

THE IMAGE OF TRAFFIC POLICING IN TRANSKEI

By

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ABSTRACT

"Society needs and must somehow obtain truly exceptional men to discharge police duties. They must be of superior intellectual endowment, physically sound and free from mental and nervous disorders; they must have character traits which will insure integrity, honesty, and efficiency; their personality must command the respect and liking of their associates and the general public".

August Vollmer (Landman (1980)).
Police and Policing: An Introduction

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, Nomteto - a special lady in my life whose love, understanding and encouragement enabled me to complete this research project.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation "*The image of Traffic Policing in Transkei*" represents my own work both in conception and execution. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete reference.

**MG KABINGESI**

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SUMMARY

This research aims at investigating the image of traffic policing in Transkei. To achieve this goal, questionnaires were distributed to a purposive sample of 600 respondents. Five towns whose people are exposed to traffic policing were targeted, namely: Umtata, Butterworth, Engcobo, Qumbu and Libode. The researcher personally collected the questionnaires. A total of five hundred completed questionnaires were collected. To achieve reliable results, Chi-square, F-test and t-test have been implemented to test for significant differences.

The attitudes of the respondents have been measured with regard to two traffic institutions in Transkei, namely: Municipal and Provincial traffic institutions. Traffic order cannot be achieved in Transkei if a sound partnership between the traffic police and the public is lacking.

Key findings emanating from this investigation are as follows :

- (a) An overall negative evaluation of selected traffic functions has been shown by the respondents.
- (b) There appears to be an overemphasis on the reactive traffic policing at the expense of proactive policing.
- (c) It also appears that the conduct of traffic officers is somewhat negatively evaluated by the motoring public. Among the most salient problems that could hamper sound police-community relations, in particular the fostering of a partnership between the active partner (traffic police) and passive partner (motoring public), are :
 - * unfriendliness;
 - * lack of helpfulness;
 - * incompetence;

- * unreasonableness;
- * bribery; and
- * partiality.

The following recommendations have been made :

- * Children traffic patrols under the control and supervision of a traffic officer should be introduced in all schools where children are crossing public roads on their way to and from school.
- * Traffic education and training programmes should be promoted by the government.
- * Traffic courts should also be established where traffic cases can be handled expeditiously.
- * Traffic officers should be encouraged to use their discretion when performing their duties.
- * The mass media should be utilised to inform the public about traffic problems and traffic education programmes.
- * Traffic policemen should direct traffic during peak hours in Umtata and Butterworth. Street patrols should be prioritised by both traffic institutions.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie ondersoek behels 'n studie betreffende die beeld van verkeerspolisiëring in Transkei. Vir hierdie doel is vraelyste aan 'n doelbewuste steekproefgroep van 600 respondente versprei. Persone in vyf dorpe wat aan verkeerspolisiëring blootgestel is, naamlik Umtata, Butterworth, Engcobo, Qumbu en Libode, is as teikengroepe uitgesonder. Die vraelyste is deur die navorser persoonlik versprei. 'n Totaal van 500 voltooide vraelyste is opgeneem. Om betroubare resultate te verseker, is gebruik gemaak van die Chi-kwadraattoets, die F-toets en die t-toets vir beduidendheid in verskille.

Respondente se houdings is aan die hand van twee verkeersinstellings in Transkei gemeet, naamlik munisipale en provinsiale verkeersinstellings. Verkeersorde in Transkei kan nie verseker word nie indien 'n gesonde vennootskap tussen die verkeerspolisie en die publiek ontbreek.

Sleutelbevindings, voortspruitend uit hierdie ondersoek, is soos volg :

- (a) 'n Algehele negatiewe evaluering van geselekteerde verkeersfunksies deur die respondente.
- (b) Daar blyk 'n oorbeklemtoning te wees van reaktiewe verkeerspolisiëring ten koste van proaktiewe polisiëring.
- (c) Dit blyk ook dat die gedrag van verkeersbeamptes negatief geëvalueer word deur die bestuurspubliek. Van die mees uitstaande probleme wat kan bydra tot 'n belemmering van gesonde polisie-gemeenskapsverhoudinge, in besonder die vestiging van 'n vennootskap tussen die aktiewe vennoot (verkeerspolisie) en die passiewe vennoot (bestuurspubliek), is die volgende :
 - * onvriendelikheid,
 - * gebrek aan hulpverlening,
 - * onbevoegdheid,
 - * onredelikheid,
 - * omkopery, en
 - * partydigheid.

Die volgende aanbevelings word voorgedra :

- * Skolier verkeerspatrollies onder die beheer en toesig van 'n verkeersbeampte behoort by alle skole ingestel te word waar skoliere openbare strate kruis.

- * Verkeersopvoedings- en opleidingsprogramme moet bevorder word deur die regering.
- * Verkeershowe behoort ingestel te word om die spoedige afhandeling van verkeersake te verseker.
- * Verkeersbeamptes behoort aangemoedig te word om hulle diskresie te gebruik tydens die uitvoering van hul pligte.
- * Die massa media behoort ingespan te word om die publiek in te lig oor verkeersprobleme en verkeersopvoedingsprogramme.
- * Verkeersbeamptes behoort die verkeer te reguleer gedurende spitstye in Umtata en Butterworth. Straatpatrollering behoort deur beide verkeersinstellings opgeskerp te word.

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The distinctive and delicate role of the traffic policing function contributing towards the realisation of the social ideal namely harmonious, orderly and safe co-existence of people, cannot be ignored. Although this function, namely, the maintenance of traffic order and safety forms part of the total concept of policing in general, it does not mean that the traffic function is subsidiary or inferior to other facets of policing. On the contrary, the categorisation of roles within a societal context emphasises the necessity of society's objective being realised in a directed and specialised manner. Every society, from the most primitive to the most complex, consists of interdependent individuals who are obliged to co-operate in order to survive for the sake of certain communal advantages. Interdependence and co-operation imply manifold and many-sided mutual contacts and interactions giving rise to many varied relationships. Contacts may have beneficial effects or manifestations of conflict with specific relationships (Van Heerden, Smit and Potgieter, 1983:1-2).

Due to a continuous process of interaction between society and its role fulfillers, the various roles are not fulfilled in isolation from one another. Mutual expectations and obligations are at stake. This does not mean that maintenance of traffic order in social context is the sole task of traffic law enforcement officers. There is, according to Van Heerden (1986:131) a tacit partnership between traffic law enforcement officers and the motoring public. The traffic law enforcers represent the active side of partnership, since they are paid to execute the role and task which is ultimately the responsibility of every citizen.

On the other hand, the passive partner bears the primary responsibility for his own safety and survival, but has also the secondary duty of helping and supporting the active partner. The two "partners" do not exist as discrete entities, but form (or should form) a solid unity. For this reason it is clear that traffic law enforcement could not be fulfilled in a vacuum or isolation. It is also important to note that traffic control activities bring the traffic police more frequently into contact with the public than any other form of police work (Van Heerden, 1986:216).

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

In order to understand the role of traffic policing in society, it must be borne in mind that due consideration should be given to a variety of complicated factors. A detailed discussion of such factors cannot be undertaken in a research of this nature. Nevertheless, the intensity of these factors as well as the possible influence they may have on traffic policing, can only be discovered through a general exploratory research of this nature.

This research project is being undertaken primarily to evaluate the perceptions and understanding of the role and image of traffic policing by the inhabitants of Transkei, i.e. whether the traffic police role is fulfilled in accordance with their expectations, and to determine the type of image this population group has of traffic policing. The researcher is of the opinion that this information could possibly show whether a gap in the partnership exists, and whether this could result in the withdrawal of assistance in maintaining traffic order, and how shortcomings could be rectified.

The researcher is also of the opinion that a research of this nature will not only be relevant to society and its traffic policing institutions, but will also be of theoretical significance in the field of study of traffic policing at Univer-

sity level. The researcher is also aware that the objective of explanation and identification of certain aspects could only be achieved when the views of both partners in the partnership are heard. However, this research deals only with the views of selected inhabitants of Umtata, Butterworth, Engcobo, Qumbu and Libode, while the views of the active partner, namely the traffic police, are left for future research. On the other hand, to achieve maximum success in the explanations, the accumulated facts are interpreted within the framework of the basic theoretical and philosophical principles of policing.

1.3 AIMS OF THE RESEARCH

Furthermore, the aims of this research are as follows :-

- (a) to identify factors in the traffic situation for more detailed future research;
- (b) to disseminate information to traffic planners, administrators and executives which may improve goal realisation;
- (c) to increase knowledge and insight of the traffic policing role and its principles; and
- (d) to make a contribution to the field of study of criminology for the benefit of students and researchers.

The researcher is aware that other investigations similar to this one could have been done in other countries. However, it is not the aim of this research to make comparison between the findings of those and the present study. The researcher has also noted that policing is influenced by the cultural background and the degree of socialization of a community. While basic theoretical and philosophical principles remain the same for all democratic societies, differences in the structure of these societies and its policing institutions would make comparison impossible.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

1.4.1 Research approach

The research approach that has been followed in this investigation is positivistic in nature. Positivism represents a particular view of reality. It refers to philosophical epistemology, i.e. the nature of phenomena and the procedures for determining their existence, by means of observation as the only means of viewing the outside world. In the positivistic approach the actualities perceived by the senses are controlled, processed and transformed into science (Hughes, 1980:6).

In order to orientate the researcher on the topic of traffic policing, a diversity of literature had been consulted to obtain knowledge and insight of the basic principles of policing in general so that the role functions could be approached on a scientific level. In order to get factual information concerning the subject, the techniques of social survey have been employed (see par. 1.6).

The present research is based mainly on information which had been obtained from a pre-coded, closed structured questionnaire, distributed to a representative sample of the inhabitants (including all the different race groups) in Umtata, Butterworth, Qumbu, Libode and Engcobo. The questionnaire implemented in the present investigation was adapted from a questionnaire used by :

Van Heerden, T.J.,	1983.	<u>Die beeld van verkeers-</u>
Smit, B.F. and		<u>polisiëring in Suid-Afrika.</u>
Potgieter, P.J.		Unpublished research report.
		Pretoria: University of
		South Africa.

This questionnaire had been tailored to suit the present study. For instance, Van Heerden, et al. (1983:cf.) implemented two questionnaires; one to gauge the perceptions and

attitudes of the public towards traffic policing and another one to gauge the perceptions and attitudes of traffic officers. Secondly, these authors conducted their investigation at a national level by making use of six main regions and sub-regions. As will be noted, this investigation is confined to a specific territory only, testing the perceptions and attitudes of the public of Transkei. This questionnaire could not possibly embody questions related to every type of contact situation or every function of the role. The questions have therefore been tailored to a number of general items.

The questionnaire (Annexure A) is divided as follows :-

- Section A: Demographical information about respondents.
- Section B: Functional aspects relating to traffic policing.
- Section C: Aspects pertaining to the individual role performer.
- Section D: General aspects such as the status of the traffic police role, partiality and opinions concerning the improvement of the general traffic police image.
- Section E: Particulars concerning aspects of driving behaviour.

Since people differ in dispositions, perceptions, interests, behaviour etc., it could be expected that attitudes may differ in accordance with social status, education and religion within a group. Likewise, environmental differences may also lead to differences in attitudes and opinions. In order to attain objectivity when evaluating differences, the questions in the questionnaire are analysed mainly with reference :

- * gender;
- * home language (see par. 1.9);
- * age; and
- * educational qualifications of the research group.

The questionnaire has been specifically designed to reveal opinions and attitudes. Attitudes are individual mental processes which determine both the actual and potential responses of each person to the social world and are directed towards some object in a particular situation. It is not possible to separate attitudes from knowledge, because attitudes can only be thoroughly evaluated when the knowledge of the respondents is also taken into account. The responses of the research group therefore, amount to behaviour which is a reflection of attitudes towards traffic policing (Fishbein, 1967:5).

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology refers to an operational framework within which facts are placed so that their meaning may seem more clearly. It sets guidelines for the empirical-scientific investigation and the course of action of the investigator (Van der Walt, Cronje and Smit, 1982:160). Three major research methods are open to criminological study of the crime phenomenon in general and attitudes pertaining to traffic policing, dealing with traffic criminality, namely :-

- (a) the case analysis method,
- (b) method of mass observation, and
- (c) the analytical method.

While the methods listed above are distinguished from one another, they do work as complementary methods. The need of the given research and the approach of the researcher will determine the method and techniques to be implemented.

1.5.1 The method of case analysis

Case analysis is one of the oldest and very important methods that criminologists have been using. When a researcher undertakes to investigate crime causation, this method is "indispensable". Case analysis is a method that a researcher may use to get knowledge of and insight into the crime phenomenon and other factors that are connected with it (Van der Walt, et al., 1982:170).

1.5.2 The method of mass observation

Quetelet was, according to Van der Walt, et al. (1982:170), the first person to mention that crime is a social phenomenon which can be analysed and explained with the assistance of statistics. He is also famous for revealing the possibility of the application of statistics to observe human qualities, i.e. (physical, psychological and moral) and social phenomena. He is of the opinion that the seed of crime is in society itself, because crimes are committed by the members of the community. He further suggests that the knowledge of statistics is indispensable for the sociologist and the criminologist, because today they cannot conduct research with a view to developing theoretical propositions unless they have good understanding of statistics.

1.5.3 The analytical method

The analytical method is a planned way of research that can be used as a method in criminology to transform the scientifically knowable into science after the study object, the research techniques used and the goal to be reached in the investigation have been placed in criminological perspective. The analytical method is non-particularistic; human (case analysis method and the group method of mass observation) approaches belong to it. In the analytical method the two methods mentioned are regarded and put into operation as tech-

niques of the analytical method (Van der Walt, *et al.*, 1982:174-175). The method which has been used in the present study is the analytical method.

1.6 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

1.6.1 Sampling techniques

About fifty years ago, it was rare to find a researcher bothering himself about sampling, but in recent years sampling has become very common. Technological developments like computerization have facilitated surveys of the entire nation, and virtually all these surveys have relied upon sampling. Modern day sampling theory based upon modern statistics and probability theory is completely accurate, and when an error occurs, its extent is generally known (Bailey, 1987:80).

Basically, there are two types of sampling techniques :

- (a) Probability sampling - where every member of the population is given an equal opportunity for selection.
- (b) Non-probability sampling - where not every member of population gets an equal opportunity of being selected, (Vito, Latessa and Wilson, 1988:124).

In this study, the researcher have used purposive sampling which is also known as judgmental sampling. This technique involves taking a group which, based on the researcher's knowledge of the population, seems to be representative of all members of the population. It is particularly useful when the researcher is studying a group that is fragmented and difficult to identify. Purposive sampling has been chosen because it is the most relevant technique in the present study when one takes into consideration the nature of the Transkei population (Vito, *et al.*, 1988:127).

Many citizens in Transkei, from the age of eighteen and above, are migrant labourers in the major cities of South Africa. The remainder of the work force which is unable to secure employment in South African cities, work in local towns in Transkei during the week and return to their rural homes over weekends. Most of the towns in Transkei do not have a traffic policing system in place and this makes a study on traffic policing virtually impossible in such towns. Therefore, people in Umtata, Butterworth, Qumbu, Engcobo and Libode represent the Transkeian population regarded to have daily contact with traffic police officers.

1.7 MEASURING TECHNIQUES

Questionnaires may be classified in many ways, however, there are two main types that are commonly used by researchers namely, structured and unstructured questionnaires.

1.7.1 Structured questionnaires

Structured questionnaires set definitive, concrete and pre-planned questions. To clear up vague or inadequate answers, additional questions can be added. Questions (statements) in structured questionnaires can either be open or closed depending on what the researcher wants to achieve. These questionnaires are generally used for various types of investigations and to get additional data (Van der Walt, et al., 1985:204).

