants 'disagree' that members of the community are consulted when decision affecting them are taken. Part of the surveyed participants (17%) 'strongly disagree' that police officers consult members of the community when taking decisions, while 13% 'tend to disagree'. The remaining 10% do not fully know whether or not the community is consulted in decision-making by the police.

Figure 5.6. Consult community members in decision-making
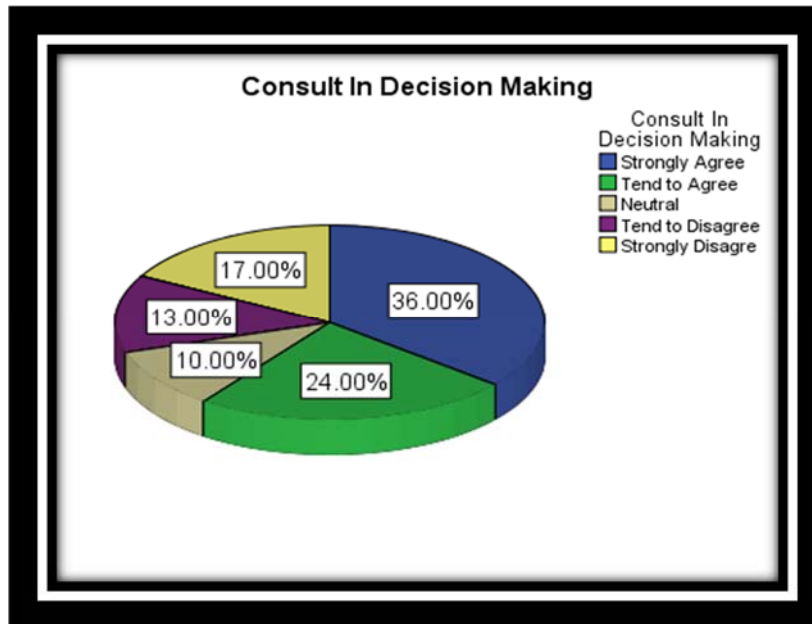
Figure 5.7. Reporting Criminal activities

Participants were asked whether community members report contemplated criminal activities or criminal hide-outs to the police. As shown in Figure 5.7, a total of 78% of the participants agree that the community report criminal activities or criminal hide-outs to the police with 51% 'strongly agreeing' and 27 'tending to agree'. Some of the respondents, (13%) disagree that members of the community report criminal activities as well as contemplated criminal activities. As indicated in the Figure below, 7% strongly disagree that community members do not report crime while 6% tend to disagree. However, the remaining 9% were neutral as they were not sure if criminal activities and hide-outs were reported by the community to the police.

Report Criminal activities

Bar chart — Percent by response category:
- Strongly Agree: 51
- Tend to Agree: 27
- Neutral: 9
- Tend to Disagree: 6
- Strongly Disagre: 7
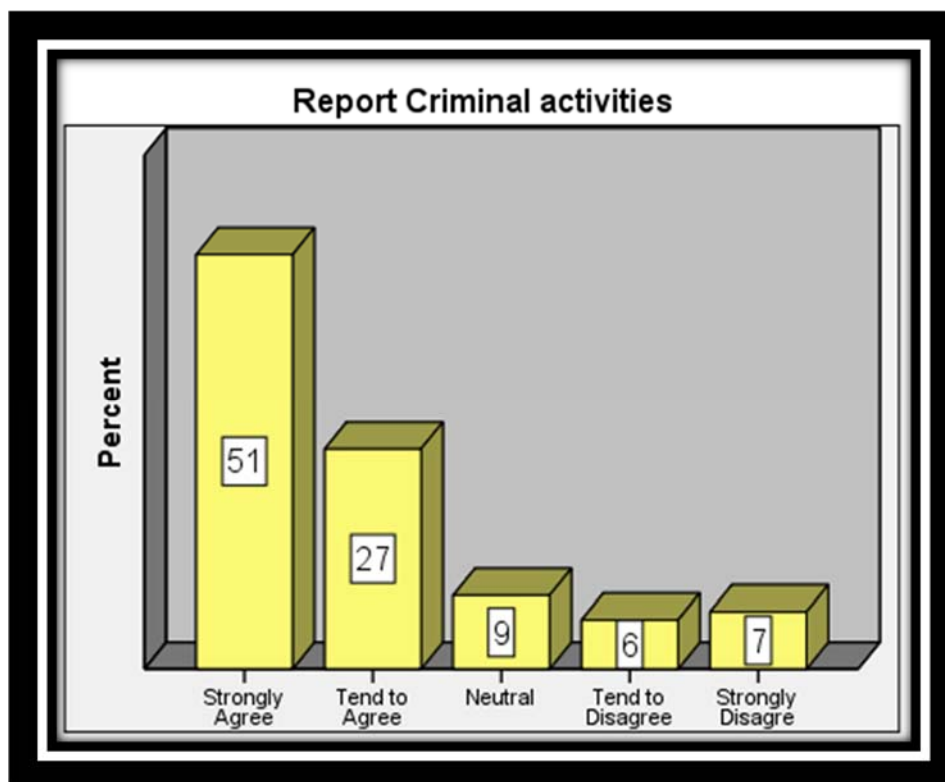
5.4.4.2. Information exchange and empowerment

The researcher asked the participants about information exchange and community empowerment as presented in the Table below. Table 5.27 provides the cross tabulated responses on feedback to the community and anti-crime campaigns. The researcher noted that 52% of the surveyed participants indicated that the police provide feedback on the matters that had been discussed with the community.

The Table below indicates that 22% of the respondents 'strongly agree' that the police provide feedback to the community while 30% 'tend to agree'. Furthermore, 31% of the participants 'disagree' with the notion that the police provide feedback to the community, as noted in Table 5.27 that 17% of the respondents 'tend to disagree' while 14% 'strongly agree'. The remainder 17% were not sure whether the police provided feedback to the community or not.

The Table also presents responses on the arrangement of anti-crime campaigns by the police within the Alice policing cluster. Some participants (26%) indicated that they 'strongly agree' that anti-crime campaigns are arranged while 34% 'tend to agree'. The total percentage of the respondents who agree that anti-crime campaigns are arranged within the study area amounts to 60%. The Table shows that 15% of the participants were not sure whether anti-crime campaigns are arranged or not. The remaining 25% of the respondents differed with the above indicated responses as they disagreed with the notion that police officers arrange anti-crime campaigns for the community.

Table 5.27. Feedback and Arrangement of anti-crime Campaigns Cross tabulation

		Arrange anti-crimes Campaigns					Total
		Strongly Agree	Tend to Agree	Neutral	Tend to Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
Feedback	Strongly Agree	15	3	2	1	1	22
	Tend to Agree	6	21	2	1	0	30
	Neutral	2	5	3	4	3	17
	Tend to Disagree	0	4	6	5	2	17
	Strongly Disagree	3	1	2	2	6	14
Total		26	34	15	13	12	100

5.4.4.3. Vigilantism

The researcher asked community members about their awareness of people who participate in vigilante action. Figure 5.8 shows that 59% of the surveyed participants 'agreed' that members of the community partake in vigilant actions within their respective areas. The researcher established, as indicated above, that some participants (20%) affirmed their knowledge of community members who engage in vigilantism as they 'strongly agree', 39% provided more or less the same answer to the question 20% answered that they 'tend to agree' that members of the community partake in vigilante action.