1.7.2 Unstructured questionnaires

These questionnaires are sometimes called interview guides. The design of the unstructured questionnaires enables the researcher to obtain information on attitudes, opinions and relationships that may not be obtained by more mechanical type of questioning. They assume that the respondent is in possession of considerable insight and enough factual information.

They are normally used in intensive investigations where only two or three case-studies are being made (Van der Walt, *et al.*, 1985:205).

1.7.3 Pre-testing procedure

The researcher felt that it was not necessary to undertake a preliminary test of the questionnaire before the commencement of this research, because the type of questionnaire that had been used was adapted from a questionnaire that was used in a previous research project - see par. 1.4.1.

The researcher was also positive that the respondents would co-operate in giving their views about traffic policing in Transkei. The researcher's confidence in the respondents was proved to be correct by the enthusiasm of the respondents, demanding more questionnaires for their friends. The researcher, however, refused to meet such demands because he felt that the influence of friends would affect the outcome of the investigation.

1.7.4 Variables

A variable is not just a quantity that varies. It is a quantity in which the researcher is interested in what varies in the course of the research or that has different values for different samples in his study. Everything changes sooner or later; but a variable is a factor whose change or difference the researcher studies. A researcher chooses variables on the basis of his interest and his ideas about what could be especially significant or valuable to investigate (Simon and Burstein, 1985:25-26).

1.7.4.1 The dependent variable

The dependent variable (in fact there may be many dependent variables, but that is not common) is that quantity or aspect of nature whose change or difference states what the researcher aspires to understand or explain or predict. Where the researcher studies cause-effect, the "effect" variable is the dependent variable. If a researcher wishes to investigate whether the mother's smoking habit and the weight of her baby has any relationship, then smoking habit is an independent variable (Simon and Burstein, 1985:26). The variable whose value is dependent upon the other but which cannot itself influence the other, is called the dependent variable (Bailey, 1982:47).

1.7.4.2 The independent variable

The variable which is capable of causing change in the other variable is called independent variable (Bailey, 1982:47). It is a variable whose effect upon the dependent variable the researcher is trying to understand. There may be many independent variables. The researcher may at the same time investigate the effect of the mother's cigarette smoking, her exercise, parent's weight, and other variables upon the weight of the baby. In some investigations, however, it may be difficult to label the variables as dependent or independent (Simon and Burstein, 1985:26).

1.7.5 Measurement

Stevens (1951:22) defines measurement as: "... the assignment of numbers to objects or events according to rules". Criticism against this definition is that, strictly speaking, many of the phenomena to be measured are neither objects nor events. It rather appears that the phenomena to be measured are typically too abstract to be adequately characterized as either objects or events. Carmines and Zeller (1974:10) cite

the following examples to support the foregoing point of criticism: " ... phenomena such as political efficacy, alienation, gross national product, and cognitive dissonance are too abstract to be considered 'things that can be seen or touched' (the definition of an object) or merely as a 'result, consequence, or outcome' (the definition of an event)". For this reason, it seems as if Steven's classical definition of measurement is much more appropriate for the physical than for social sciences.

Carmines and Zeller (Riley, 1963:23) offer a more appropriate social science orientated definition of measurement, namely: " ... the process of linking abstract concepts to empirical indicants". This process includes both an explicit, organized plan for classifying and quantifying particular data (indicants) in terms of the general concept in the researcher's mind. The advantage of this definition is that measurement is viewed as a process involving both theoretical as well as empirical considerations when conducting research.

Van der Westhuizen (1977:87) suggests that measurement relates to any existing scale to describe the fluctuations in the incidence of crime. This definition could be implicitly be applied to attitude measurement - especially where the construction of a measuring scale is needed to portray the frequency distribution of attitudes with regard to a specific referent object. Measurement appears to be the *sine qua non* of the scientific research process (Potgieter, 1987:109). Lemon (1973:28) offers a more acceptable description of measurement, especially as it applies to the measurement of attitudes pertaining to this investigation. Lemon (1973:28) defines measurement as the collection of observations regarding individual behaviour and the allocation of numerical values to such behavioural responses according to specific prescriptions (rules).

Bailey (1982:61) opines that the measurement process forms an integral part of social research and generally entails the assignment of numbers to concepts or variables (statements). This author also points out that attitudes may be much more difficult to measure, because concepts relating to attitudes are not directly observable and may be multidimensional. To conclude, Simon and Burstein (1985:206) define measurement as: " ... the assignment of numerals to events (objects) according to rule".

1.7.6 **Scaling**

Van der Westhuizen (1977:87) regards scaling as the construction of some sort of measuring scale. A scale (like attitude scaling) is the operational rule that is used in a measurement. When a researcher is interested in the contents or processes of people's minds, they should be asked to respond (react) to stimuli (e.g. a set of variables) presented to them (e.g. by means of questionnaires). The peculiar problems that are involved in constructing scales to measure the contents of people's minds make scaling very important in social science. The mere presence of a human being (respondent) in a scientific measurement should not be singled out as being a primary source of the researcher's interest in scaling. Persons (respondent's) responses should rather be of interest to the researcher, especially the accumulation of variation in reactions to stimuli within or among persons (sample group) under changing conditions (Simon and Burstein, 1985:206-7).

Scaling, according to Bailey (1982:497), also refers to an item or set of items (or statements) for measuring some characteristic or property, such as an attitude. Traditionally, four scaling methods are distinguished, namely: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio.

In the present investigation a Likert-type scale is being implemented as an ordinal measuring instrument to measure the attitudes of the respondents on a variety of aspects pertaining to the role and image of traffic policing in Transkei. However, nominal scaling will also be used for the coding of a closed-ended (forced-choice) question such as asking respondents their gender (male or female), marital status (single, married, widowed or divorced), etc. Nominal scaling could, however, also be constructed at a multidimensional level by coding simultaneously a set of categories relating to demographic characteristics, for example: age, gender, marital status, language, educational qualification, etc.

1.7.7 Summated rating-scale

The summated rating-scale is, according to Spector (1992:1), one of the most widely used "tools" in the social sciences. Its invention could be attributed to Rensis Likert (1932), who described this technique for the assessment of attitudes.

Bailey (1982:262-3) is of the opinion that scales, especially attitudes scales, are widely used in social research and have three distinctive functions, namely :-

- (i) measurement;
- (ii) to aid the definition of concepts by providing an operational description thereof; and
- (iii) to prevent bias on the part of respondents by covertly measuring a sensitive topic without knowing that their level of prejudice is being measured, thereby preventing them from manipulating their responses.

The first objective could be easily met by simple scaling with a single question, for example:

"Rate the effectiveness of traffic policing in Transkei on a scale of 1-10 (circle one) -

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10".

To meet the other two objectives, it will be necessary to construct the scale from a series of questions (variables). Since the questionnaire may consist of a substantial number of questions or variables, a respondent's score can vary, depending on how many statements he or she either agrees or disagrees with. A higher score represents a higher level of the concept (idea) being measured. In the case of summated rating-scales a respondent's score is computed by summing up the number of questions (variables) he or she answers in a certain way.

According to Spector (1992:1), there are four distinctive characteristics of summated rating-scales :

- (a) A scale must contain multiple items. The word summated implies that multiple items will be combined or summed.
- (b) Each individual item must measure something that has an underlying, quantitative measurement continuum. This means that the scale should measure a property of something that can vary quantitatively rather than qualitatively. An attitude, for example, can vary from being very favourable to being very unfavourable.
- (c) Each item has no "right" or "wrong" answer, which makes the summated rating-scale different from a multiple-choice test.
- (d) Each item in a scale is a statement, which involves asking respondents to indicate which of several response choices best reflect their response to each item.

The following are the advantages of summated rating-scales :-

- (a) a well-developed summated rating-scale can have good reliability and validity possibilities, producing scales with good psychometric properties;

- (b) a summated rating-scale is relatively cheap and easy to develop because the writing of items is straightforward and the initial development of the scale requires only 100 to 200 respondents to assist in a pretest procedure; and
- (c) a well-devised scale (like a Likert-type scale) is usually quick and easy for respondents to complete (Spector, 1992:2).

Certain disadvantages applicable to summated rating-scales are also observable :-

- (a) the biggest limitation seems to be that respondents should have a fairly reasonable level of literacy, because potential respondents who do not read, may encounter difficulty in completing these scales (questionnaires); and
- (b) some level of expertise and statistical sophistication is necessary to develop a good scale (Spector, 1992:2-3).

There are two possible ways for considering the reliability of a summated rating-scale :

- (a) In the first instance, test-retest reliability means that a scale yield consistent measurement over time. Assuming that the construct of interest does not change, each subject should get about the same score upon repeated testings.
- (b) Internal consistency reliability means that multiple items, designed to measure the same construct (role and image of traffic policing in Transkei), will intercorrelate with one another. In the present investigation, the internal consistency measure of reliability has been implemented (Spector, 1992:6).

1.7.7.1 Steps of scale construction

Spector (1992:7-9) recommends the following steps to be followed in the development of a summated rating-scale :

- (a) Before a scale can be developed the construct of interest should be clearly and precisely defined, i.e. a scale cannot be developed until it is clear exactly what the scale is intended to measure.
- (b) Secondly, the scale itself is designed, i.e. involving the decision with regard to the exact format of the scale, selection of response choices and writing of instructions. This step also includes the writing of an initial item pool which will be subject to statistical analysis at a later stage.
- (c) Thirdly, the initial version of the scale should be pretested with a small number of respondents who, in fact, are asked to criticise the scale. They should indicate which items are ambiguous or confusing. The scale should be revised on the basis of the respondents' feedback.
- (d) Fourthly, the full administration and individual item analysis is conducted, using Cronbach's coefficient Alpha to determine internal consistency.
- (e) Finally, the scale is validated and normed. Validity is defined as the property which a scale measures and to determine whether the scale behaves as predicted. Norms describe the distributed characteristics of a given population on the scale. Individual scores on the scale can then be interpreted in relation to the distribution of scores in the population.

In the present study, the steps outlined by (Spector, 1992:7-9) and followed in designing the measuring scale, are as follows :

- (a) Defining the construct by means of dependent variables.

- (b) Designing of summated rating-scale by implementing Likert-type scaling procedures.
- (c) Conducting of an individual Alpha item analysis using Cronbach's (1951) Alpha coefficient.
- (d) Revision of measuring scale according to feedback of respondents' criticism.
- (e) Administration of final scale to a selected sample group.
- (f) Conducting of individual alpha item analysis on the "final" product, implementing Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Results obtained through Cronbach's Alpha coefficient in respect of the final administration are given in Annexure B.

1.7.8 Individual Alpha item analysis

The aim of collecting data for the purpose of having an item analysis conducted, is to produce a tentative version of the scale - one that is ready for validation. As pointed out earlier, the scale must be administered to a sample of respondents. Spector (1992:29-35) states that the purpose of an item analysis is to find those items that form an internally consistent scale and to eliminate those items that do not. Internal consistency is a measurable property of items (statements) that measure the same construct. It reflects the extent to which such items intercorrelate with one another. The item analysis usually provides information on how well each item individually relates to the other items in the analysis. This is reflected by the item-remainder coefficient calculated for each item. This statistic is also known as the part-whole or item-whole coefficient. The item remainder coefficient is the correlation of each item with the sum of the remaining items. The item analysis will provide an item-remainder coefficient, which is a correlation for each item. Those items with the highest coefficients are the ones that will be retained. Coefficient alpha (Cronbach, 1951) is a measure of the internal consistency of a scale. Coefficient alpha can be raised by increasing the number of items or by

raising their intercorrelation. Nunnally (Spector, 1992:32) provides a widely accepted rule of thumb that alpha should be at least .70 for a scale to demonstrate internal consistency. The formula for coefficient alpha is expressed by means of the following equation :-

$$\alpha = \frac{K}{K - 1} \times \frac{S_T^2 - S_1^2}{S_T^2}$$

where S_T^2 is the total variance of the sum of the items; S_1^2 is the variance of an individual item; and K is the number of items (Spector, 1992:32).

The questionnaire used in the investigation appears in Annexure A. The responses obtained from the sample group were subjected to a reliability test according to Cronbach's alpha. The following results were obtained :

- (i) Alpha coefficient = 0,8619
- (ii) Standardized alpha = 0,8756

Based on the previous results, the internal consistency of the measuring instrument could be accepted with reasonableness. Annexure B reflects the results obtained with the final individual Alpha item analysis.

1.7.9 The measuring scale

For the purpose of this investigation, a Likert-type summated rating-scale has been implemented. This scale is an ordinal scale. Oppenheim (1966:133) points out that, in designing his scale, Rensis Likert (1932) was primarily interested in unidimensionality, i.e. to ensure that all the items in the scale measure a single attitude. Ordinal scaling implies the allocation of numerical values to specific properties. The essence of the Likert technique is to increase the variation

in the possible scores by coding from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The basic procedure for Likert scaling is as follows :

- (a) A large number of statements should be selected to measure the dimension to be scaled.
- (b) A sample of respondents which are representative of the population on which the scale will be used, should be selected.
- (c) Code all responses so that a higher score on a particular item or statement indicates a stronger agreement with the attitude being scaled, i.e. code 5 for either strong agreement with a positive statement or strong disagreement with a negative one, and code 1 for strong disagreement with a positive statement or strong agreement with a negative one. A scale score should then be computed for each person by summing their scores on all statements (Bailey, 1982:365).

Babbie (1989:405) is of the opinion that, in using a Likert-type scale, the respondent is presented with a statement or statements in the questionnaire and is asked to indicate whether he or she "strongly agrees", "agrees", is "undecided", "disagrees" or "strongly disagrees". Modifications of the wording of the response categories is permissible, for example, "always", "often", "undecided", "sometimes", or "never"; "very good", "good", "undecided", "poor" or "very poor". The Likert-type scale may also take the form of a 7-point scale, for example: "extremely favourable", "less favourable", "favourable", "undecided", "unfavourable", "less unfavourable" or "extremely unfavourable". The particular value of this format is the unambiguous ordinality of response categories. The Likert method rests on the assumption that an overall score based on responses to the many items (statements) reflecting a particular variable under consideration, provides a reasonably good measure of the variable.

Sherif and Sherif (Warren and Johoda, 1979:396-397) are of the opinion that the afore-mentioned allocation of response categories is of crucial importance in the operational measuring of attitudes in order to accommodate the latitudes of acceptance, non-commitment and rejection. These latitudes (degrees) of responding constitute the underlying structure of attitudes :

- (a) Latitude of acceptance, represents a respondent's opinion with regard to a phenomenon, feature or object: which is absolutely acceptable, indicating a favourable or positive attitude.
- (b) Latitude of non-commitment. While a respondent accepts or rejects certain of the items on the scale, he or she should be granted the opportunity (or choice) to express his neutrality with regard to certain other objects or phenomena.
- (c) Latitude of rejection, represents a respondent's position towards an object or phenomenon in which he displays rejection or objection and could be indicative of a negative or unfavourable attitude.