The Figure below indicates that 16% of the respondents strongly dismiss the notion that members of the community take part in vigilantism, while 12% indicates that they tend to differ with the view that members of the community take part in vigilantism. The remaining 13% of the participants were about people who partake in vigilantism within the study area.

Figure 5.8 Community participation in vigilante action
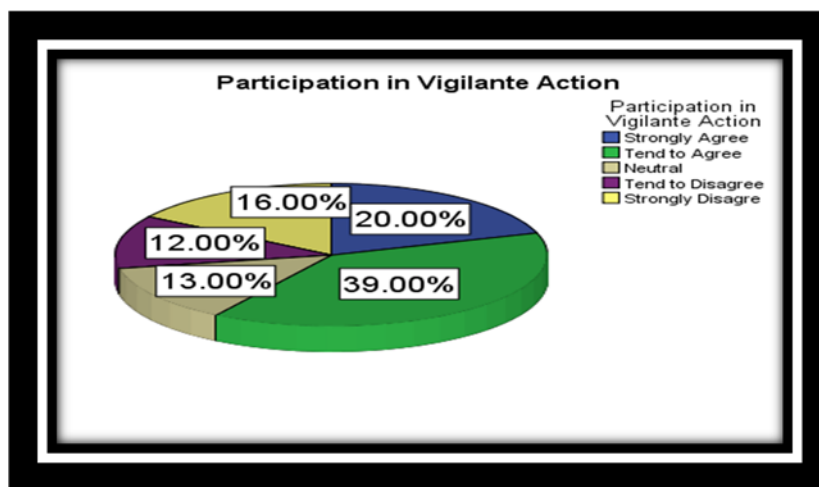
Figure 5.9 Community participation in crime-prevention

The question, whether community members had ever tried to arrest a person who was found committing crime or suspected of committing crime was asked. Figure 5.9 indicates that members of the community participate in crime-prevention as it is evident from the Table below. 72% of the surveyed respondents indicated that members (16%) of the community try to arrest a person committing crime or at least trying to commit crime.

The Figure below depicts that community members engage themselves in crime prevention, while 13% of the participants 'strongly disagree'. Only 3% of the participants tend to disagree with the idea of community participation in crime prevention. The remaining 12% were not sure whether or not the community was engaged in such activities.
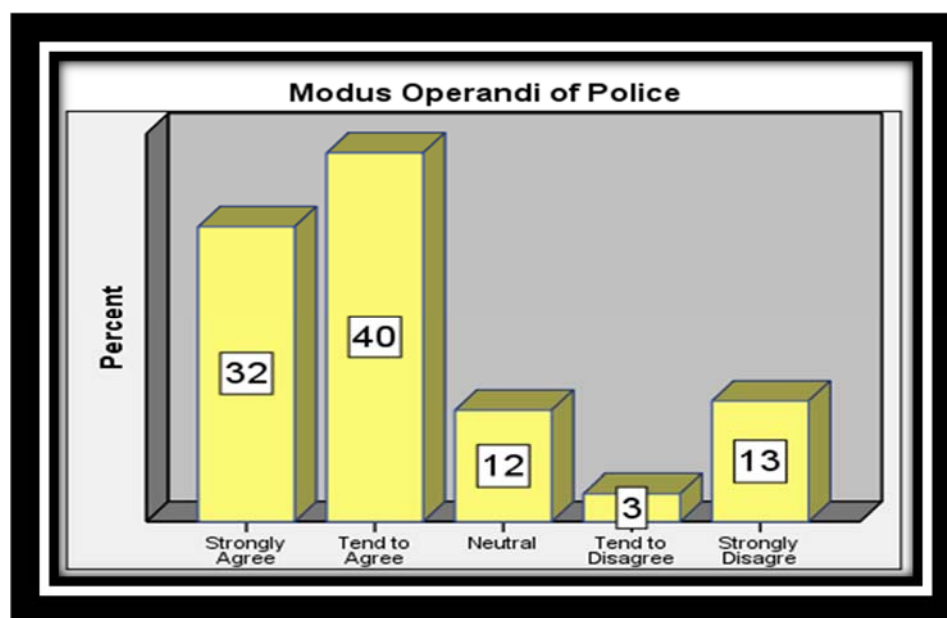
5.4.4.4. Community sense of empowerment

The researcher asked community members whether they were familiar with their rights and limitations on the use of force. Table 5.28 indicates that 49% of the participants 'agree' that members of the community have been trained on their rights and limitation concerning arrest and the use of force, although 33% of the respondents indicated that members of the community were not trained on their rights and limitation. The Table shows that 23% of the participants 'strongly disagree' with the notion that community members are trained on their rights and limitations on the use of force.

The remaining 18% were not sure whether community members have been trained to deal with issues concerning arrests of people committing crime.

Table 5.28 Community education on their rights and limitations

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Strongly Agree	21	21.0	21.0	21.0
	Tend to Agree	28	28.0	28.0	49.0
	Neutral	18	18.0	18.0	67.0
	Tend to Disagree	10	10.0	10.0	77.0
	Strongly Disagree	23	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	100	100.0	100.0	

5.4.4.5. Familiarity with the Bill of Rights

The researcher asked the participants on their understanding of the Bill of Rights. Figure 5.10, shows that 51% of the participants surveyed agree that community members understand the Bill of Rights as contained in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996). The Figure below shows that 18% of the responds 'strongly agree' that community members understand the provisions of the Bill of Rights while 33% tend to agree. Figure 5.10 indicates that 40% of the respondents disagree with the view that members of the community understand the Bill of Rights. The remaining 9% of the participants were not sure whether community members understood the Bill of Rights.

Figure 5.10 Understanding the Bill of Rights
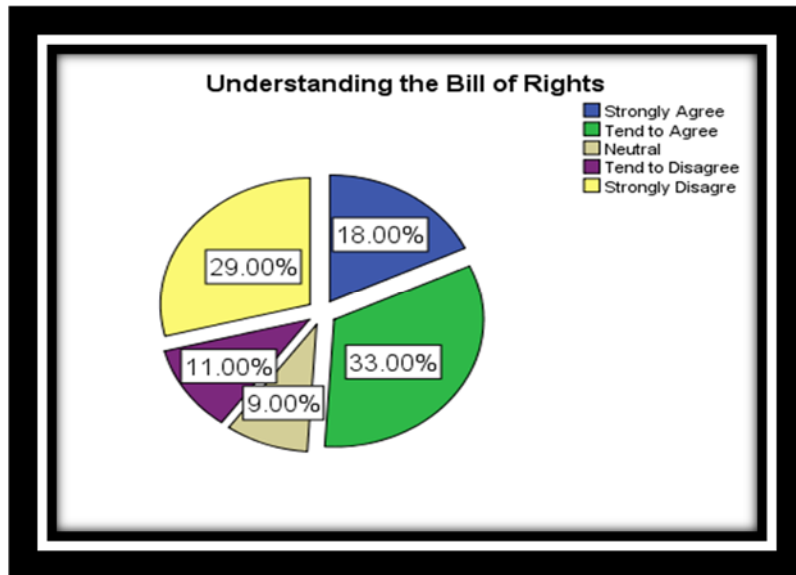
5.5. CROSS-CORRELATION

The following section focuses on Cross-correlation where the researcher cross-correlated the responses provided by the research participants from Phase A and Phase B as the researcher thematically arranged interrelated questions. The researcher wanted to establish whether the police, CPF and the community agree on certain issues concerning their shared responsibilities in policing. Tables have been created to ease the process of comparison of the more or less the same responses. A number of questions were posed to the different groups in order to verify responses to similar questions within different groups.

5.5.1. Meetings

The researcher cross-correlated the responses posed to the participants on their views on meetings. The researcher wanted to closely compare the response rates in terms of their positivity and negativity, to establish the reliability of the answers of a particular cluster. All the clusters had been asked about the meetings as presented in Table 5.2, Table 5.15 and Figure 5.5. The researcher deduced that the responses were satisfactory in confirming that meeting within the study area do take place. Even though a decline percentage had been noted from the community, the positive responses convinced the researcher that meetings between the parties exist.

Table 5.29. Cross-correlation on meetings

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	90%	10%	100%	0%	62%	38%

5.5.2. Anti-crime campaigns

The researcher cross-correlated Table 5.9, and 5.20 and Figure 5.25. The researcher wanted to closely compare the response rates in terms of their positivity and negativity to establish the reliability of the answers of a particular cluster. The researcher established that the overall percentage of participants agreeing on the arrangements of anti-crime campaigns is 76.0%. The above indicated percentage and the Table below of evidence enabled the researcher to draw an inference that there are programmes within the community which are aimed at preventing crime. The 24 % of the respondents were either uncertain or else provided negative responses to the question.

Table 5.30. Cross-correlation on anti-crime campaigns programmes

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	80%	20%	70%	30%	78%	22%

5.5.3. Crime reporting

The researcher cross-correlated the responses posed to the participants on their views on crime reporting from Table 5.8, Table 5.18 and Table 5.27. The researcher established that the majority (95%) of the police and CPF answered that crimes are being reported. The researcher deduced that the decline in the percentage from the community's' answers might have been influenced by the notion that, the community cluster in most cases reports crime and contemplated criminal activities to either the police or the CPF. Moreover, there is confirmation of this as 81% of the participants indicated that crimes or contemplated activities are reported.

Table 5.31. Cross-correlation on crime reporting

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	90%	10%	100%	0%	52%	48%

5.5.4. Consultation

The researcher cross-correlated the responses from Table 5.13, Table 5.18 and Figure 5.6. The researcher established that an overall 83.3% of the participants agreed that consultation between the police and members of the community do exist. The rest, 17.7% were either uncertain or they provided different views to the majority.

Table 5.32. Cross-correlation on consultation

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	90	10	100	0	60	40

5.5.5. Feedback

The Table below present the cross-correlated statistical data from Table 5.8, Table 5.18 and Table 5.27. The Table depicts that 79.3% of the respondents from the various clusters are of the view that feedback is provided to each other. The researcher deemed the outcomes as imperative for the success of a good working relationship between the police and the entire community on their shared responsibilities on policing and policing matters within the study area.

The researcher established that apart from the remaining 20.7%, the community held more percentage (16.0) as compared to 4.7% from the police cluster. The researcher deduced that feedback is not an issue within the study area as evidenced in Table 5.33.

Table 5.33. Cross-correlation on feedback

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	90%	10%	100%	0%	52%	48%

5.5.6. Communication

The researcher cross-correlated the responses obtained from participants on their views on communication to establish whether the stakeholders keep each other informed of the issues taking place within their respective areas and their areas of responsibilities. The Table below indicate very well that communication between the Alice policing cluster and the members of the community is effective. The researcher established that the majority (86.3%) of the research participants hold more or less the same notion. The remaining 13.7% of the participants were from the police and the community.

Table 5.34. Cross-correlation on communication

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	90	10	100	0	69	31

5.5.7. Inclusion in decision-making processes

Table 5.4, Table 5.17 and Figure 5.9 were cross-tabulated in this regard. The researcher established that 90.8% of the participants provided that all stake holders within the study area are included in decision-making processes.

Table 5.35. Cross-correlation on cluster consideration in decision-making

Cluster	The police		The CPF		The Community	
Responses	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain	Yes	No/Uncertain
Percentage	100%	0%	100%	0%	72%	28%

5.6. SUMMARY

This chapter presented the empirical evidence obtained through the use of interview with both the police and the CPF. Furthermore, the researcher also a used self-administered questionnaire to obtain data from community members. The overall participants who partook in the study were 120, for which 100 respondents came from the general community and the remainder 20 were from the police and the CPF, showing on a balanced probability. Cross-correlation was used to compare the responses from the above distinct clusters to validate or identify the gaps from more or less the same topical issues. The following chapter will present the overall findings of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY: A REFLECTIVE CONDENSED APPROACH

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the empirical data obtained from the participants with the hope of clarifying the aims and objectives of the current phenomenon. This chapter provides a summary of discussions on both the reviewed literature and the empirical study. The discussions will indicate whether the set aims and objectives of the study have been achieved.

6.2. GENERAL SUMMARY

In this study the researcher focused on the problem which is the main concern that triggered an interest in undertaking this study. Details were also provided on the research methodology and significance of the current study. The researcher realised that significant studies have been done in other places, such as Midrand, Polokwane and Johannesburg, Diepsloot and Muchipisi on community-policing but none have been done in Alice policing precinct on the shared responsibilities between the police and the community or partnership policing.

The escalation of vigilantism in various places served as a motivation to conduct this study and disseminate a report to the SAPS which can assist with the development of a partnership between the police and the community, as it is very crucial to peace and harmony, not only in the research area, but everywhere. The researcher presented recent incidents reported in local newspapers about vigilant incidents which showed the need for a quick response, not at the local level but at national level for senior-police managerial intervention. Theories were also considered as one of the most important aspects of this study as they provided supplementary emphasis and support for the study phenomenon. The methodological approach was well presented and clearly outlined as well all the procedures applied. Data collected from the research participants was presented in chapter five. The researcher provides a brief summary of the research chapters below.

Chapter One

The researcher provided a background in this chapter which served as an orientation to the study. Practically speaking, researchers cannot conduct a study without a problem; therefore, the incidents of vigilantism and increase in crime within the research area encouraged the researcher to conduct this study. This chapter briefly outlines the methodological approach used which was later explicitly presented in chapter four. The researcher also gave a brief orientation on pertinent theories considered describe shared responsibilities between the community and the police. The significance of the study had been included in this chapter as the researcher, deems the study which does not contribute to the improvement in the life of the community as valueless.

Chapter Two

The researcher reviewed relevant coherent literature in community policing, its developmental history as guided by legal mandates and the current situation within policing agencies in order to understand the notion of shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The notion of community policing will be minimally understood if the shared responsibilities advocacy receive less attention. The researcher, therefore reviewed the secondary data on partnership policing, legal mandates and policies concerned with shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The researcher also included the rule of law which the researcher believed will substantiate the responses of the participants.

Chapter Three

This chapter presented theoretical input and clarifications on the current study phenomenon. Theories are explanations of a natural or social behaviour, event, or topic. More formally, a scientific theory is a system of constructs (concepts) and propositions that collectively present a logical, systematic, and coherent explanation of a phenomenon of interest within some assumptions and boundary conditions (Bacharach, 1989). The applied theories made contribution on the clarification to the concept of community policing from a more diversified view.