The inclusion of the "undecided" response category led Sherif, Sherif and Nebergal (1965:233) to the conclusion that it defines those positions where respondents may choose not to respond negatively or positively: "...while he is not forced by the research procedures to evaluate every position". Following is an example of the process of calibration, accommodating the latitudes of acceptance/rejection/non-commitment :

Strongly agree	}	
Agree	}	Latitude of acceptance
Undecided	}	Latitude of "non-commitment"

Disagree }
 Strongly disagree } Latitude of rejection

For the purpose of this investigation, numerical values have been allocated to each response category, namely 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5. This continuum represents an ordinal scale. However, scores of negatively worded items have been reversed in the following fashion 5 = 1, 4 = 2, 3 = 3, 2 = 4 and 1 = 5. Spector (1992:22) provides the following formula that accomplishes this kind of reversal :

$$R = (H + L) - 1$$

Where H is the largest number, L is the lowest number, 1 is a response to an item and R is the reversed item, example -

$$R = (5 + 1) - 2$$

or

$$R = 4$$

The Likert-type scale had been widely used in attitude measurement. Following are examples of such investigations :

- | | | |
|---------------|-------|--|
| Bublitz, E.G. | 1972. | <u>An analysis of cynicism within law enforcement.</u> Unpublished PhD-thesis. Michigan: University of Utah. |
| Holzman, H. | 1980. | <u>Organisational and professional cynicism among police.</u> Unpublished PhD-thesis. Michigan: St. John's University. |

- Potgieter, P.J. 1982. Die invloed van die rasionaliteitsteorie op die ontwikkeling van die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie. Unpublished M.A.-dissertation. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Van Heerden, T.J. 1974. Die polisierol in die samelewing met verwysing na die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie in Johannesburg. Unpublished research report. Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Potgieter, P.J. 1987. Sinisme - 'n polisiekundige ondersoek. Unpublished D.Litt. et Phil-thesis. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

The reason for having implemented the Likert-type scale is based on the following advantages of this scale (Burns and Dobson, 1981:376; Barclay and Weaver, 1962:109-119; Hall, 1934:6) -

- * the scale is suitable for the purposes of collecting a large number of responses;
- * it simplifies the preparation of collected data;
- * it is primarily based on empirical data forthcoming from responses (or reactions) rather than on subjective opinions and judgements;
- * Likert-type scales ensure greater homogeneity as well as the unitary measurement of an attitude, thereby contributing towards a high level of reliability. Burns and Dobson (1981:376) point out that the reliability coeffi-

cient of a Likert-type tends to yield a high level correlation - usually in the vicinity of 0.80 percent which makes group comparisons very reliable; and

- * it provides complete information regarding respondent's attitudes which is based on an intensified reaction to each item in the questionnaire.

1.8 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

Percentages and mean averages are primarily used in this investigation to facilitate interpretations and deductions. Raw scores (indicated as N) are in themselves insignificant and actually unable to either express the magnitude of a measured attitude or the difference thereof between groups. Likewise, statistical techniques to assess rankorder, are equally minimal. Apart from statistical techniques applicable to nominal measurement such as percentages, modes, chi-square, etc., medians, arithmetic means and rankorder correlations are also important in attitude measurement. Babbie (1989:370) opines: "The easiest average to calculate is the mode, the most frequent value ... the median represents the "middle" value: half are above it, half below". Percentual descriptions do not in all respects meet the requirement of indicating the general nature of an attitude or opinion to be measured. For this reason, percentages are supplemented by calculated arithmetic means (\bar{X}) to portray the data in the most manageable form as well as the standard deviation - a more sophisticated measure of dispersion.

(a) Percentages

Percentual ranking of variables contained in the questionnaire have been calculated according to the following formula :

$$P = \frac{(fx) \times 100}{(NG) 1}$$

where (fx) represents the sum of the total responses in each category, multiplied by the applicable weight (numerical value); (NG) is the sum of the total respondents, multiplied by the highest numerical value. In the 5-point Likert-type scale, the highest value is 5.

(b) Mean averages

Arithmetic means have been calculated according to the following formula :

$$M = \frac{(fx)}{N}$$

where (fx) is the sum of the total responses in each category, multiplied by the applicable weight or numerical value, and N is the total respondents in this investigation.

The statistical test of significance used in this investigation, is the chi-square, to test for differences between observed and expected values according to the following formula :

$$x^2 = \sum \left[\frac{(O - E)^2}{E} \right]$$

where O indicates the observed value and E the expected value. The larger the summed difference between observed and expected values as a ratio of expected value, the larger the value of chi-square and the greater the likelihood that the relationship is statistically different from zero (Bailey, 1987:386).

(c) Student's t (t-Test)

The formula for estimated t-score is as follows :

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s_{\bar{X}}} \quad (\text{Spence, J.T., Cotton, J.W., Underwood, J. and Duncan, C.P., 1983:145}).$$

(d) F-test

The F-ratio, which is simply a numerical expression of the relative size of MS_{bg} and MS_{wg} , is defined by the following equation :

$$F = \frac{MS_{bg}}{M_{wg}} \quad (\text{Spence, et al., 1983:209}).$$

In instances where the chi-square could not be used due to the sub-groups being too small, percentages or averages are given.

1.9 RESEARCH DELIMITATION

1.9.1 Spatial delimitation

The delimitation of the area in an exploratory research of this nature is very important in order to ensure that the area of choice provides a variety of information so that significant general deductions for use in future comparative studies can be made.

This research was confined to the following areas in Transkei :

1.9.1.1 Umtata

Umtata is the capital of Transkei. This city is situated in the centre of Transkei. There are more than eighteen thousand motor vehicles that are registered in Umtata. There are two traffic police institutions in Umtata, viz. the municipal police and the government (provincial) traffic police. The two main roads that cut across Transkei through Umtata are the busiest roads in Transkei. Transkei traffic policemen are frequently seen on these roads, i.e. N2 and R51 performing their functional duties. The N2 road cuts across Umtata from

Durban to East London, and R51 cuts across Umtata from Queenstown to Port St. Johns. People of Umtata are in daily contact with traffic policing.

1.9.1.2 Butterworth

This town has been arbitrarily included in this research because it is the second largest town in Transkei. It is situated on the southern side of Transkei. The N2 national road from Durban cuts through Butterworth to East London. Butterworth is the industrial capital of Transkei and has the second largest population in Transkei. This town is also policed by two traffic police institutions, viz. the municipal and government traffic police.

1.9.1.3 Engcobo

Engcobo has been included because it is located on the west of Umtata and the R51 national road from Queenstown cuts across this town to Umtata. This road is also used by tourists from South Africa to the attractive holiday resorts on the eastern Transkei coast.

1.9.1.4 Qumbu

Although Qumbu is a relatively small town compared to other towns in Transkei; it is important in this research because the N2 national road from Durban cuts through it. This is the last town that motorists pass through before they reach Umtata. Therefore the community of Qumbu is in daily contact with traffic policing.

1.9.1.5 Libode

Libode is also a small town but it is included because it is situated on the eastern side of Umtata. Tourists on their way to the eastern coastal resorts (like Port St. Johns) use the facilities of this town like petrol stations and shops.

The following are the reasons for having chosen these areas :

- (a) Due to the high accident rate a greater degree of involvement in traffic situations and contact with the Transkei traffic police can be expected in these areas.
- (b) The heterogeneity of the population groups increases the impersonal nature of the contact situation.
- (c) The heterogeneous population affords the opportunity to compare the attitudes of various sub-groups.

1.9.2 Quantitative delimitation

For practical reasons, the total population of Transkei could not be included in this research project. After having taken into consideration the size of the research group, the researcher adopted the view that the sample should not necessarily be proportionate to the total population of Transkei (Langley, 1971:46). It is not the size of the sample in relation to the total population which determines the reliability of a research project, but whether the sample is a reasonable representative version of the population from which it is drawn. Due to the unavailability of reliable statistics from the Department of Interior of Transkei, it is impossible to guarantee that the research group is a true representative of the population of the areas selected in Transkei. Despite this shortcoming, the researcher is confident that the sample is a fair representative version of the population of such areas. The researcher also feels that the attitudes shown by the sample in this research can be considered to be fairly representative of the attitudes of the Transkei population

(Watson and Sterling, 1969:16). It should be noted that it is not the purpose of this investigation to make general accepted statements. The findings and concomitant pronouncements emanating from this research only reflect the viewpoints (perceptions, attitudes, etc.) of the respondents included in the sample group and should by no means be used as an interpretation of the perceptions and attitudes of the total Transkeian population.

The researcher also deemed it fit to include an estimated sample of 600. Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents who possessed valid drivers licences. Questionnaires were given to respondents in schools, government employees, doctors, lawyers, hospital staff, army, businessmen and police. At a given date, the questionnaires were collected and checked in the presence of the respondents for omissions and irregularities.

The researcher personally collected the questionnaires during the period June to December 1993. After receiving the completed questionnaires, the researcher edited the responses and quantified them on a master schedule. The following are the procedures which were followed in editing the data :-

- (a) to be accurate;
- (b) to ensure that conformity with questionnaires was adhered to;
- (c) to arrange the collected data in such a manner that comprehensive annotations could be made; and
- (d) to arrange the data in such a way to facilitate codification and tabulation.

Table 1.1 shows a clear picture of the total number of questionnaires that had been arbitrarily distributed. Umtata has the highest number of city population. Consequently, 200 or

33,32 percent of the questionnaires were distributed in Umtata. The balance of questionnaires were equally distributed in each of the remaining towns in the research.

TABLE 1.1

QUESTIONNAIRE DISTRIBUTION IN SELECTED AREAS IN TRANSKEI

AREA (Town of city)	QUESTIONNAIRES DISTRIBUTED		QUESTIONNAIRES COLLECTED	
	N	%	N	%
Umtata	200	33,32	184	36,80
Butterworth	100	16,67	82	16,40
Qumbu	100	16,67	79	15,80
Libode	100	16,67	76	15,20
Engcobo	100	16,67	79	15,80
TOTAL	600	100	500	100,00

Spence *et al.* (1983:245), supply a general rule for determining the degree of freedom (df) for any table that has at least two rows and two columns, and in which the marginal totals are used in determining the expected frequencies :

$$df = (\text{number of columns} - 1) \times (\text{number of rows} - 1)$$

In the present investigation, this rule is applied :

$$df = (2 - 1) \times (5 - 1)$$

$$df = 1 \times 4$$

$$df = 4.$$

Values of the Chi-square at 5% and 1% levels of significance (Spence *et al.*, 1983:290) are :

$$\text{With 4df : } 5\% = 9,49 \text{ and } 1\% = 13,28.$$

$$\text{Thus: } 4df; X^2 = 19,10 \geq 9,49 \text{ (0,05\% level); and}$$

$$4df; X^2 = 19,10 \geq 13,28 \text{ (0,01\% level).}$$

H_0 = "There are no significant differences in the population (N = 500) between the observed and theoretically expected frequency categories".

Null hypothesis accepted as reasonable, indicating that the opinions of the respondents are probably more or less evenly distributed.

Table 1.1 indicates that 600 questionnaires were distributed but only 500 have been recorded. This means that 100 questionnaires do not appear in this table. During the collection of the questionnaires by the researcher, 57 questionnaires could not be obtained because the respondents could not be traced during the period of collection. Follow-up efforts were undertaken, but all in vain. The remaining 43 questionnaires were collected from the respondents, but could not be used because they were damaged, i.e. torn, dirty and some had missing pages and had to be rejected. The researcher satisfied himself that the questionnaires that appear in table 1.1 as the total number of collected questionnaires, are only those that were undamaged, clear and without missing pages and/or information. The sample group consists therefore of 500 respondents that are included in this investigation.

1.9.3 Qualitative delimitation

This research is confined to the role and image of traffic policing in Transkei. Therefore, this research does not refer to policing in general in Transkei because this concept would include all institutions that are engaged in prevention and repression of crime. Transkei police and Railway police do not form part of this research project.

The researcher is well-acquainted with the areas that are covered in this research. The researcher spent a considerable amount of time ensuring that the sample included all the population groups in Transkei. An effort was also made to en-

sure that most languages that are spoken by Transkei people have been covered in the research. Since the questionnaire is written in English, the researcher gave the questionnaire to respondents who could read English.

1.10 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

For the purpose of this research "African Languages" mean Xhosa, Zulu, Sesotho and Swazi.

"South African Official Languages" mean English and Afrikaans.

"Foreign Languages" mean Greek, Portuguese, Zimbabwean, Zambian and Ugandan.

"Other" includes any language not included in the above languages.

In terms of Act 5 of 1967, "traffic officer" means a traffic officer appointed, or by virtue of the provisions of section 183(3) deemed to have been appointed, in terms of section 3; (ixx).

"Transkei" means the Territory named the Transkei and described in section 2 of Transkei Constitution Act, 1963 (Act No. 48 of 1963) and includes any area included in that territory in terms of section 3 of the said Act (ixvi).

1.11 ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH GROUP

The following statistical description of the sample group (N = 500) is mainly based on unknown factors which could not be compared with a stable theoretical frequency from the total population. These tables are, therefore, merely intended as a description of the general 'make-up' of the sample group and

are by no means indicative of favourable or unfavourable perceptions and attitudes regarding the image of traffic policing in Transkei.

1.11.1 Sex (gender)

According to Table 1.2, there are 311 (62,20%) male respondents represented in the research while one-third of the respondents are females, namely 189 (37,80%). The large number of male respondents could be attributed to the notion that males are more represented in the labour market.

TABLE 1.2
SEX DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

SEX DISTRIBUTION	N	%
Male	311	62,20
Female	189	37,80
TOTAL	500	100,00

1.11.2 Language

TABLE 1.3
HOME LANGUAGE¹⁾ OF RESPONDENTS

HOME LANGUAGE	N	%
African Languages	379	75,80
South African Languages	78	15,60
Foreign Languages	43	8,60
TOTAL	500	100,00

1) For a detailed classification of home languages, see paragraph 1.10.

Table 1.3 reveals that 379 (75,80%) respondents belong to the African language category, while 78 (15,60%) speak either English or Afrikaans. Only 43 (8,60%) of the respondents belong to a foreign language group.

1.11.3 Age

The breakdown of the Transkei population statistically was impossible, as a result the researcher's inability to calculate the age ratio of the research group. However, the researcher was of the opinion that all persons of the age of 18 and above who possess valid driver's licences would qualify to express their opinions on issues relating to traffic policing.

TABLE 1.4
AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS

AGE (Years)	N	%
18 - 25	67	13,40
26 - 35	235	47,00
36 - 45	136	27,20
46 - 55	41	8,20
56 +	21	4,20
TOTAL	500	100,00

According to Table 1.4, 235 (47,00%) of the respondents are between 26 - 35 years, while 136 (27,20%) belong to the age category 36 - 45 years. Sixty seven (13,40%) respondents are below 26 years, while 41 (8,20%) are older than 45 years but younger than 56 years.

1.11.4 Educational qualifications

Educational qualifications play an important role in the processing of or acquiring a drivers' licence, in that for a person to be able to get a learner's licence, he must be capable to read and write in English. This is a prerequisite because tests for learner's licences are written in English. The researcher, therefore deemed it necessary that the sample of this research be composed of at least people who have standard six qualifications or higher.

TABLE 1.5
EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF RESPONDENTS

HIGHEST STANDARD OF EDUCATION	N	%
Std 6 to 9	86	17,20
Std 10	222	44,40
Diploma	73	14,60
Degree	119	23,80
TOTAL	500	100,00

Table 1.5 reveals that the majority respondents, namely 222 (44,40%) are in possession of a matric certificate. One hundred and nineteen (23,80%) graduated at tertiary level, followed by 73 (14,60%), possessing a diploma certificate. Only 86 (17,20%) respondents have education qualifications lower than standard ten.

1.11.5 Marital status

TABLE 1.6

MARITAL STATUS OF RESPONDENTS

MARITAL STATUS	N	%
Married	314	62,80
Unmarried	186	37,20
TOTAL	500	100,00

The marital status of respondents is depicted in Table 1.6. There are 314 (62,80%) married respondents, while only 186 (37,20%) are unmarried drivers.

1.11.6 Occupation

Table 1.7 shows that 134 (26,80%) of the drivers (respondents) are professional workers. Eighty five (17,00%) are members of armed forces, while 74 (14,80%) are administrative workers. Likewise, 28 (5,60%) of the respondents are technical or related workers and 26 (5,20%) are employed in a clerical capacity. One hundred and fifty three respondents (30,60%) belong to other occupational categories.

TABLE 1.7
OCCUPATION OF RESPONDENTS

OCCUPATION	N	%
Professional worker (doctor, lawyer, teacher)	134	26,80
Technical and related worker	28	5,60
Businessmen and sales worker	17	3,40
Administrative (supervisor, clerk)	74	14,80
Executive (director, secretary)	16	3,20
Clerical worker (typist, receptionist, etc.)	26	5,20
Worker in transport	11	2,20
Worker in communication	13	2,60
Craftsman and production worker	5	1,00
Personal service worker (nurse, caterer)	17	3,40
Sport and recreational worker	3	0,60
Ministerial services	16	3,20
Agricultural and related worker	9	1,80
Armed forces	85	17,00
Other	46	9,20
TOTAL	500	100,00

1.12 RESEARCH ASSUMPTION

The researcher formulated the following assumptions for the purposes of evaluation.

Assumption 1

Males and females differ significantly in as far as the following are concerned :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of the traffic police officers;
- * importance of traffic service, social status, and partiality of the traffic police;
- * conduct of the traffic police officers; and
- * possible traffic hazards.

Assumption 2

Respondents differ significantly according to home language as far as the following are concerned :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of traffic police officers;
- * importance of the traffic police service, social status, and partiality of the traffic police; and
- * conduct of traffic police officers.

Assumption 3

Respondents differ significantly according to educational qualifications with regard to the following :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of traffic police officers;
- * importance of the traffic police service, social status, and partiality of the traffic police; and
- * conduct of traffic police officers.

Assumption 4

Respondents will differ significantly according to different age groups with regard to the following :

- * prevention of road accidents;
- * regulation of traffic flow;
- * speed control;
- * educating pedestrians;
- * control over reckless and negligent driving;
- * tracing dangerous drivers;
- * the overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations;
- * tracking down drunken drivers; and
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling.

1.13 CHAPTER DIVISION

In chapter 1 various topics like general orientation, the rationale for the research, research approach, research methodology, research techniques, measuring techniques, statistical techniques, etc. are discussed. Chapter 2 contains the nature of traffic policing in society. Topics that are discussed in this chapter include: the evolution of the

traffic police, the development of traffic policing in Transkei, the purpose of traffic policing, selective traffic policing, etc. Chapter 3 contains the traffic control and topics like the need for traffic regulations, traffic police responsibilities, traffic control in a structural context, traffic legislation, etc. Chapter 4 is the exposition of the external image of traffic policing in Transkei and topics that are discussed include: role image, image of traffic policing based on knowledge, traffic police performance, etc. Chapter 5 contains the discussion of the relationship issues in traffic policing. Chapter 6 deals with the traffic police conduct and problem solving. Chapter 7 outlines the findings and recommendations.

1.14 SUMMARY

Traffic policing is a social service created by human beings, rendered by human beings to human beings in an environment shaped by human beings. This implies a process of constant interaction between traffic police and the public. It is logical to assume that during the interaction certain feelings and attitudes are formed between the traffic police and the public. The aim of this research is to investigate the image of traffic policing in the Transkei community. The following are the towns that have been included in the research because of the exposure of its communities to traffic policing: Umtata, Qumbu, Engcobo, Libode and Butterworth. Transkei is largely composed of rural communities. There is no constant contact between rural communities and traffic policemen as a result many Transkei towns could not be included in this investigation. It is hoped that this investigation will contribute towards improving traffic police community relations in Transkei. Research methodology is a set of methods and procedures designed to achieve clarity about issues pertaining to the image of traffic policing. The research approach that has been followed in this research is positivistic in nature. In the positivistic approach the actualities perceived by the

senses are controlled, processed and transformed into science. Three major research methods are open to criminological study of crime phenomenon in general and attitudes pertaining to traffic policing, dealing with traffic criminality, namely :

- (a) the case analysis method,
- (b) method of mass observation, and
- (c) the analytical method.

In this research the researcher has used purposive sampling. The researcher encountered various problems in this research which became obstacles in this research. This chapter has outlined the division of chapters. Research assumptions have also been made in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2

THE NATURE OF TRAFFIC POLICING IN SOCIETY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The police role is one of those social services which are characterised by widespread uncertainty, because unlike other roles, it consists of a service from and to society. This service cannot be performed in isolation because it involves constant interaction with society which assigned the role to the police. It is in this area of mutual expectations and obligations that uncertainties emerge, in both the public and the police concerning the exact content of the role (Van Heerden, 1986:40-41).

The society requires the police to be objective in the performance of their duties. Xundu (1992:cf.) further suggests that the people need a police service that has "ubuntu" which means "humanity". On the other hand the police want co-operation from the members of the public which is very scarce and sometimes unavailable.

In sum, the society had developed very high expectations of the police which have moved beyond reality to something that could be better described as faith. As the society came to have faith in the police to fulfil their role; the police in turn came to have faith that they could do all things; but when disillusionment set in, the "singers lost faith in the song, in each other and in themselves". Therefore, if efforts are to be geared to restore any semblance of faith in the police by the public, and the police themselves, the police role should first be very carefully defined so that it does not distort reality (Steadman, 1972:3).

2.2 THE EVOLUTION OF THE TRAFFIC POLICE ROLE

The first identifiable form of police work, which was common in England until the end of the thirteenth century, was the tithing system. According to the Saxon law, every citizen over the age of twelve was required to form a tithing. Each tithing had an obligation to, arrest and take to court any one of its members who had committed a crime, to keep suspects in custody before trial, to give evidence on wrongdoers in the tithings, to ensure the payment of taxes, and to maintain the forest and game laws. Then, groups of tithings were formed into a hundred, whose headman ("reeve") enforced judicial and administrative power under the King. This was a voluntary law enforcement function, but heavy fines were imposed on all members if the reeve failed to perform his duties (Brogden, Jefferson and Walklate, 1988:51).

2.2.1 The primitive period

During the earliest times there was a very close relationship between internal and external control. Internal control in the family, the clan, and the small communities was maintained by enforcing complete conformity to the rules of behaviour under the powerful leadership, first of the father of the family, and then the head of the clan and finally the chief of the tribe. It was easy to protect the tribe from external danger only if the internal control of the society was sound and individual members of the tribe were co-operative and accepting their responsibilities. Social control was also made simple by the homogeneous nature of these groups, and because the rules of behaviour were restrictive in scope (Strecher, 1971:8).

As these groups grew and developed, increasing economic and occupational specialisation developed into greater differences of class and status, relationships decreased and moral consensus declined. Despite the fact that in early times it was

possible to maintain social order by means of internal controls anchored on moral consensus, it now became necessary to establish external controls in the form of rules and regulations. In about 2 000 B.C. people were already beginning to feel the need to organise and standardise control over human behaviour. King Hammurabi was the first ruler to introduce a written code of laws which dealt with the responsibilities of the individual to the group, private dealings between individuals and contained penalties of the retributive type (Van Heerden, 1986:20).

Due to the rise of monarch rule, soldiers or royal guards were used to maintain order within Kingdoms. The Roman emperors, for example, employed the "Quaestores" or inquirers to arrest offenders. The first form of urban police was established in Athens by "Peisistratus" to protect the citadel the main roads and himself. Sparta had a government police system which is still regarded as the first King to draw a distinction between military, and the police function. He formed the "vigils" (night watches), "praetoriam guards" (emperor guards) and "cohorts" (troops) to maintain order in the cities as well as fighting fires. The vigils are commonly referred to as the first non-military urban police (Germann, Day and Gallati, 1962:40).

After the fall of Roman Empire policing did not follow any form of concrete pattern of development. During this period law and order still depended largely in a system of individual responsibility, and members of the community were compelled to conform to the rules of behaviour by very cruel punishments. These societies believed that such penalties were designed to protect society by eliminating the offender, to reform subjects and to promote obedience. This system together with forced confessions made organised repressive policing unnecessary (Van Heerden, 1986:21).

During the Anglo-Saxon times a crime was regarded as an act "contra pacem Domini" and was not just a crime against the victim but also a crime against the whole community. The responsibility for maintaining order was placed firmly on the male population and caused a mutual participation by all members of the male population. This responsibility was supported by a system of mutual pledging whereby the King guaranteed his subjects a state of peace and security in return for their pledge of allegiance and good conduct. Communities were organised into tithings, hundreds and "shire-reeves" who were responsible for law and order in each country. Due to its effectiveness, this system survived the Norman Conquest. The shire courts were supplemented by court leet which were also known as manar courts. One of the important developments in the history of policing was the appointment of the "comes-stabuli" by manar court. The word constable is derived from this "comes-stabuli". The constable gradually took over the function of the tithingman who was formerly in control of a tithing (Pike, 1985:1).

From 1285 one person from parish would serve as unpaid constable for a period of one year, mainly to arrest offenders and deliver them to the local court. Citizen powers of arrest were supplemented by the specific obligation on the constable to conduct arrest. Assisted by night watch in larger cities, the constable carried out a preventive system of patrol. The constable would use hue-and-cry to summon the members of the public to come and assist him to arrest an offender. He also had some powers to punish offenders. With a wide mandate to maintain community law and order, the position was voluntary, and the primary allegiance was to the locality (Brogden, et al. 1988:52-53).

Later, the constable became the chief peace officer, but the job remained unpaid and continued to rotate among the members of the community. Then came the justice of the peace, who was both judge and police officer conducting some police duties

particularly in the field of the suppression of riots. This was the start of judicial surveillance over the police. As cities developed, watchmen were hired for full-time work, but citizens continued to be responsible for police functions (Radelet, 1986:5).

Constables and watchmen were all unpaid, although the constable was appointed to his office, the complicated nature of his duties often resulted in some more people being paid to act on his behalf. Some of these people were drunkards and incapable of performing police duties. The watchmen also hired people to perform duties on their behalf and this process of substitution resulted in the most incapable and weak being hired. In addition to these problems, both the constable and the watchman could not deal with the armed criminals who were committing crimes freely "it is difficult to understand why such an inefficient combination of justices and constables should have been so attractive during the subsequent debates leading to the reform of the policing" (Pike, 1985:3).

The impetus for reform was initiated by a magistrate in Bow Street called Henry Fielding. He started by selecting several parish constables to assist him in arresting criminal gangs. This new force was given the name "Bow Street Runners". His concern for organising this force is best explained in his statement when he said :-

"The introduction of trade ... hath indeed given a new face to the whole nation ... and hath almost totally changed the manners, customs and habits of the people, more especially of the lower sort. The narrowness of their manners into craft; their frugality into luxury; their humility into pride and their subjection into equality (Pike, 1985:3-4)".

The "Bow Street Runners" were at first not accepted by the people, but the successes they achieved in patrol services and the help they rendered to the young finally won the confidence of the public. Like other officers who were maintaining law and order before them, the Bow Street Runners were not paid. In 1792 a "police bill" was passed which enabled Sir William Pitt to appoint full-time salaried constables (Van Heerden, 1986:25).

2.2.2 The rise of the era of modern policing

A significant contribution to the rise of modern policing was made by a man who is correctly credited the status of being the architect of modern policing. Dr Patric Colquhoun viewed the police as the protectors of civil liberty in contrast to some modern critic's who distort the police function as being a threat to civil liberties. This attitude shows the modern day lack of understanding of the role of the police in society. In 1798 he submitted his scheme of policing to a select committee of the House of Commons. His proposals for a national police system were rejected. Despite this set back, he did not give up because in 1798 he also wrote "Treatise on the Commerce and Police of the River Thames". Consequently a force of Marine Police was formed in June 1798 to deal with acts of "peculation, fraud, embezzlement, pillage and depredation". This force was assisted by competent members of the public. This effort succeeded because of the support he got from John Harriott who took over the operational direction and organised the new marine police. Within twelve months the river had been cleared of its worst criminal elements and the effectiveness of this new force had been properly shown (Pike, 1985:7-7).

In 1829 Sir Robert Peel who is credited as the father of modern policing introduced his famous Metropolitan Police Act in Parliament. Although his ideas were opposed by some members of parliament this act was passed in 1829. It was under

Sir Robert Peel's leadership that the first organised police force was finally established. This force was well trained and placed under the control of the government. He argued that organised policing should be regarded as a process of transition from enforcing order by means of brutal physical force to maintaining order at the society's desire. The following are some of the principles on which the new police unit was organised, and which were adopted by modern forces to this day :

- (a) The police must be organised in a stable and effective way, on a semi-military basis.
- (b) The police must be subject to government control.
- (c) The scarcity of crime is a sign of effective policing - activities should therefore be concentrated upon prevention.
- (d) Information about crime must be disseminated so that public support could be activated.
- (e) The work needs temporal and spatial decentralisation.
- (f) Emotional control is always essential; controlled, determined action produces better results than physical force does.
- (g) A neat police officer will get respect from the public.
- (h) Selection and training are the foundations of efficiency.
- (i) To ensure public safety, every policeman should have a member.
- (j) The head office should be centrally situated and easily reached.
- (k) Policemen should undergo probation before they are permanently employed.
- (l) To ensure effective distribution of manpower, a police register should always be kept (Van Heerden, 1986:26-27).

Sir Robert Peel entrusted this force to Richard Mayne, a lawyer and Charles Rowan, a soldier. Charles Rowan made a significant contribution in organising this force and basing it on military lines. The powers and functions of the con-

stable were retained and supplemented by crime prevention methods. In determining the objectives of the new force Richard Mayne said :-

"The primary objective of an efficient police is the prevention of crime; the next that of detection and punishment of offenders if crime is committed. To this end, all the efforts of police must be directed. The protection of life and property, the preservation of public tranquillity, and the absence of crime, will alone prove whether those efforts have been successful, and whether the objectives for which the police were appointed have been obtained" (Pike, 1985:11).

This unit established itself in the famous Scotland Yard in 1842. The principles on which this unit was established enhanced better image for it compared to police forces in other countries (Van Heerden, 1986:27).

2.2.3 Development of traffic policing in Transkei

Transkei was policed for a long time by South African Police. Before 1934 both traffic control and other police services were done by the South African Police. By 1956, all traffic policing on provincial roads outside municipal boundaries had been handed over to provincial authorities of the Cape Province, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State and Natal.

From 1963 the Transkei administration had been slowly taking over the tasks associated with policing. This take over was accomplished in 1975. The Transkei Police Act was passed in 1966. In terms of this act the functions of the Transkei police are :-

- (a) maintenance of law and order,
- (b) the investigation of crime,

- (d) the enforcement of all laws, and
- (e) the prevention of crime within the territorial borders of the Transkei (Van Heerden, 1986:36).

The Transkei Police has a division that deals with traffic control duties. This division is composed of traffic officers who were serving under the Cape Provincial Administration prior to Transkei's independence in 1976. There are also municipal traffic police forces in Umtata and Butterworth.

2.3 THE PURPOSE OF TRAFFIC POLICING

"The goal of policing is the maintenance of social order in a manner compatible with the constitutional rights of every individual". This definition entails not only a specific obligation but also certain restrictions to which the attainment of the goal is subject. Uncertainty concerning the true goal of the police role, coupled with some shifting objectives in an effort to deal more effectively with the crime problem, have given rise to a popular belief of the police as "daredevils" who are after arresting criminals in an adventurous way. According to Skolnick (Van Heerden, 1986:42) such confused concepts merely exaggerate the problem of the police. This situation can only be solved through their revision of the philosophical foundation of policing (Van Heerden, 1986:42).