A thorough literature review and theoretical explanation intertwined with empirical data enable researchers to develop a new theory. This can be done through recommendations which if adopted can be considered as original from the author, depending on the study under investigation. Even though community policing had been researched over the decades, there are few studies specifically looking at the shared responsibilities between the police and the community. The discussed theories advocate interactions between the police and the society at large, which is the core matter at hand. The likes of normative sponsorship theory which encourages community empowerment and the broken window theory which support zero tolerance on crime, links very well with the shared responsibilities between the police and the community.

Chapter Four

The researcher presented methodological approaches applied for the purpose of this study which include, but not limited to the following: type of methodology used, research design, study population, sampling and its methods, data collection and instruments data presentation and data analysis. Babbie and Mouton provide that research methodology, refers to the various methods, techniques and procedures that are employed in the process of implementing a research project. In this chapter, the researcher systematically outlined the methodological approach applied in this study. The final section considered issues of validity and reliability and the ethical principles.

Chapter Five

The researcher presented the empirical data obtained from the respondents as indicated on the data collection instruments in annexure B and C. As it had been outlined in Table 1.1, the researcher used triangulation methods on the design, sampling, theories, data collection methods and analysis. The researcher arranged respondents according to their clusters, (Phase A and B) and also categorised the responses in the form of themes.

Phase A of the data presentation contains information obtained through interview (qualitative data) with the police and the CPF within the Alice policing cluster. Phase B presents quantitative data obtained through self-administered questionnaires from members of the community on their shared responsibilities between the police and community. The overall participants who partook in the study were 120, of which 100 respondents came from the general community and the remainder 20 were from the police and the CPF, providing a balanced probability. Cross-correlation was used to compare the responses from the above distinct clusters to validate or identify the gaps from similar topical issues. The following section presents the findings obtained from the aim and objectives of this study.

6.3. Findings from the research aim

The main aim of this study was to explore community understanding of their role and of their shared responsibilities in partnership policing, with reference to the Alice community. The researcher was interested on obtaining the overall views of the participants from each of the three clusters, of their understanding of shared responsibilities. The researcher found out that participants understood their roles even though some of their responses contradicted each other. Below follows a brief summary of the findings from the objectives of this study, which also shed light on the shared responsibilities between the study participants.

Findings from objective 1: To establish community perceptions towards their role in partnership policing

The researcher intended to establish whether certain perceptions can have an impact on policing. The researcher asked the respondents about community trust in the police. The general understanding of the community is presented in Figure 5.2 which depicts that 59% of the respondents do trust the police while 41% do not trust the police. As shown in Figure 5.4, half of the participants (50%) pointed out that perception of the police tarnishes police-community relations.

The researcher was also interested in finding out whether the community is included on decision-making processes. Figure 5.6 revealed that the majority (60%) of the participants surveyed agreed that the police consult community members when important decisions affecting the community are taken. The above percentage consisted of 36% of respondents who strongly agreed with the idea that police officers consult the community while taking decisions, while 24% 'agreed'.

Findings from objective 2: To ascertain the impact of stereotypical attitudes which tarnishing community-police relationship

The researcher asked the respondents about police attitudes towards the community in Table 5.11. The rationale for the question was to check whether a conducive environment is being created which enables both the police and the community to work effectively. The responses from sixty percent of the respondents indicated that the police attitudes towards community members is favourable encouraging a good working environment. Some respondents indicated that it depends on an individual officer on how best he/she creates a conducive atmosphere between them (police) and the community.

Furthermore, respondent provide that the improved community relations as well as the increase in crime reporting level are a result of their dedication to any task assigned to them. The researcher asked the respondents about police understanding of the problems encountered by the community. Ninety percent (90%) of the respondents provided that police officers have an understanding of the problems encountered by the community.

Objective 3: To establish the existence of joint community structures which enable both the community and the police to have a joint-problem-solving approach.

Figure 5.9 indicates that members of the community participate in crime-prevention. From the responses provided, 72% of the surveyed respondents indicated that members of the community try to arrest a person committing or even trying to commit crime. Table 5.27 provides a cross tabulated responses on feedback to the community and anti-crime campaigns. 52% of the surveyed participants indicate that the police give feedback on the matters that have been discussed with the community.

Normative sponsorship theory declares that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957). It proposes that a community effort will only be sponsored if it is normative to all persons and interested groups involved. Kelling and Coles (1996) stress that the police should at all times preserve a healthy relationship with the public. In critical social theory it was stressed that the police should educate the public about problematic situations. Mafomme (2003) supported this by adding that community workshops should be initiated which aim at providing skills to the community and create a better relation between the police and the public.

Sutherland based his theory of differential association on the premise that an individual associates with different people or groups of people who have certain influence on such a person's behaviour (Stevens and Cloete, 2006). The researcher deduced that members of the community can avail themselves for joint community structures which enable the community and the police to have a joint-problem-solving approach. As noted from Sower (1957) above, people are of good will and they are willing to co-operate, and if approached in a transparent manner, that increases their chances to cooperate.

Objective 4: To ascertain police role on the empowerment of the respective communities they are serving

The researcher cross-correlated (see Table 5.29) the responses posed to the participants on their views on meetings. The researcher wanted to compare the response rate in terms of its positivity and negativity, to establish the reliability of the answers of a particular cluster. All the clusters had been asked about the meetings as presented in Table 5.2, Table 5.15 and Figure 5.5. The researcher deduced that the responses confirm that meeting within the study area do take place. Even though a small percentage answered in the negative, it was noted from the community's positive responses that meetings between the communities and the police exist. The researcher found that the overall percentage, from all clusters, who agreed, that police officers empower the community amounted to 84%.

The theory of community policing is based on the belief that the regular exchange of information between residents and the law enforcement personnel is required for effective policing (Moras, 1997). Mafomme (2001:17) adds that police education should include development of multiple skills to improve the system and to increase the knowledge of the police about changes in South African policing system. Sigwela (2013) in support of this reports in the Daily Sun newspaper in an the article entitled "Know your rights on bed" where warrant officer Thembi Gwe of the NMBP handed out leaflets to members of the community on sex education; the rationale behind this was to educate them on possible sexual violations by their husbands. The researcher learnt through this article that some members of the community need much information as one of the Motherwell residents told the journalist "The police did a good job by advising, but I still don't believe that a man can be raped by a woman."

Objective 5: To explore the level of community understanding on the rule of law.

Figure 5.10, shows that 51% of the participants surveyed agree that community members understand the Bill of Rights as contained in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) as the supreme law of the land. 18% of the responses 'strongly agree' that community members understand the provisions of the Bill of Rights while 33% 'tend to agree'. The researcher further found that 49% of the participants disagree that community members understand the Bill of Rights.

The researcher found two different versions of community understanding of the rule of law and as was evident from the results shown in Table 5.10 and 5.8 which told two different stories. Figure 5.8 shows that 59% of the surveyed participants 'agree' that members of the community partake in vigilante actions within their respective areas.

In the case of Mnene Zuko the outcome shows faith in Section 35(5) of the Constitution. A vigilante group conducted unlawful search where they entered the premise of the appellant. Even though the group found the appellant in possession of a stolen article (articles referred to in terms of section 20 of the CPA) found by complainant and his vigilante group in an unlawful entry and search of the appellant's home, in which the appellant was also assaulted.

It was held that the evidence was inadmissible because it was obtained in violation of the appellant's fundamental rights to dignity (S10), freedom and security of the person and privacy (S12) and its admission would be detrimental to the administration of justice: the complainant and his vigilante group had deliberately chosen to resort to self-help, had resorted to unlawful methods of achieving their aims and there was no reason why they could not have involved the police had they wanted to. The conviction of the appellant was set aside. The above decision affirms the supremacy of the law, compliance and its applicability.