The maintenance of social order includes community service role and traffic law-enforcement. The definition of community service role includes :- intervention in domestic quarrels; handling of people found to be under the influence of alcohol or drugs; working with dependent and neglected children; rendering emergency medical or rescue services and generally acting as social agency of last resort. Especially after hours and on weekends for the poor, sick, old, and the lower socio-economic classes. "The law-enforcement role is the enforcement of criminal law. In this role police concentrate on

criminal investigation, collection of evidence, interrogation of suspects, arrests of suspects, maintenance of order and safety, combating organised crime, suppression of disturbances and riots" (Steadman, 1972:4).

Misner (Radelet, 1986:40) believes that law and order is mostly a question of law or order and the problem emanates from the conflicting set of orders society has historically given to the policemen. He further states that :-

"The policeman really has two role models from which to choose: he can conceive of himself as a "rule enforcer" or as a "guardian of peace". He is helped in the choice by the role preferred by his chief and immediate superiors. In many departments, being a rule enforcer is viewed as a necessary stage of development in the growth of a mature policeman ... The older policeman hopes that the younger prospect will realise eventually that strict enforcement of the laws in a gigantic inconvenience, not only to the public but also to the policeman himself. It is part of police folklore that an experienced policeman knows how to "stay out of trouble", and has necessarily learned that law enforcement is simply a means and not an end in itself".

Van Heerden (1986:46) concludes that all functional police duties are directed and subject to "the maintenance of social order through the execution of the law".

2.3.1 Selective traffic policing

Selective traffic policing means discretionary maintenance of traffic order. The law is not an end in itself but a means to an end. Its role is to establish order, justice and individual freedom. Whilst law provides the authority for the

traffic police action, it fails to embrace all the situations in which a traffic police officer might possibly find himself. In some instances an officer may find that an offence had been committed but also notice that if an arrest is made the situation may become worse. When an officer is dealing with crowds it is better to overlook less serious offences to avoid uncontrollability of such crowds. If the officer arrests a person before or during the demonstration, this may increase the likelihood of serious disturbances, bloodshed as well as setting up friction that may threaten the future social order (Van Heerden, 1986:5).

Radelet (1986:67) agrees with Van Heerden when he says

" ... moreover, the law does not cover every situation in which the police officers find themselves. Sometimes where there appears to be applicable law, police officers may be well advised to conduct themselves as though ignorant of the law, for to attempt to enforce it might invite Armageddon".

Discretion involves freedom to choose between action and inaction within the limits of one's authority. These limits, not the legality of the choice, represent the deciding factor, because discretion is largely illegal. Discretion, therefore, does not refer exclusively to a specific action, but, may be a decision not to take an action at some particular time Davis (Van Heerden, 1986:52).

Discretion is an integral part of the criminal justice system although this reality is not always accepted. It is a sensitive issue when one takes into consideration the fact that the traffic police officer in many instances decides who enters the criminal justice process whether by summons or arrest. He may take an action against a person, or deal with him in an informal manner or not act against him at all (Pike, 1985:62).

A system of justice based on traffic police power needs traffic police officers who have the ability to make responsible decisions. A simple society with total or near-total agreement on the laws to be enforced and how should they be enforced leaves latitude for decision making by public officials. However, as the society becomes more and more complex and more heterogeneous, there is no agreement that could be reached on many of the laws that are used to control the individuals who makes up the complex society. Therefore, the necessity for traffic police officers who are capable of making responsible decisions as to when to use traffic police power in dealing with general public becomes very important. "This decision-making power, when exercised, is usually referred to as discretion (Hageman, 1985:31).

Discretion is a very important weapon to a traffic officer who has to act against traffic disorder. In most cases he is alone without a superior who could tell him which person to arrest and not to arrest. Therefore, he is responsible for his actions whether they are wrong or right. He decides which laws to enforce and not to enforce and his actions will depend on factors ranging from his own views, the example set by his colleagues, to his reaction to current pressure from the press and the public.

A traffic officer must always respect the individual person. If he uses his discretion properly he will win the confidence and co-operation of the society. The unfortunate part of a traffic policeman's duty is that he tend to encounter his fellow human beings when they are at their most threatening, vulnerable, frightened or at their most ashamed situations. While his success will often be determined by his instinctive reactions, he must be ready to defend the decision he has taken in a court later (Whitaker, 1979:69).

Discretion is a very sensitive matter in traffic law enforcement because it involves the treatment of offenders differently. The law requires that an action should be taken by an officer for any violation. There are five types of actions that are at his disposal :

- (a) A physical arrest where a person is taken to jail or to a magistrate to answer to a charge.
- (b) A traffic citation for which the driver is requested to sign a promise to appear.
- (c) A notice of violation is used in some areas.
- (d) A written warning.
- (e) A verbal warning.

To decide which action is suitable in a particular situation, the officer will have to use educated, trained, and experienced judgement. His supervisor as well as the head of the institution are not involved in this decision. To be fair to all the people one may argue that there should be no discretion. Nevertheless, the officer needs to use his discretion because if he fails to make a responsible decision he may incur informal penalties and these may include criticisms by fellow officers. Although discretion may mean that some people escape arrest, serious violation like drunken driving should not be tolerated by officers. Tolerances should be kept informal and be left within the prerogative of the law enforcement officers (Overson, 1986:211-212).

2.4 RESTRICTIONS UPON POLICING

The police do not have unlimited powers. There are restrictions which are placed upon their actions. In democratic societies people are ruled by laws not by people. The laws of the society define the limits of a person's conduct but at the same time make provision of the extent to which such conduct can be restricted. Therefore, the police who receive their authority from the community, are not free to do whatever they

want with that authority. They are answerable to the society that delegated the powers to them, and are expected to perform their duties within the restrictions imposed by law (Van Heerden, 1986:58).

Sir Robert Peel correctly pointed out that police are the public and the public are the police. This means that police are accountable for their actions to the society. Their source of authority is the society and the society expect them to exercise their powers in a responsible manner. The heads of police institutions must ensure that members of the force who serve under them understand the restrictions of their powers. If they fail to be guardians of this important trust, police community relations may be severely disrupted (Radelet, 1986:252).

2.4.1 Individual rights

The concept individual rights involves civil rights and civil liberties. "Civil rights" are claims which the society makes of their government in line with the government's obligation to make sure that the powers that the society delegated to it for the maintenance of order are exercised in accordance with the constitutional provision. To a great extent a person feels that he is free when his privacy is respected. The society expect the government to ensure that individual rights of the citizenry are not trampled. To uphold the civil rights, the State must have methods of meeting the demands of the society (Van Heerden, 1986:60).

According to Westin (1970:330) the philosophy of human freedom which John Locke proposed is based upon three basic principles :

- (a) Individualism :- acknowledgement of human dignity, freedom of religion, private economic motives as well as direct legal rights of everybody.

- (b) Restricted rule :- legal constraints on the powers of the government, the rule of law or the sovereignty of law, and the moral precedence of the individual over the groups in society.
- (c) Private property :- associated with the exercise of individual freedom. In order to protect these values, the individual must be immune from intrusions upon his premises and against interference with regard to the use of his private possessions.

Black (1969:24) is of the opinion that the guarantee of freedom can be achieved only when there is explicit penal and statutory laws, fair trials, impartial law enforcement and freedom for daily interaction between individuals and freedom from fear of injury. Freedom exists when members of society accept and comply with the laws of the country. All citizens have an obligation to ensure that there is social order by obeying laws and by being responsible for their behaviour as well as the behaviour of their neighbours. For security and freedom to exist every citizen must help the police in the maintenance of social order.

2.4.2 Police accountability

In democratic societies police can no longer hide what they plan, how they administrate and how they deploy their service to the community. The community will not support secretive policing within a democracy. Police leaders must understand that a policy of openness is a very important weapon of establishing public faith and trust. Police should also understand that within a democracy they cannot effectively perform their duties without the consent of the public. This consent is vital for partnership in policing. "The police within a democracy, do not now, nor will they ever, enjoy the public consent for wrongdoing (Harding, 1992:cf.).

A police institution is not an independent entity. It is a part of the government and exists so that it may serve the public. Openness is an important element of accountability. There is no justification for secrecy in policing. Accountability also includes sensitivity to the needs and problems of the society. It also entails the management of police resources in the most effective manner. Police should understand that the power to police comes from the consent of those who are being policed (Dunham and Alpert, 1989:167).

The society is free to demand that police should be accountable to it, but such demands should not be politically motivated. The police should be accountable to all members of the society not political parties. Any political involvement in operational control of the police could endanger police independence on which professional integrity depends. If the police can be seen to be supporting the majority party in either central or local government, the impartiality and respect which the police in a democratic country always need, will be completely destroyed. The policing policies must be open and should be formulated in response to open debate by consultative machinery. The police practise must be open so that the public may be able to understand the reasons why the police act in the way they do. If police procedures are open to review, and if policing matters and problems are open to debate, then the public needs will be served and accountability enhanced (Pike, 1985:176-177).

Smit (1992:1-2) is of the opinion that police accountability may serve as part of the solution at least to some of the problems facing the police. Accountability means that police should be made responsible for their actions to an external body. There should be some form of general control over the police. The public seems to be willing to be a source of such control. People demand community orientated policing. When one looks at the attempts that the South African police is making to try to be open, he may be tempted to say they are on

the right direction. However, accountability means more than just restructuring; it entails "re-functioning" by "opening-up".

Under normal circumstances police accountability means institutional arrangements to make sure that the police perform their duties properly. Although police need to have some form of control. Such control should not reside in political institutions because police control is the duty of law. For police to be accountable they must be answerable to law. This means that police must always ensure that their actions are legally acceptable. It is always important for the police to exercise the authority delegated to them by the society within the restrictions that limit it. There are three methods in which the police are held answerable for the way in which they exercise their authority :-

- (a) they are directly responsible to the State because it is the source of formal authority;
- (b) the exercise of their authority is subject to scrutiny by the courts of law especially with regard to unlawful arrests and evidence that had been obtained illegally; and
- (c) because of the relationship between the police and the public it is very important that the police are answerable to the public and if they fail to do so their authority will not be honoured.

These restrictions are necessary to ensure that the police remain public and public the police. In a democratic society police cannot be allowed to exercise authority in a manner not acceptable to the society because the society have the authority like the police with regard to maintenance of order in its own interests, but the police having more power (Van Heerden, 1986:64).

2.5 PRINCIPLES OF POLICING

The misuse of power and authority by police is also limited by police basic principles. These principles are accepted by most police services in democratic countries. Clark (1979:267) suggests that there are nine principals which were adopted by the London Metropolitan Police Force :

- (a) The main goal of policing is to prevent crime and disorder, as an alternative to repression by army and severity of legal punishment.
- (b) To always acknowledge that the power of the police to perform their functions and duties is subject to public approval of their existence, actions and behaviour, and on the extent to which they manage to secure and keep public respect.
- (e) The recognition and retention of public approval and respect includes voluntary co-operation of the public in keeping the laws.
- (d) The ability to secure co-operation of the public reduces the need to use physical force and compulsion.
- (e) To seek and preserve public favour without pondering to public opinion but by enforcing the laws with constant and complete impartiality, giving immediate, individual and friendly service to all members of the public without regard to status social position or national affiliation; by showing courtesy and friendly good-humour and by being ready to make personal sacrifice in protecting and preserving life.
- (f) To resort to the use of physical force only when persuasion, warning and advice have failed to secure co-operation, warning and advice have failed to secure co-operation, compliance with the law and maintenance of order.
- (g) Relations with the public should be maintained at all times in a manner showing the old tradition of police as the public and the public as the police; the police being

members of the public who are paid to perform services which are the responsibility of every citizen in the interest of public welfare and existence.

- (h) Police should always adhere to the executive function of policing and refrain from even seeming to take over powers of the judiciary by judging guilt and punishing the guilty.
- (i) To always recognise that the proof of police efficiency is absence of crime and disorder, and not the visible steps undertaken to combat it.

These principles were included in the first working manual for constables of the London Metropolitan Police District. These principles are cited as being the work of Richard Mayne.

It is very important that traffic police trainees are taught principles of policing during their basic training. However, this will be insufficient if it is not supported by practical. Patrol is a very important method of establishing relationships between the police and the public. Patrol is also a very important weapon of reducing crime. The decline in the present status of the patrol officer emanates from the increase in specialisation. If traffic police institutions are serious about reducing crime, much emphasis should be placed on returning traffic police officers to foot patrol. It may be easy to come to the conclusion that this idea is outdated and not in step with the complexities and pressures of modern traffic policing, but the importance of this principle is at last being recognised. There are institutions that are disbanding specialist units in favour of foot patrol (Pike, 1985:184-185).

2.6 SUMMARY

The role of the police in society is the maintenance of social order. People need to know that they are always protected against criminals whose quest is always to disrupt order by

police. Policing is the product of population's desire for orderly social interaction through the centuries. The power of the police to maintain social order emanates from the society, that is why the police should be accountable to the society. It is equally important that the public should understand the true nature of policing and that a noble tradition of public duty and service should not be undermined by undue criticism. Even if the police may do their duties in the most efficient way, even if they do not observe civil liberties they will still be criticised. This is the problem of a police force in a democratic society. Goldstein (1977:1) suggests that for democracy to exist police need to maintain order. A democratic country expects the police to facilitate those aspects necessary to a democratic way of life namely: to prevent people from interfering with one another, to provide security, resolve conflicts and to protect free elections, freedom of movement and assembly.

CHAPTER 3

TRAFFIC CONTROL

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The goal of the traffic policing is the maintenance of traffic order. In the process of maintaining such order, traffic policemen are often exposed to situations which sometimes may be described as not emanating from criminal behaviour in the general sense. At times they may even be seen as interfering with individual liberty. Traffic police officers must maintain traffic order even in such difficult times in order to ensure that individual freedom does not interfere with the freedom of other members of the society. This will promote a healthy balance between the individual rights and collective security. For example, the right to have and use motor vehicles raises some specific problems, for it means that some forms of behaviour that would normally not be regarded as criminal must be controlled and directed. In order to be able to deal with these problems effectively, traffic police officers need to have knowledge and circumspection (Van Heerden, 1986:216).

Nowadays, a motor vehicle is one of the most convenient and faster modes of transport. However, it has at the same time become one of the greatest threats to social order and safety. Each year more people are maimed and killed in motor-car accidents than in many other types of violent crimes. The economic losses that occur are far more than the total losses that are incurred in most economic crimes. Be that as it may, the motor-car has become an indispensable mode of transport in modern societies. It is an absolute necessity to economic and social welfare. The delivery of petrol, oil and food supplies, the transportation of goods to trading stores and raw materials to factories, the transportation of workers to and from work and the conveyance of holiday-makers to holiday

resorts and other places of interest, are a few examples of the high demand of traffic facilities (Van Heerden, 1986:216-7).

3.2 THE NEED FOR TRAFFIC REGULATIONS

The necessity to solve the problems caused by the traffic explosion meant that the first emphasis was directed towards improved roads and streets and safer vehicles. Improved roads led to the manufacturing of more powerful motor vehicles that can be driven at high speeds. Later on it became clear that improved roads and vehicles were not the only factors requiring attention. The emphasis shifted to the driver. It became apparent that the real problem lay in the attitudes of the drivers. Therefore, human behaviour had to be controlled by rules and regulations so that chaos could be avoided on roads. These rules and regulations had to be properly framed and enforced efficiently to reduce road accidents. These efforts should be followed by the education and training of drivers (Van Heerden, 1986:218).

Traffic laws and regulations are indispensable to a society that is opposed to accidents and congestions. The true purpose of traffic laws, rules and regulations is prevention. It is wrong for anybody to suggest that traffic rules and regulations are made to enrich traffic authorities. It is the lack of proper enforcement of traffic rules and regulations together with improper traffic signs and ineffective traffic regulations that created the impression among the members of the society that the goal of traffic regulations is to fill the coffers of the authorities that made them (Van Heerden, 1986:218).

Weston (1968:100) believes that free and uninterrupted traffic is the main purpose of traffic control. He further believes that pedestrians also benefit from traffic control because they can walk without fear of being killed by reckless

drivers. For the safety everybody, all road users should obey rules and regulations. Traffic police officers can only be able to enforce these rules and regulations when they get the co-operation of the society. Members of the society can assist the traffic police officers if they enforce rules and regulations judiciously. The injudicious enforcement of traffic laws and regulations discourages partnership and distorts the true aim of traffic control.

Adams (1971:193) is of the opinion that the prevention of accidents is the main aim of traffic control. Rules and regulations ensure that all road-users are protected against undesirable actions of their fellow road-users. All road-users have a duty, in the interest of their own safety, to ensure the safety of others. Proper traffic control depends on the co-operation between the traffic police, the society, traffic engineers and other people who are involved in traffic activities. For a more detailed discussion of the relationship issue in traffic policing, see Chapter 5.

3.3 TRAFFIC POLICING GOAL

The main goal of traffic policing is to ensure the safe and efficient movement of persons, vehicles and goods on public roads. These two concepts, namely efficient and safety are often conflicting and competitive. Attempts at increasing greater safety are always detrimental to efficient traffic control, because the traffic flow is hampered for the sake of reducing all possible risks. Conversely, the increasing of efficiency can result in minimising safety in that the improvement in the flow of traffic can increase the risk of accidents. Both aims should be regarded as very important in traffic control, but none should be done at the expense of the other. The traffic police should take a broad view of the total endeavour of traffic control (Van Heerden, 1986:219).

It is the duty of traffic authorities to ensure that all efforts of traffic control are directed towards order in the traffic situation. Nevertheless, it must be borne in mind that order is a relative concept. Traffic order can only be seen to be relative, because complete order needs absolute control. This is not possible in a free society where people have a freedom of choice and movement. Traffic police officers cannot tell people where to go and how. They cannot suspend all freedom of movement and choice by road users. Order can be assumed to exist if the following realities are visible :-

- (a) free and smooth traffic flow;
- (b) decrease in the number of traffic accidents and offences;
- (c) good healthy relationships and interactionary processes between traffic officers and different traffic units (motorist and vehicle/pedestrian); and
- (d) voluntary compliance with the laws and traffic knowledge manifested by all road users (Cloete and Conradie, 1984:84-5).

3.4 TRAFFIC CONTROL IN A STRUCTURAL CONTEXT

3.4.1 Prescriptive constructs

According to Barkhuizen (1967:298) it took societies a long time to think of making traffic legislation. Some of the first rules of the road were "keep left and keep right" and speed limits were introduced from 1896 and thereafter, legal administrative measures like compulsory licensing were introduced. The present traffic problem emanating from the increase in the number of vehicles on the road, many traffic accidents and crimes, as well as the fact that safety on the roads cannot be guaranteed by better roads and improved environmental conditions, made societies to re-consider traffic legislation. Consequently a very important factor in the

traffic situation "man" was given attention. It was realised that in order to prevent chaos on the road the actions of road users should be controlled by rules of conduct.

3.4.2 Traffic legislation

This set of prescriptions is directed towards orderly traffic and road safety by creating an equilibrium between traffic flow, road safety and economic considerations and by regulating behaviour on the road and encouraging adaptation to the requirements of order so that everybody can be aware of what is to be expected (La Grange. 1966:4; Barkhuizen, 1967:300).

Barkhuizen (1967:296) suggests that the legislation has a number of wide and diverse general objectives :

- (a) It sets out certain standards of conduct in respect of individual road users and "adjudges" some types of behaviour, for example, recklessness or negligence.
- (b) Standards of conduct for safety must be brought into line with the needs and demands of the road users.
- (c) The various traffic prescriptions must be brought into line.
- (d) Traffic laws, which at present are made to measure the guilt and responsibility in such a way that emphasis is shifted towards prevention.
- (e) The legislation must not focus on traffic as such, but also at the element of the environment that influences traffic.
- (f) Legal measures which are directed towards the promotion of road safety should be confined with the improvement of road and environmental conditions.

Smit and Potgieter (1982:18-19) are of the opinion that authors differ about the enforcement of traffic regulations and prescriptions as well as about its actual nature. Fundamental principles included are :

- (a) Do traffic offences really deserve being regarded as crimes, and should traffic offenders be regarded as criminals in the true sense of the word? Should these acts be classified within the "grey area" between socially accepted conduct and vividly unlawful behaviour? Are traffic offences really serious that police action is justified? From the point of view of the public police decisions on these questions are important factors in delineating the boundaries between the social values of liberty and order to security. From the point of view of the police, the need to make decisions within this limited area challenges the strength of the policemen's commitment to the public expectation that all laws will be literally enforced, and also trains the public support for the police in more serious matters (Gardiner, 1969:3).
- (b) Erlank and Roux (1967:127) believe that traffic offences are unique phenomena that must not be given the same status as the laws of the country. They should be tried by special courts of law and be treated by special methods.
- (c) After committing traffic offences, many people do not regard themselves as criminals. It is therefore, a basic tenet and an underlying assumption of traffic law enforcement that people regularly and without any natural consciousness of wrongdoing violate laws designed to ensure safe use of the highways (La Grange, 1966:5).

The demands are not only directed towards decriminalisation and depenalization but go further to call for depolicing: minor traffic offences should be overlooked if they do not pose danger to other road users. Traffic legislation is just a set of norms for convenience and is not as such part of legal code; the enforcement of traffic laws is therefore not a police function (Radelet, 1973:47).

On the other hand some law enforcement agencies in the field are of the opinion that traffic offences are ordinary crimes and should be judged and punished as such. From a legal point of view, traffic laws are superfluous if they are treated differently from other laws of the country. This legal opinion emanates from the assumption that there is no particular need for traffic legislation, since Roman Dutch law and common law, which are independent of legislation, regulate the use of roads just as they regulate all other human conduct. Common law guards the behaviour of one person so that it does not harm or injure others. Under normal circumstances, whenever an accident occurs, there is a person who has failed to take reasonable precaution. Law makers correctly assume that negligence on roads do not only affects the injured person, but is also a crime against the state and is therefore punishable. Legislation has however been extended to control road conduct by requiring certain forms of behaviour and forbidding others. Failure to observe law is a punishable offence. Many new and even artificial regulations have been made, but they may be regarded as artificial because they are not related to behaviour that is inherently wrong or negligent in taking reasonable precautions (Le Grange, 1966:6). New legislation may have been passed because of the existence of other factors, in addition to death and injury, namely person inconvenience and traffic flow (Smit and Potgieter, 1982:19-20).

3.4.3 The goal of traffic legislation

The primary goal of traffic legislation is the maintenance of traffic order on the roads. This can be achieved through efficient enforcement of traffic rules and regulations. To ensure an accident free society all drivers will have to observe all road signs and comply with all rules and regulations. Traffic legislation encourages considerate driving behaviour, i.e. the driver does not only think about himself but ensures that his driving behaviour does not affect other motorists negatively. The goal of traffic legislation can easily be achieved through voluntary compliance with the rules and regulations by members of the driving population (Oosthuizen, 1975:12).

The arrest and trial of traffic offenders is not an end but should be seen as means to an end. This should rather be seen as deterrent to potential offenders. To justify the arrest and trial of traffic offenders the legislation must clearly define the rules, guidelines, obligations, duties and limitations applicable to pedestrians, vehicles, drivers, road and traffic signs. A traffic act should be regarded as an offence when there is commission or omission of an act for which a prescribed penalty exists. Therefore, traffic legislation is composed of various elements that should be present in each violation for it to be regarded as an offence (Hand, Sherman and Cavanagh, 1976:154).

3.4.4 Public attitudes towards traffic legislation

The work of a traffic policeman is made difficult by the negative attitude that is sometimes displayed by motorists towards traffic legislation. The argument that is frequently advanced is that some traffic offences lack intention which is a requirement for a criminal act. One of the examples that are advanced is culpable homicide where a motorist knocks down a pedestrian resulting in the death of such a pedestrian. Er-

land and Roux (1967:126) believe that traffic accidents and traffic crime commission are not offences because they lack criminal intent.

TABLE 3.1

EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC LEGISLATION ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

LEGISLATION (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Control over parking in town necessary	1,94	1,01	1,88	0,86	0,016*
Seat-belts do not ensure safety	3,66	1,29	3,77	1,20	0,265
Conducting of speed checks	1,86	0,93	1,82	0,94	0,878
Traffic fines to fill govt. coffers	3,14	1,37	2,96	1,29	0,376

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.1 shows that female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,88$) agree that control over parking in towns is necessary to promote traffic order. This indicates that their attitudes towards traffic legislation which prohibits parking in certain areas are positive. The attitude of the male respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,94$) differs slightly from that of the female respondents. These differences are significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,77$) seem to have a positive attitude towards the use of seat-belts. Male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,66$) also have a positive attitude towards the wearing of seat-belts. There are no significant differences that can be observed.

Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,82$) again seem to have a more positive attitude towards conducting speed traps than their male counterparts ($\bar{X} = 1,86$). The differences between the two groups of respondents are not significant ($p \geq 0,05$).

Male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,14$) show a more positive attitude towards the prosecution and subsequent fines. Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) seem to show a positive attitude towards prosecution and fines. The differences between the gender groups are however, not significant ($p \geq 0,05$).

The overall attitude of male and female respondents towards traffic legislation is positive. This behaviour shows that relationships between traffic policing and the public can be built.

TABLE 3.2

EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC LEGISLATION ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

NATURE OF LEGISLATION (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Control over parking in town necessary	1,91	0,99	1,92	0,86	1,91	0,87	0,995
Seat-belts do not ensure safety	3,69	1,27	3,74	1,32	3,74	1,09	0,916
Conducting of speed checks	1,78	0,90	1,97	0,98	2,16	1,04	0,014*
Traffic fines intended to fill govt. coffers	3,10	1,36	2,88	1,18	2,88	1,42	0,204

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.2 reveals that African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,91$) and Foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,91$) agree that control over parking in town is necessary to promote traffic order. The attitude of these groups is positive.

The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,92$) also have a positive attitude towards this legislation although slightly less than that of other language groups. Nevertheless, these differences are not significant ($p \geq 0,05$). The legislation about the use of seat-belts received a more positive attitude from the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,74$). The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,74$) had the same opinion as the foreign languages group by also showing positive attitude. African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,69$) also viewed the legislation on the use of seat-belts in a positive manner. There are no significant differences between the language groups.

Concerning the legislation of conducting the speed checks the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,16$) seem to have less positive attitude towards conducting of speed checks. African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,78$) shows positive attitude towards this legislation. South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,97$) seem to be more positive than the foreign languages group, but less positive than African languages group. Significant differences between the three groups are visible ($p \leq 0,05$).

The overall positive evaluation by the language groups indicates that the selected legislations that are displayed in this table are accepted by the respondents as the laws that can contribute towards guaranteeing their safety.

TABLE 3.3

EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC LEGISLATION ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS (N = 500)

NATURE OF LEGISLATION (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Control over parking in town necessary	1,93	1,05	1,92	0,97	1,90	0,93	1,93	0,98	1,86	0,65	0,998
Seatbelts do not ensure safety	3,81	1,31	3,68	1,24	3,76	1,23	3,61	1,41	3,38	1,28	0,656
Conducting of speed checks	1,76	1,07	1,85	0,93	1,88	0,91	1,80	0,87	1,86	0,79	0,943
Traffic fines inten- ded to fill govt. coffers	3,31	1,18	2,93	1,37	3,10	1,34	3,32	1,42	3,29	1,27	0,155

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.3 shows the evaluation of public attitudes towards traffic legislation according to age groups. The elderly age group 56 + years ($\bar{X} = 1,86$) seems to have a more positive attitude towards parking control than any other age group. The next positive attitude is shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,90$). This positive assessment is followed by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,92$). This table also shows that the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,93$) and 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,93$) have the same positive evaluation of this legislation.

Seat-belts seem to have been evaluated more positively by the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,81$). The next favourable attitude is shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,76$). The next group to show positive attitude is 26 - 35 years ($\bar{X} = 3,68$). The age group 46 - 55 years ($\bar{X} = 3,61$) also seems

to have positive attitude towards this legislation. A less favourable attitude is shown by 56 + years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,38$).

This table further indicates that the conducting of speed checks is viewed in a positive manner by 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,76$). Another positive attitude is shown by 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,80$). A positive attitude towards the conducting of speed checks is shown also by 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,85$). A slight less favourable attitude in this table is shown by 56 + years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,86$) followed closely by 36 - 45 age group ($\bar{X} = 1,88$). It is important to note that all these age groups have a positive attitude towards the conducting of speed checks. Although a slight differences can be observed between these groups, such differences are not significant ($p > 0,05$).

It is also clear from this table that 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,32$) view this legislation more positively than all other groups. Following closely to this group with also positive attitude is 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,31$). It is also clear from this table that 56 + years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,29$) have a positive attitude towards this legislation. The 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,10$) also shows a clear positive attitude towards this legislation. A somewhat less favourable attitude is displayed by 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,93$). However, no significant differences are shown).

The general attitude of the respondents is positive.

TABLE 3.4

EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC LEGISLATION ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

NATURE OF LEGISLATION (Abridged)	STD. 9 n = 86		STD. 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Control over parking in town necessary	1,78	0,91	1,95	1,02	1,81	0,91	2,01	0,19	0,255
Seatbelts do not ensure safety	3,51	1,30	3,71	1,24	3,78	1,26	3,77	1,27	0,451
Conducting of speed checks	1,77	0,95	1,82	0,92	1,74	0,78	2,01	1,01	0,145
Traffic fines intended to fill govt. coffers	3,14	1,40	3,10	1,35	2,97	1,36	3,03	1,30	0,842

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 3.4, depicts the evaluation of public attitudes towards selected traffic legislations according to the respondent's educational qualifications. The table clearly shows that Std. 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 1,78$) and Std. 10 group ($\bar{X} = 1,95$) and diploma group ($\bar{X} = 1,81$) are in agreement that control over parking in town is a very important legislation. Although respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 2,01$) show slightly less positive attitude than the other groups the differences are not significant ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to the seat-belts legislation it appears that respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,78$) have a more positive attitude towards this legislation. Respondents with degrees ($\bar{X} = 3,77$) seem to agree with the diploma group. The Std. 10 group ($\bar{X} = 3,71$) have more or less the same positive attitude for this legislation. It is important to note that even the Std. 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 3,51$) agrees that seat-belts do ensure the safety of drivers and passengers.

Concerning the conducting of speed checks legislation the group that shows a more positive attitude than other groups is the diploma group ($\bar{X} = 1,74$). The Std. 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 1,77$) also seem to be in agreement with the diploma group because this group views this legislation positively. It is important to note that even though the table shows the degree group ($\bar{X} = 2,01$) with a somewhat less positive view than the other two groups the difference is not at all significant ($p > 0,05$).

It is interesting to notice that the groups with less educational qualifications namely, the Std. 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 3,14$) and Std. 10 group ($\bar{X} = 3,10$) agree that prosecutions and subsequent fines are not intended to fill government coffers. These two groups have a positive view of this legislation. The group that shows negative evaluation of this legislation is the diploma group ($\bar{X} = 2,97$). The differences are, nevertheless, not significant ($p \geq 0,05$).

The overall positive evaluation by the respondents indicates that there is room for more co-operation between the traffic police and the public in Transkei.

3.4.5 Enforcement techniques

Enforcement techniques generally fall into the following classifications :

- (a) Enforcement actions by uniformed police officers on intersection control duty or posted to mobile units for general traffic police duties. The extent of the co-operation of road users with this type of enforcement is determined by the presence of officers.