Sekhonyane and Louw (2002) gave a report on interviews held with the *Amapogo a amathomaga* leadership in Diepsloot and got the following response.

> "We find a friend of the suspect and plead with him to tell us where his friend is or the loot is. If he refuses, we give him a taste of the medicine. After tasting the medicine he will confess.

The researcher is of the view that the above outlined *modus operandi* undermines the Constitutional provision and international obligations. Section 217 (1) states that evidence of any confession made by any person in relation to the commission of any offence shall, if such confession is proved to have been freely and voluntarily made by such person in his sound and sober senses and without having been unduly influenced thereto, be admissible in evidence against such person at criminal proceedings relating to such offence.

6.4. Findings form the theoretical perspective

Critical social theory relates to a theory which is capable of taking a critical stance towards itself by recognising its deduction and its own role in the world. Critical social theory takes a critical stance towards the social reality it investigates, by providing grounds for justification (University of Sussex, 2006). This theory is a practical social science theory that inspires people to become socially active to correct their socio–economic and political circumstances, so that they might have their expressed needs met (Braiden, 1997).

The researcher found the above assertion supporting community empowerment as it postulates that it inspires people to become socially active. Since crime is a social problem, it necessitates that all structures within the community play their role on the shared responsibilities. Furthermore, the US Department of Justice (1999) assert that discussion and analysis of previous disagreements between the police and the minorities have revealed a general need, for better community understanding of the "nuts and bolts" of the police department's mission and responsibilities.

The researcher found that critical social theory provides a sense of empowerment where officers are given the opportunity to take an independent action to solve problems, work with members of the community and strive to improve social ecosystem of the neighbourhoods. According to Palmiotto (1998) empowerment begins with the community organisations and groups that take an active role with common purpose, which is to prevent crime. Through this theory, the researcher found that the community can become more empowered and still be able to, periodically, reassess their current activities to determine if they are still relevant and effective. The researcher also discussed broken window theory in chapter three.

The researcher found that broken window theory emphasises zero tolerance to crime or anticipated criminal activities. Kappeler and Gaines (2001) cite how the notion of broken window has provided important insights and innovation to the field of policing. Zero tolerance, as explained by McArdle and Ezren (2001) was one of the aggressive programmes applied in the New York City, which enabled officers to lower their tolerance

and enforce many minor infractions that historically were ignored by the police. The above assertion enabled the researcher to deduce that the manner in which the community responds to crime, might have influence on the notion of zero tolerance. The researcher also found it imperative that community members are empowered on human rights, so that they can take an informed action while responding to crime.

The researcher noted that 'broken window theory' supports the shared responsibilities between the community and the police. The researcher also looked at the normative sponsorship theory which places much emphasis on community readiness to provide an aiding hand. The researcher found that the theory emphasises that most people are of good will and are willing to cooperate with others to satisfy their needs (Sower, 1957). The above informed the researcher to have no doubts that community members can partake in crime-prevention as it is their civil duty. It was also found that the authorities emphasise that the police should at all times preserve a healthy relationship with the public. In a nut shell, the above theories to be ideal in explaining the shared responsibilities and expectations from the police and the community. Furthermore, the above theories emphasise the sense of empowerment which is one of the things the researcher wanted to find out in this study. The following section discusses the researcher's own observation.

6.5. Findings from the researcher's observation

Science begins with observation and must ultimately return to observation for its final validation (Goode, 1952). The researcher observed that in Alice the police and community are engaged in a partnership in police matter which was the main interest of this investigation. The researcher observed that both the police and the community were responsible for policing matters. The feasibility and accessibility of the police made it very easy for members of the community to interact with them. The researcher observed that police-community meetings were taking place within the study area and that police visibility within the study area is not a matter of assumption but it exists. The police try their best to consult with the community so as to find out their concerns and come up with possible solutions. The researcher observed that police officers were accessible to the community because they availed themselves during community gatherings, as well as during urgent meetings with the CPF and community leaders.

6.6. Summary from the overall findings

The researcher considers the above findings as reliable and valid. The researcher's intent in studying the shared responsibilities was to have a closer scrutiny of the overall perception of the community's general understanding. The researcher provided a brief summary of the findings from the aim of the study, objectives, theories and the researcher's own observation in this chapter. The literature in chapter two discussed the legal mandates and polices which support shared responsibilities between the police and the community which forms an integral part of the study findings.

The available support from the presented theories enabled the researcher to conclude that both members of the community and the police understand their shared responsibilities, but the police should remain the guiding hand. The researcher also noted that there had been a considerable incidences of people taking the law into their own hands which contradicts with the legal mandates. Police officers during their meetings should put effort on community empowerment so as to avoid such incidents. The following chapter focuses on the recommendations and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the findings of the current study's phenomenon. The findings of the study concurs the collective views of previous research outputs, authority, and the empirical data obtained from the research participants. De Vos *et al*, (2005:263) outline some functions of literature review which are, but not limited to the following:

- ❖ It demonstrates the underlying assumption behind the general research question and

- ❖ It shows that the researcher has identified some gaps in previous research and that the present study will fill a demonstrated need.

The researcher had identified some gaps between the previous research and the current situation which had been influenced by, to mention a few, the current social conditions, research developments and legal mandates.

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The researcher deems recommendations to be of utmost importance in any study, since they enable one to share a more comprehensive research-based experienced with various stakeholders who may benefit from the study. The recommendations below are specifically meant to convey the message to the Criminal Justice Departments (CJD), the community at large and all distinct stakeholders who can make a contribution to the shared responsibilities between the police and the community.

The recommendation of this study will be influenced by the findings from the literature review and theoretical ideas (content analysis) and empirical information which was obtained from the participants. Through the findings obtained from the above-mentioned sources, the researcher will make recommendations, in an attempt to contribute to knowledge dissemination on shared responsibilities between the police and the entire community.

7.2. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE POLICE

This section focuses on the recommendations to the police as the main drivers in policing. The researcher deems police officers as the first structure which should advocate police-community inclusion in distinct aspects of policing. Furthermore, the researcher support the view that police officers cannot do it on their own, but depend on the community to solve many social problems within the areas they serve.

7.2.1. Recommendations on factors that can have an influence on improving police-community relations

Effective communication should be considered as one of the key influential aspects of police-community relation. Police officers should adapt new policing style as guided by legislations and policies regulating their day-to day activities. The state of violence and abusive language which had caught the attention of the media should be avoided through the use of *"verbal judo".* The researcher, further recommend academic development and organisational change for the senior officials. The senior management should be employed on the basis of their scholastic background in their distinct fields rather than political deployment to enhance a sense of informed decision. Transparency among members of the SAPS will enhance police-community relations since police expectations from the community will be openly outlined. The researcher recommends that the national head of the police should timeously a call the national dialogue on crime prevention. The researcher recommend that communication within the SAPS should follow the below depicted diagram.

Diagram 7.1 Communication Model

1. The police

2. The community

3. The CPF at community level

7. Joint-Problem discussion

4. Community and CPF discussion

5. Police digesting community concerns and planning

6. Feedback from the CPF

8. Police guidance

9. Joint Problem Solving

11. Dissemination and exchange of information

10. Police pro-active planning
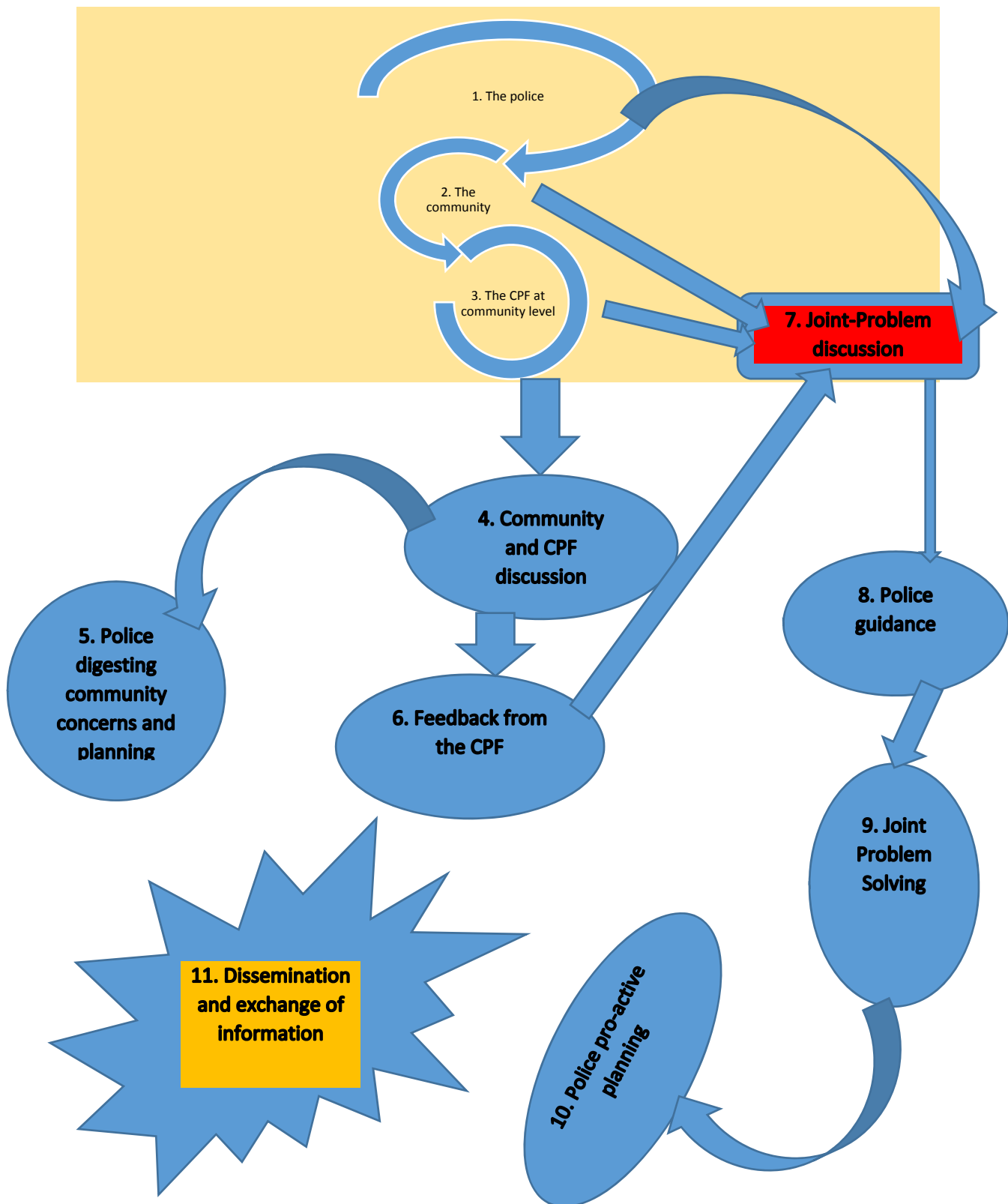
7.2.2. Monitoring police compliance on the legal mandates

The police management should objectively monitor police compliance on legal mandates. The incidents of police abusing their powers had been escalating in SA as it is evident from sampled incidents of police brutality. The image portrayed by police officers in the case of Mido Macia, a Mozambican taxi driver who was pulled behind the police van shows non-compliance with legal mandates. Officers should understand the reasonableness of their actions whether it implies the application of deadly force or not. Adherence to the supreme law of the land and some international obligations will improve the image of all the police agencies in the country.

Furthermore, it is recommended that police officers receive continuous training on the legal mandates and policies regulating their day-to-day duties. The above will ensure that officers stay informed on the amended legislation to ensure proper compliance. The training proffered should be a field-based need specialisation, which is targeted at a particular officer at a time. The diagram below, emphasises the need for continuous review of the current legal mandates and the policies regulating a day-to-day activities of a police official. This should be done with the notion that changes must be effected and legislation must be continuously revisited for amendment purposes.

Diagram 7.2. Policy and legal mandates advice

Review Current mandate (Constitutional and Police Act)

Recommend legal changes to Mandate and Policy

Monitor and Feedback
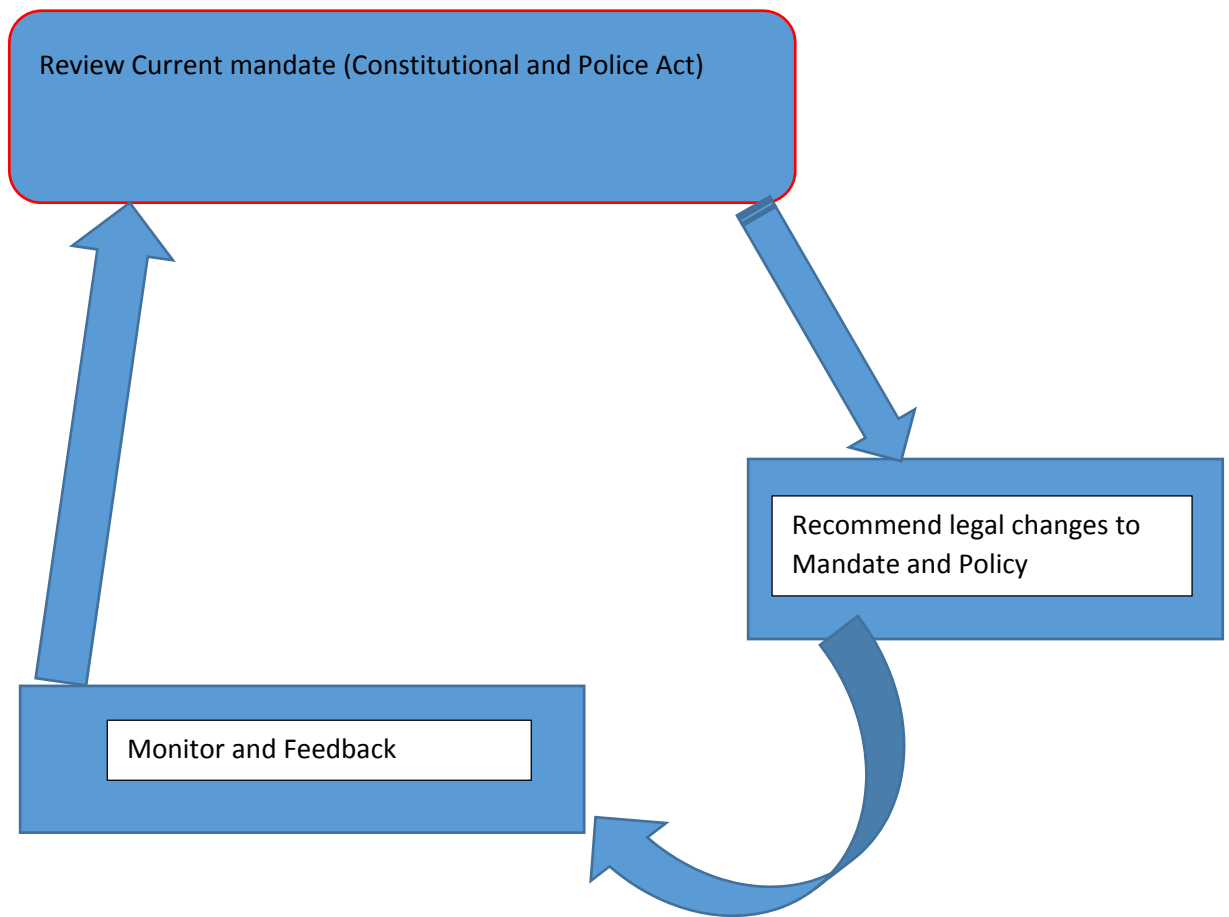
7.2.3. Joint-problem identification and joint-problem-solving