- (b) Patrol and law enforcement by traffic police in marked cars or on motor-cycles. This technique has a high-level of deterrent value, but only when the officers are present.
- (c) Law enforcement at scenes of accident for violations contributing to the accident. Normally this technique is executed by uniformed accident investigators. It has a high value in accident prevention.
- (d) Patrol by uniformed traffic police officers in unmarked cars. This technique is new and has a high voluntary compliance value that goes beyond the presence of the officer.
- (e) Radar speed management by uniformed traffic police officers with plainly marked vehicles, but unmarked radar-screen cars. Radar has a high value which also goes beyond the presence of the officer.
- (f) Speedometer use by uniformed traffic police officers. This method of speed management allows speed enforcement in areas not suited to pacing or which do not warrant radar speed management signing and enforcement. This technique has a high deterrent value which goes beyond the presence of the officer, but hardened violators may notice the black tubes in the road. New clear plastic tubes have increased the psychological range of this device.
- (g) Air-ground speed control by an airborne patrolman clocking violators with a stop-watch over previously marked stretches of highway with the assistance from in chase vehicles in the area. Although aerial supervision is effective far beyond the presence of the uniformed traffic policemen, it is a very expensive technique.

- (h) Road blocks manned by uniformed traffic policemen in plainly marked vehicles. This technique is very effective in catching drivers who drive without valid drivers licenses or while their licences are suspended, auto thieves, fugitives, and drunken drivers. At the present moment, despite its effectiveness, the members of the public do not accept it.

- (i) Rolling blocks by one or two police vehicles. Traffic police vehicles lead and set the pace for all following vehicles at the legal speed limit and practically prevent excessive speeds. This technique is mechanically effective, but lacks full public acceptance (Weston, 1978:121-22).

3.4.6 Patrolling

The goal of pro-active traffic enforcement is to eliminate traffic conflict or to minimise the possibilities thereof. Traffic conflict comprises various manifestations which are interlocked in different and changing cause-effect relationships, such as road accidents, traffic offences, faulty traffic flow, etc. These manifestations are individually or collectively causal or consequential of what is commonly known as traffic conflict. Any normal traffic situation has the potential for traffic conflict. It is therefore the duty of traffic police to target any traffic situation for pro-active traffic enforcement. A traffic offence is dependent on the simultaneous existence of a predisposition to recklessness or negligence and the opportunity to break the rules (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:119). Both factors should be eliminated in order to comply with the basic goal of traffic control, namely, traffic order through traffic enforcement. The total destruction of the predisposing factors is impossible, because inherent predispositions are created by socio-psychological factors. In some cases elimination of predisposing factor may be achieved, but only through a long term process such as traffic

education. Elimination of precipitating factors, on the other hand, may be achieved by means of a technique like traffic patrolling (Cloete and Conradie, 1984:98).

According to Hand *et al.* (1976:84) general patrolling may be described as the surveillance and supervision of the traffic situation in a specific area (in the case of area patrol) or road or street (linear patrol). Patrol can be conducted by cars or on foot. Traffic patrol can also be concealed, for example, when unmarked traffic vehicles are used or officers do not wear uniform, or identifiable, i.e. in vehicles which are clearly marked as traffic vehicles. General patrol is highly routinized. It differs from planned or selective traffic patrol.

Franey, Darwick and Robertson (1976:3) define selective traffic patrolling as that particular type of patrolling (surveillance and supervision) which is done in relation to time, place and type of traffic violation. It involves that part of prevention programme which includes the planning, regulation and evaluation of traffic activities.

Selective traffic enforcement can be the result of the use of extensive studies and computer-based records systems, but it could also be based upon manual study of accident records, an accident location spot map, or a responsive supervisor who is always ready to listen to the feedback given by officers doing the field work. Selective traffic enforcement creates an impression of omnipresence at accident locations. Traffic police enforcement officers are posted to such areas during the time of great accident incidence and directed to enforce selective provisions of the vehicle code, normally moving violations have been responsible for many of the accidents. The force of selective traffic enforcement is directed towards reducing accidents by identifying and arresting violators in an area where most accidents are known to have occurred (Weston, 1978:118).

Traffic patrolling also serve the following purposes :

- (a) Protection, i.e. the elimination of actual or potential opportunities to commit traffic offences or the reduction of those risks resulting in road accidents or congestion. Patrol creates the illusion of omnipresence and based on the assumption that while the traffic officer is actually present the motorists will obey traffic rules and regulations. Obviously deterrence also plays a part in this.
- (b) Dialogue as an aim in traffic patrolling means the interaction between the traffic and the road user. Traffic patrol gives the opportunity for interaction in which the traffic officer can build mutual understanding. The true aim of traffic patrolling can be communicated in an informal manner to all levels of society and unfavourable attitudes often resulting from twisted reporting can be rectified (Van Heerden, 1986:178). Traffic patrol gives the patrolman the opportunity to enforce the laws by way of warnings. In this way people may not be taken to court for trivial violations and this may contribute to the maintenance of the police community relations. A warning should be given only where it will definitely have the desired effect, and in such offences, which do not constitute serious or dangerous road conduct. The warning may come as a request, particularly where certain acts are not prohibited in law but may possible be to the advantage of other road users and good relations may therefore be maintained.
- (c) Reassurance, which means a feeling of safety, is established by the mere sight of a traffic officer. It implies that visibility of a traffic officer should be high to make sure that he is seen by more road users.

- (d) Peace and order can be maintained through traffic patrolling. It serves as a suitable reminder of the necessity to regulate individual behaviour in traffic in the interest of the collective welfare of all road users. Traffic patrolling is capable of creating this feeling of security. It confirms the fact that individual freedom on the road is relative and subject to restriction if it poses danger to the safety of others. The regulation of traffic, handling of congestion and even arrest by traffic policemen are all methods of contributing to peace and order in the traffic situation.
- (e) Other functions conducted by traffic policeman on patrol duty relate either to law enforcement or auxiliary services. During the performance of these duties the patrol officer has an opportunity of preventing possible traffic offences or of preventing an apparently minor offence from becoming a more serious one. This includes services such as compulsory vehicles inspection where vehicle defects which can cause traffic accidents can be noticed and repaired. Research has shown that this function has indeed contributed to a decrease in the accident rate (Cloete and Conradie, 1984:99-100).

3.4.7 Traffic education

Wilson (1963:142) is of the opinion that "... public education offers greater immediate results in preventing traffic accidents than either engineering or enforcement".

Traffic education forms an important part of traffic control. It is regarded as the decisive factor in the long run according to Smit and Potgieter (1982:22). With its assistance it is hoped that good driving habits will become accepted as good manners at home. The enforcement and execution of legislation is important, but education will do more to cultivate good driving habits. The success of long-term preventive measures

depends partly upon education, the acceptance of rules of conduct, the cultivation of the desire to comply voluntarily with the traffic norms and laws and the experience of an increased degree of personal satisfaction from social acceptable behaviour. Traffic education can be regarded as a character builder (Van Heerden, 1986:226).

According to Davies (1960:312) engineering, law enforcement and education are important factors in the prevention scheme, but another, enthusiasm is equally important. This aspect can only be achieved by means of education: enthusiasm for solving traffic problems must be cultivated in the general public.

Traffic education and training of drivers are regarded as synonymous. However, a personal opinion is that while the former includes the improvement of attitudes, the latter implies the betterment of driving abilities. For the purpose of this discussion education means that the road user is taught driving responsibility, defensive driving and traffic functions such as attentiveness, reactive ability, adaptation, feeling for his fellow man, spatial orientation, traffic insight or thinking (Barkhuizen, 1967:113; Verwey and Theron, 1966:33). Traffic training and instruction are often given in a formal classroom situation and in laboratories (where traffic simulation is possible. However, it can take place informally. Authorities in the field feel that informal driving instruction produces the best results because :-

- * instruction is given in a more relaxed learning atmosphere;
- * the aspirant driver "practices" in the vehicle he is probably going to use as a fully fledged motorist;
- * the instruction is standard rather than time-bound and will not stop before a certain operational criterion has been attained (Näätänen & Summala, 1976:85).

The safe use of streets and roads by drivers and pedestrians is a matter of acquiring the correct attitudes and habits. Naturally most people will act safely in the face of danger, but safe driving where there is no real imminent danger requires an intensive education programme (Leonard, 1971:37) and the intensification of disciplined behaviour (Davies, 1960:312).

This is an important additional aspect of preventive action by traffic officers. It strongly emphasises the role which the public (road users and others) can play; it also means that the dangers of negligence and recklessness must be pointed out to them; its aim is to inculcate knowledge of and respect for general traffic regulations and to stress courteous road use (Leonard, 1971:245).

If traffic education is to be a successful pro-active enforcement measure, it will probably have to be used selectively. This implies the analysis of accident statistics so that potential "accident prone" people can be identified for education. A study of this nature will also suggest the most suitable type of programme (Leonard, 1971:37).

Educational work should be supported by public opinion. Traffic institutions can try to cultivate a better understanding of traffic issues, support for the safety programmes and methods to help implement them. Safety programmes such as the voluntary testing of cars form part of an educational action and ought to be encouraged (South-western Law Enforcement Institute, 1971:35).

High on the priority list are safety programmes at educational institutions. In the past these programmes were offered by the police, but there are some differences of opinions about the extent to which the police should be involved in a school or other institution's activities. One opinion is that this task should rather be undertaken by traffic bodies and trained

teachers (Leonard, 1971:36). There is evidence that children who have learnt from an early age to observe traffic rules and who have been told the purpose and content of such rules, commit fewer traffic offences. The school is in a good position to involve a large group in the educational programme, which can begin at the primary school level and, complemented by patrol work, be continued through secondary school and university level (Leonard, 1971:38).

3.5 TRAFFIC POLICE RESPONSIBILITIES

3.5.1 The pedestrian

The inability of pedestrians to take care when walking on public roads coupled with careless attitude towards their safety and the safety of other road users creates dangerous scenes for other road users and for themselves. Many accidents that involve pedestrians occur in areas where they are not supposed to be or in areas intended for vehicles. Sometimes they cross the road when vehicles are approaching at high speed without first ensuring that it is safe to do so. In places where there are traffic lights pedestrians continue to cross the streets even when the traffic light is red indicating that they must stop. It is the duty of traffic policemen to educate pedestrians to make use of pedestrian crossing areas when crossing the streets. They must be persuaded to learn safe walking habits and to obey traffic rules voluntarily. Young children should be targeted for traffic education so that they can learn safe walking habits and obey traffic regulations. If this can be achieved the number of road accidents can be reduced because people will comply with rules and regulations voluntarily (Van Heerden, 1986:220).

3.5.2 The vehicle

It is the duty of traffic police to ensure that vehicles that are used by motorists are fit for public use. This can be done through routine vehicle inspections. This exercise is

very important because vehicles that are not fit for use are removed from the road and this saves the lives of the owners of the vehicles and other road users. While it is well known that each motorist must always ensure that his vehicle is road-worthy, motorists for one reason or another continue to use unroadworthy vehicles. There are prescriptions in the Ordinance on road Traffic whose purpose is to reduce the risk of accidents by means of obligations it imposes. The application of these prescriptions is aimed at preventing accidents by ensuring that defective vehicles are removed from the road and repaired before they can be used again. The traffic police also ensure that unpermitted innovations like noisy exhausts are removed. Traffic law enforcement in this context does not only involve punishment, but also includes the idea of "preventive repair". Unnecessary application of punishment often makes the public to believe that these measures infringe individual freedom. Such strictness will not encourage police community relations that are always needs for the maintenance of traffic order (Van Heerden, 1986:220).

According to Cooper (1990:375-93) the testing station must determine the fitness of vehicles by issuing certificates of road-worthy, road-worthy disc; certificate of fitness, certificate of disc; and traffic authorities are empowered to cancel or suspend the certificate of fitness or fitness disc. Traffic police must ensure that vehicles on the road have all the following: brakes, lamps; retro-reflectors on some vehicles; direction indicators; steering mechanism; hooter; windscreen and windscreen wipers; entrance and exit doors; tyres; exhaust silencers and pipes; safety belts; emergency warning signs; speedometers; etc. Drivers are also expected to observe the load on vehicles in respect of the following: weight of persons and baggage; number of passengers in relations to seating capacity; load on tyres; gross weight of vehicle; axle massload of vehicle with pneumatic tyres, etc.

3.5.3 Structural traffic control

Effective control includes the creation of adequate facilities for the safe flow of traffic. This is largely the duty of the traffic engineer. The traffic engineer designs roadway facilities, safe, convenient and economic transport of people and goods (Leonard, 1971:27; Wilson and McLaren, 1977:439). The prevention or reduction of accidents, congestions and traffic jams, and the subsequent promotion of safe and smooth traffic flow, are the main aims. Traffic engineering makes efforts to improve the efficiency of road-users by reducing the decisions motorists must take. The idea is to reduce the inherent accident potential of streets and highways by reducing the need for individual decisions, thus encouraging uniformity of action, and to minimise conflicts and confusions that occur when two or more motorists have to take a decision, by canalising traffic and providing enough, clear and uniform road-signs and road-markings Evans, Brody & Stack (Van Heerden, 1986:223).

According to Brandstatter and Hyman (1971:438) measures to realise these aims include :-

- * ensuring that roads are wide enough to accommodate a heavy traffic flow, and have surfaces that are suitable for this purpose;
- * controlling traffic signals to avoid unnecessary intersection jams;
- * putting up road-signs that are clear and unambiguous both to motorist and pedestrians;
- * marking roads and canalising traffic in such a way as to eliminate inter-lane and inter-directional conflicts;
- * making fast-moving and slower lanes, to ensure that slow vehicles do not hold up the normal traffic flow; and
- * creating barriers to avoid branching-off against the traffic flow.

The responsibility of a traffic engineer is divided into five main areas :

- * study of the nature of traffic:
this implies the science of measuring in terms of fundamental laws of traffic flow;
- * traffic operations:
this refers to the use of the knowledge to operating traffic systems;
- * transport planning;
- * geometric design; and
- * the building of efficient streets, roads, speedways, bridges and flyover-structures which make the traffic police function more simple. This involves large-scale and long-term planning when it comes to the modification of existing roads and facilities and the building of new ones.

Police engineering work is a matter of identifying and eliminating factors that are contributing to the increase of road accidents. Observation studies, and the tabulation of road accidents and conviction statistics are very important to the ecological determination of accidents, congestions, traffic volume, parking and motoring habits.

Van Heerden (1982:224) is of the opinion that a traffic police engineer should be capable of -

- identifying the need for traffic ordinances, or for additional signals, signs, and markings; suggesting and promoting such measures; and if necessary, pointing to requirement for their revision;
- discovering dangerous intersections, streets and areas and analysing the facts that are known about them with the intention administration.

According to Clark (1982:215) the following are the seven areas of specialisation in traffic engineering :-

- * vehicle and human factors;
- * traffic volumes, speed and delays;
- * traffic flow and the carrying capacity of streets and intersections;
- * travelling patterns, trip-generating factors, origin and destinations;
- * parking and terminal factors;
- * mass transport systems; and
- * collisions.

Traffic engineering is not the exclusive duty of the traffic engineer. The traffic police have a special function to fulfil in this area. Wilson (Van Heerden, 1982:223) distinguishes between general and police engineering work :

- (a) General engineering is mainly the duty of the traffic organisers who are tasked to eliminating the contributory factors.
- (b) Demanding, when necessary the improvement of street lighting, and the creation of thoroughfares, service roads, one-way and no-entry streets, road dividing lines, safety islands and other measures to promote a more smooth traffic flow.
- (c) Evaluating parking requirements in conjunction with appropriate parking regulations.
- (d) Establishing safe speeds for corners, various types of roads and the approaches to intersections.
- (e) Arranging traffic surveys concerning the observance of speed limits, signs, changing form lanes and other traffic regulations.