Police-community relations can improve the identification of problematic situations and assist both community members and the police to closely work together. Most police and community members, when confronted with a problem immediately turn to notions of deterrence and   incapacitation. Only when these fail to adequately address the problem, often failing repeatedly, do the police and the public explore something new. Joint-problem identification requires police officers to work together with the community of a

certain geographic setting on their responsibilities in order to obtain first-hand information from the people concerned and to work together.

The researcher recommends that planning activities from both the police and the community should be based on information exchange as depicted in Phase one below. The above assertion will enable the two parties to achieve their common objective which is to combat crime in a proper way or minimise the chances of its commission. Moreover, as shown in 7.2 organisational planning is imperative in problem-solving as it will enable the police management to have a focused empowerment programmes. The researcher, is of the notion that parties involved in community policing should introspect on their engagement with others to ensure consistency and return to continuous planning, as presented below.

Diagram 7.3 improved service delivery and approach

PHASES	STEPS
Phase one: Planning of Activities	1. Information/Knowledge
	2. Awareness
	3. Joint-problem identification
	4. Organisation and planning
Phase two: Programme and Implementation Management	5. Subject training/Empowerment
	6. Assessment of work in progress
Phase three: Monitoring and Evaluation of Programme	7. Monitoring and evaluation
Phase four: Self Promotion	8. Return to planning

7.2.4. Involvement of academics and practitioners on policy formulation

The researcher recommends the creation of a conducive environment for promotion of community policing and a focus on problem-solving through engaging academics and distinct practitioners on policy formulation. Community policing needs a well organised strategic approach as the specialised crime-fighting model, or simply the "professional model" of policing.

The involvement of experienced academics who have worked for police department in SA, for policy formulation can play a pivotal role. To mention a few academics who worked within the police agency in SA are Professors I De Vries of Tshwane University of Technology, Prof CJ Reolofse of University of Limpopo, Dr Mofokeng of Tswhane University of Technology and Advocate G Joubert of the University of Venda. With the above-mentioned professionals, their practical and scholastic experience can contribute immensely on policy formulation and development.

Most of the researches in community policing had been influenced by the intellectual work of international academics such as Professors Mark Moore of the Harvard Kennedy School (USA), George Kelling of North-eastern University and Robert Trojanowicz of Michigan State University (USA). The above opinion prompts the researcher not to hesitate to recommend that well versed academics and researchers be considered as significant components of policing development. The above recommendations are further clarified by the below diagram (diagram 7.4), which recommends the policy and strategic interface.

Diagram 7.4 Policy and strategy interface

1. The SAPS

2. Proposal of a new strategy

3. Consultation with academics, business sectors and the general community

4. Drafting of the proposed strategy

5. Document released for public comments

6. Inputs from research institutes, Criminal justice organizations and other governmental departments

7. Comments, discussion, analysis and planning

8. Policy analysis

9. Impact findings analysis

10. Discussion and adoption

11. Implementation of the strategy

7.2.4.1 Transformative policing

The seventh of Sir Robert Peel's nine principles of policing is a worthwhile starting point for argument. It is to maintain at all times a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police; the police being only members of the public who are paid to give full time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen, in the interest of community welfare and existence (Community-based Policing Paper No. 6).

With the guide of the above assertion, the author noted that for the police to win public trust and confidence they should not alienate themselves from the community they serve. Crime solving depends upon the community as the source of information, since they observe and suffer the consequences of criminal conduct, on a continuous basis; therefore, a well-planned and formalised approach that will ensure that the police trainees are equipped with the necessary knowledge to deal with community issues after graduation, is necessary.

Diagram 7.5 below illustrates the researcher's further recommendation on the transformation of community policing. The researcher's notion presented below if formally proffered by specialists in their particular fields may boost the police service, in a broader sense.

Diagram 7.5 Transformation in policing

Formalised education		•Leads to a well transformed police agency •Produces quality professionals •Community engament •Research
Focused physical training		•Need based physical fitness
Intertwined results		•Well condesned theoretical approach •Needs based practical approach
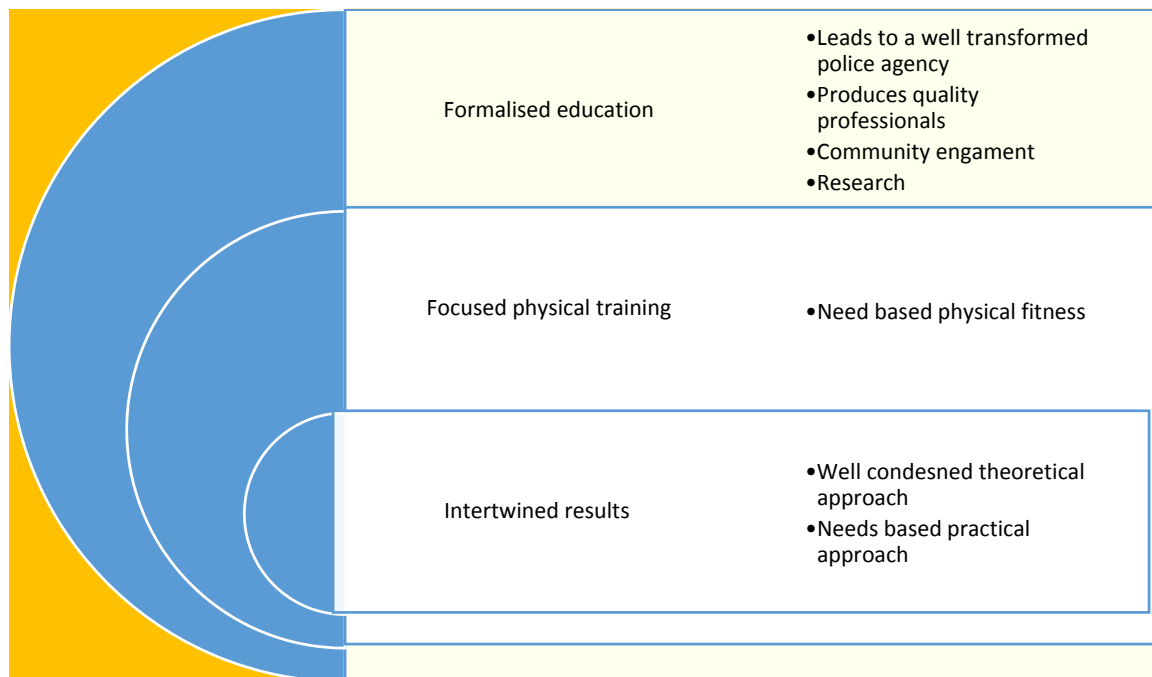
7.3. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE CPF

This section focuses on the recommendations to the CPF as the intercessor of the shared responsibilities in policing the community.

7.3.1. The provision of training on the rule of law and its applicability

The researcher recommends that the CPF be offered training as it will assist them to respect the law while effecting their duties. As noted from the sections concerned with meetings, the researcher recommends unremitting community empowerment through campaigns as it had been noted from the outcomes of **Tables 5.4.4.7** and **5.4.4.8.** The training of private persons on effecting and arrest should be provided. Furthermore, it is recommended that the CPF be educated about the constitution of the Republic and its applicability.

7.3.2. Governmental support for its effectiveness

The researcher noted the need for partnership between distinct authorities within the literature reviewed, legal mandates and policies as well as the theories. Therefore, the researcher recommend that the local municipality in Alice should give more support on police-community crime-prevention programmes. It is recommended that the different structures within the local government support the police on the fight against crime since crime-prevention cannot be the responsibility of a single structure within the community.

For example, DCS should also provide a support system to ex-offenders which can minimise recidivism. It is also imperative that the Victim Offender Mediation (VOM) ensures that more efforts are made during the mediation processes to prevent a situation where people resort to vigilantism.

7.4. RECOMMENDATIONS TO THE COMMUNITY

The researcher considers the general members of the community as who the entire research is about. The above assertion is influenced by the researcher's conviction that a police officer can only be seen and identified as such only if he or she is in uniform, which means crime affects every person. The researcher recommends that community members should inform the police of any suspicious or criminal activities. This is because some of the crimes take place in a private places which can hardly catch the attention of police officer, but needs community intervention. Therefore, the researcher recommends that community members should disseminate information to the police with the hope of creating a safer environment for themselves. The researcher recommends that members of the community attend meetings to ensure that social concerns are jointly resolved.

7.5. CONCLUSION

Community policing is a core issue in democratic policing which advocates for inclusivity. It has been proven through the output of many studies that the involvement of community members in policing is imperative. The reviewed literature in this study shared abundant intellectual and practical inputs which if observed, analysed and applied can improve the current standard of policing in SA as a whole. The media portrayal of the current policing style and activities should be scrutinised in order to understand possible ways to resolve issues.

Partnership-policing requires that the police and the community work jointly since they are inseparable regardless of improper policing approach which had been observed for some time. The distinct structures within the community should take the responsibility and stand united in the fight against crime. Proper compliance to the legal mandates regulating policing should be thoroughly reviewed to meet the standard of policing required at this time. The community must not blame the police for not doing enough but they should get involved as this will promote their partnership.

The community must understand that community policing means the police working together with the community in the fight against crime. This does not mean that civilians take over the role of the police but that the police act in consultation with the community and be responsive to the needs of the community they serve.

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ANNEXTURE A: INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding "**COMMUNITY POLICING AND PARTNERSHIP POLICING: A CASE STUDY OF SHARED RESPONSIBILITIES BETWEEN THE POLICE AND ALICE COMMUNITY"** I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop participating at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not, in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally. I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview. I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential. I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.

……………………………..

Signature of participant   **Date**:…………………..

ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

QUESTIONS ASKED TO THE POLICE AND CPF MEMBERS

Instructions

❖ Answering all questions will help the study to be fruitful;

❖ For the sake of confidentiality and anonymity, do not provide your name.

❖ If you are participating in the study you can withdraw anytime without penalty

A. THE POLICE (SAPS)

Biographical details of the respondents

1. What is your age?

2. What is your gender?

3. What is your race?

4. What is your marital status?

5. What is your rank?

6. How long have you been in the police organization?

7. How frequent do you hold meetings with the community?

8. Where do you hold meetings with members of the community?

9. Which cluster within the community do you involve in your meetings?

10. Are there dedicated officers participating in the CPF?

11. How are police reservist included in crime-prevention decision-making in Alice policing precinct?

12. How the communication between the police and the community takes place?

13. How do police officers disseminate reports on crime trends and success when having meetings with the CPFs?

14. Do police officers organise campaigns which educate the community about their rights and the rule of law?

    If yes, how?

    If not, why?

15. Do the police understand community problems, if yes, how do they solve the problems?

    If not, why?

16. Do the police attitudes towards the community win public trust?

    If yes, how?

    If no, how best can it be improved?

17. Do members of the community understand their role in intelligence?

If yes how?

If no why?

18. Do the police encourage members of the community to use the hotline to report crime?

If yes how?

If no, why?

1. What is your age?

2. What is your gender?

3. What is   your?

4. What is your marital status?

5. What is your educational background?

6. What is your occupation?

The dissemination and exchange of information

7. How frequently are meetings of the CPF held?

8. Where do those meetings take place?

9. Do the meetings involve all members of the community?

10. Are members of the community kept informed about CPF meetings?

    If not why?

    If yes how?

11. Do you have a consultation office where members of the community get assisted?

12. Is there any crime prevention programmes in Alice policing precinct?

13. Which problems did the CPF faced in its activities since it was formed?

14. What are the main crimes threatening the community and how do you solve them?

15. In general, what are the crimes threatening the community?

ANNEXURE C: QUESTIONNAIRE

A COPY OF QUESTIONS ASKED TO THE COMMUNITY

Instructions

❖ Answering all questions will help the study to be fruitful;

THE COMMUNITY

1: Biographical details of the respondents

1. Your gender?

1.Male	
2. Female	

2. Your age?

16-20	
21-30	
31-40	
41-50	
51-60	
0ther	

3. Your marital status?

1.Married	
2.Not married	
3.Cohabitant	
4.Widowed	
5.Divorced	
6.Other	

4. Your educational background?

1.High School	
2.College	
3.University	
4.Post-graduate	
5.other	

5. Your occupational status?

1.Employed	
2.Unemployed	
3.Self-employed	
4.Student	
5.Other	

Community perceptions towards partnership policing					
Questions	**Responses**				
	Strongly agree	Tend to agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Tend to disagree	Strongly disagree
1. Members of the community trust the police	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
2. Community perceptions towards the police tarnishes police community relations	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
3. The community participate in anti-crime campaigns?	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
The interaction between the community and the police					
4. Members of the community attend meetings arranged by the SAPS	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

5. There are programmes arranged for community members to freely interact with the police	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
6. Police officers disseminate information to the police	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
Community empowerment					
7. Police officers consult the community when important decisions affecting the community are taken	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
8. The community report contemplated criminal activities or criminal hide-outs to the police	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
9. The community receive feedback on the issues concerning crime within their area	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
10. Police officers arrange anti-crime campaigns within the Alice policing precinct	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
The community and the rule of law					
11. Community members are aware of people who participate in vigilante action	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
12. Community members tried to arrest a person whom was found committing crime or suspected of committing crime	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
13. the Community is well informed on their rights and limitations concerning arrests and the use of force	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]
14. The community understand the provision of the Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996)	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION AND CONTRIBUTION MADE IN THIS STUDY!!!!!!!!!!