(f) Analysing accident data and enforcement statistics.

3.5.4 Parking control

Parking control is conducted by traffic police to ensure that all motorists have access to parking areas that are always not enough. Parking regulations are therefore made mainly to ensure that every motorist has a right to park his vehicle where it is most convenient for him or her. Although such regulations are made for the convenience of all, and with the intention of guaranteeing smooth flow of social services (viz. the prohibition of parking in loading zones, in front of entrances, or near fire hydrants, in front of police stations, fire stations and other emergency services) are the very ones that cause misunderstanding, conflict and bitterness between traffic police and the motoring public. Many people regard parking fines as personal insults or an intrusion upon their personal freedom of movement (Adams, 1968:192). Such attitudes are caused by selfishness of some motorists who refuse to accept that other motorists have the equal right to parking and that they also have the opportunity to use parking. The situation becomes worse when a motorist feels that it is his right of freedom to park in front of a private entrance preventing the owner of the place to move in and out of his place. This behaviour is what requires the making of parking regulations. On the otherhand parking does not always cause threat to the safe flow of traffic, a little toleration of such offences is sometimes desirable, except of course when it possess danger to the traffic flow; that an action should be taken (Van Heerden, 1982:228). In such a case a traffic policeman is not expected to exercise discretion.

3.6 DISCRETION

The traffic policing job can be very traumatic for any traffic policeman if he may not be allowed to use his discretion in the performance of his function. According to More (1975:81) discretion refers to consideration, good judgement, the freedom to make decisions and the ability to form a judgement. Davis (1971:4) believes that discretion is the freedom to choose between action and in-action within the limits of one's authority. These limits and not the legality of the choice, represent the deciding factor, because discretion is to a large extent illegal. However, discretion should not be confused with discrimination or differentiated traffic law enforcement and should under no circumstances be influenced by sex, class or racial differences which would amount to the violation of the principle of equality before the law.

Discrimination occurs when distinctions are made by traffic policemen regarding the way in which they treat people. Justice will not exist when double standards are in operation: where there is one sort of justice for the rich and another for the poor. Discretion is nevertheless an indispensable method of maintaining justice. If discretion could be neglected traffic institutions would not be able to satisfy modern expectations concerning justice. It is the most important method of achieving a creative governmental and legal system. Discretion should not be misused and should not be neglected because it is part and parcel of the traffic law enforcement (Davis, 1971:25).

3.6.1 Discretion and the law

Actions specifically prohibited cannot be dealt with in a discretionary way. It must be applied in the spirit of the law. It is definitely allowed with regard to the exercising of powers of arrest and search. The criminal procedure allows

the use discretion in that it does not lay down that the traffic police shall arrest or search but merely states that these actions may be done (Van Heerden, 1982:53).

According to Radelet (1973:90) the question of discretion refers mainly to the facts regarding an act. The assessment of these facts in order to determine whether all the elements of a specific act are present in a particular case, is an example of a judgement emanating from knowledge of the offender. Some people are of the opinion that traffic police should have no discretion to decide whether or not an act is a crime. The courts or the judicial system should have such power not the traffic police.

Be that is it may, traffic policemen will always have to make such evaluations, and to act upon them, on a spur of the moment.

3.6.2 The victim's discretion

Discretionary action starts with the victim. In many cases traffic police have to rely upon descriptions by members of the public to assist them assess whether a crime has been committed. The decision to involve traffic police in an accident depends on the injured or the victim. His decision may be influenced by a variety of factors like, the other party may be his personal friend or the matter will be resolved privately. Some people may agree at the scene of crime that the traffic police should not be involved (Van Heerden, 1982:54).

3.6.3 Institutional discretion

Institutional discretion refers to administrative policy concerning priorities and timing of action. The administrative policy may be described as one of either total or passive law enforcement. In the first case, all laws would be applied equally and in the second case some laws would be given total

application and others would partly applied or ignored. Geary (1975:254) believes that the following are the main factors influencing the decision as to which of these policies is adopted :-

- * an increase in a particular type of crime;
- * public pressure to neglect prosecutions in the case of certain types of offences, or to take stronger action in the case of others;
- * the public's image of traffic police;
- * the availability of enough traffic policemen and equipment;
- * regular revision of administrative policy to adapt to dynamic circumstances; and
- * the scope of traffic problems. ;

Complete application of law is impossible because there is always a shortage of traffic policemen to enforce the rules and regulations.

3.6.4 Line discretion

Contrary to the normal hierarchical structure of traffic police institutions, where discretion comes from the highest levels to the lowest, discretionary law enforcement comes from the lowest to the highest. It is the line functionary who most often has to decide whether to exercise discretion or not. His judgement will strongly be affected by the following factors :-

- * rigid institutional policy;
- * inadequate knowledge concerning the elements of traffic offences;
- * favouritism emanating from corruption;
- * public indifference towards traffic policing;
- * dangers of the situation which he finds himself;

- * constant institutional demand for efficiency and productivity; and
- * fear of departmental or judicial action in the event of improper action.

3.7 TOLERANCE

3.7.1 Offence tolerance

Offence tolerance poses many problems for traffic institutions particularly for traffic policemen. There are many conflicting viewpoints because some traffic policemen believe that traffic legislation is clear and unambiguous and as such should be enforced to the letter of the law and that no latitude should be permitted for traffic offences. Other traffic officers feel that traffic legislation should be enforced discretionally in that an offender should not be prosecuted unless he has committed an offence which poses a threat and danger to other road users (Brandstatter & Hyman, 1971:454). The public may regard the following actions as forms of tolerance if the traffic crime is not regarded as serious enough to justify punishment :-

- * maladministration in dealing with traffic cases;
- * inefficient processing of summonses; and
- * different interpretations of road traffic legislation which result in failure to punish traffic offenders.

3.7.2 Enforcement tolerance

Enforcement tolerance means the public's acceptance of traffic law enforcement activities at any given period and is influenced by the following factors :-

- * the temperament of the public, community and the press;
- * the image of the traffic law enforcement organisations;
- * the measure of respect, assistance and understanding inspired by traffic officers; and

* by unpopular traffic officer's action (Khoza, 1994:214).

3.8 SUMMARY

The great losses that are suffered in terms of people killed or maimed and losses to property, compelled traffic researchers to rationalise and identify accident-causing factors. Traffic control or the lack thereof could in a way be regarded as an accident-causing factor and it has perhaps become necessary to see traffic control in a new perspective. Traffic control induces order. It creates a safe traffic environment in which the road user can exercise normal and safe traffic interactions within certain prescribed limits. The field of traffic control, its objectives, nature, extent, techniques and reaction is open for scientific personal and judgement (Cloete and Conradie, 1984:105).

The enforcement and interpretation of traffic rules and regulations have created conflict between the traffic police and the public, but have also established new ideas and standards for policing. The repeated call upon the police to come and examine and justify their actions has been beneficial to first-class policing. One good result has been the theoretical consideration of the old controversy of "right" and "wrong" in the practical field of traffic control. The use of discretion has lent a new and dynamic dimension to the function of policing. Education of the public should aim at making the community traffic-conscious; at familiarising them with the content of the traffic laws and regulations and in general at creating a change of attitude and disposition (Smit and Potgieter, 1982:25).

CHAPTER 4

EXTERNAL IMAGE OF TRAFFIC POLICING

4.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Van Heerden (1986:81), policing, also traffic policing, is a social service created by human beings and which is rendered by human beings to human beings in an environment that has been shaped by human beings. This implies a process of constant interaction between traffic officials and the driving public. It is logical to assume that on the basis of heterogeneity, people will differ because of social class, nationality, cultural affiliation, religion and economic status. These differences also have a noteworthy influence upon the ecological distribution of people in the physical environment.

On the other hand, the psychological environment may also influence human behaviour as a result of stimuli from the surrounding external world. Psychological processes should not be regarded as fundamental aspects or components of the behaviour of groups or communities. These processes are part of the inner-experience of individuals and are mostly influenced by the following :-

- * perception, which is the complex process by which individuals select sensory stimuli and arranges them in such a way as to form a rational and meaningful image of the external environment. Perception is the product of conditioners such as needs, attitudes, motives and tensions connected with human survival (Van Heerden, 1986:89-92);
- * attitudes, an individual's predisposition to evaluate symbols or objects in his environment in either a favourable or unfavourable way, sets the scene for the

forming of attitudes (Iannone, 1970:31). According to Sheehan and Cordner (1989:271-72), people's evaluations and behaviour are affected by attitudes. People with different attitudes will form different opinions of the people with whom they come into contact (e.g. traffic police officers) and will also evaluate events and activities in which they are involved differently, depending on their attitudes. " ... attitudes are what people are predisposed to bring to everything in which they become involved" (Sheehan and Cordner, 1989:271); and

- * prejudice, which is a type of attitude, namely the tendency to make advance judgements about objects, persons, groups or values based on association or experience (Radelet, 1973:175). Prejudice is also regarded as an attitude, including an element of action (discrimination), an emotional element and behaviour. Prejudice is acquired through experience and also implies hostility (Patrick, 1972:111). Prejudice usually finds expression in some form of behaviour. The intensity of the prejudice determines the intensity of the hostility it engenders. Patrick (1972:126) is of the opinion that speech is the most important aspect of prejudice because it may contain destructive and derogatory remarks.

The external image of traffic policing reflects the reaction of the public which is formed in the execution of the traffic function.

It is indeed the way in which traffic is controlled and traffic order facilitated which ensures that the democratic principles built into the process of policing are maintained. This implies that the external image entails a process of constant evaluation which is closely linked to the expectations of the public, their knowledge and experience of the execution of and the manner in which traffic police services are rendered (Van Heerden et al., 1983:115).

4.2 ROLE IMAGE

The role image pertaining to traffic policing refers to the quality of the service rendered to the public (Van Heerden et al., 1983:116).

A favourable image is inclined to promote voluntary compliance with the traffic rules and regulations, while an unfavourable image will pose the opposite effect. An unfavourable image may cast suspicion on the total authority structure. The global traffic police image refers to the sum total of evaluations in terms of a great variety of image determinants such as efficiency, etc. based upon their occurrence in the service rendered by traffic officers. Efficiency in the mechanical administration of traffic rules and regulations (the manner in which the traffic police role is fulfilled) does not determine the suspiciousness or otherwise of the role status. The role content and the manner in which the role is fulfilled form an integrated whole, and for this reason it is imperative to evaluate the efficiency of traffic policing in terms of certain determinants (Van Heerden, 1986:138-39). The list of determinants contained in table 4.1 should not be regarded as complete. Neither should the image described by these determinants be regarded as a permanent condition because it is logical to accept that the image of traffic policing is in a constant state of fluctuation between favourable and unfavourable expectations of the public in a changing external environment. It should nevertheless be indicative of the weaker elements in the process of rendering a service to the public with a view to enhancing the partnership in traffic policing.

TABLE 4.1

EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	MALE n = 31		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Prevention of road accidents	3,24	1,35	3,26	1,30	0,522
Regulation of traffic flow	3,12	1,27	3,16	1,22	0,531
Control over parking in town	3,02	1,34	2,95	1,29	0,581
Educating motorists	3,43	1,30	3,56	1,29	0,904
Speed control	2,86	1,28	2,80	1,26	0,872
Educating pedestrians	3,65	1,33	3,58	1,29	0,626
Control over reckless and negligent driving	3,73	3,22	3,48	1,34	0,000*
Tracking down unroadworthy vehicles	3,43	1,43	3,43	1,32	0,234
Tracing dangerous drivers	3,74	1,27	3,86	3,88	0,000*
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	3,21	1,26	3,19	1,16	0,219
Tracking down drunken drivers	3,55	1,37	3,39	1,33	0,651
Supervision of traffic situations street patrols	3,39	1,30	3,39	1,24	0,461
Ensuring traffic order on roads	3,42	1,31	3,30	1,26	0,557

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.1 renders a statistical breakdown of selected determinants of the efficiency component of traffic policing in Transkei according to the viewpoint of male and female respondents.

4.2.1 Gender

Table 4.1 shows that, except for speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,86$), all the remaining functional traffic activities are viewed in a negative light by male and female respondents; while female respondents agree that speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,80$) and control over parking ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) are efficiently executed. The table also shows that female respondents differ significantly from their male counterparts in their negative evaluation of control over reckless and negligent driving ($p = 0,000$). Male respondents seem to be more negative in their evaluation of traffic officer's efficiency with regard to reckless and negligent driving ($\bar{X} = 3,37$) than female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,48$). However, female respondents are more negative in their evaluation of the tracing of dangerous drivers ($\bar{X} = 3,86$) than male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,74$).

The overall negative evaluation of traffic functions leads to the conclusion that traffic control, through which traffic order and peaceful co-existence are ensured, does not meet the expectations of the research group. This could pave the way for disturbing relationships between traffic officers (active partners) and the public (passive partners).

The following traffic functions are evaluated as poor to very poor -

- * educating pedestrians with regard to traffic safety (64,80%) - Annexure E;
- * tracking down of drunken drivers (60,00%) - Annexure E; and
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling (59,40%) - Annexure E.

4.2.2 Languages

TABLE 4.2

EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Prevention of road accidents	3,13	1,37	3,94	0,95	3,05	1,38	0,000*
Regulation of traffic flow	3,03	1,27	3,73	1,02	2,98	1,20	0,000*
Control over parking in towns	2,87	1,32	3,70	1,13	2,77	1,15	0,000*
Educating motorists through advice	3,39	1,34	4,03	0,95	3,33	1,25	0,000*
Speed control	2,74	1,30	3,29	1,07	2,84	1,19	0,002*
Education pedestrians	3,47	1,36	4,29	0,82	3,72	1,28	0,000*
Control over reckless and negligent driving	3,39	1,39	4,94	5,81	3,49	1,37	0,000*
Tracking down unroadworthy vehicles	3,23	1,39	4,27	0,94	3,63	1,45	0,000*
Tracing dangerous drivers	3,70	2,90	4,12	0,97	3,88	1,24	0,421
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	3,09	1,24	3,88	0,94	2,95	1,15	0,000*
Tracking down drunken drivers	3,35	1,41	4,06	1,00	3,60	1,22	0,000*
Supervision of traffic situation through street patrols	3,28	1,29	3,94	0,98	3,42	1,33	0,000*
Ensuring traffic order on streets	3,26	1,32	3,99	0,92	3,30	1,32	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.2 contains a breakdown of the efficiency of selected traffic functions according to languages. This table reveals that African languages group have a positive view of the speed control function ($\bar{X} = 2,74$). This is also the case with foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,84$).

The South African languages group view all traffic functions tabulated in this table negatively, with education of pedestrians ($\bar{X} = 4,29$), tracking down of unroadworthy vehicles ($\bar{X} = 4,27$), drunken drivers ($\bar{X} = 4,06$) and educating motorists in the form of giving them advice ($\bar{X} = 4,03$) being viewed more negatively. The view of the foreign languages group does not differ considerably from the African languages group in that its view is also negative with the exception of the following four functions, namely :-

- * regulation of traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 2,98$);
- * control over parking in towns ($\bar{X} = 2,77$);
- * speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,84$); and
- * overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) which are views positively.

It also appears from table 4.2 that the South African languages group differs significantly from the other groups with regard to the following :-

- * prevention of road accidents ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * regulations of traffic flow ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * control over parking in towns ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * educating motorists by giving them advice ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * speed control ($p \leq 0,002$);
- * educating pedestrians ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * control over reckless and negligent drivers ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * tracking down unroadworthy vehicles ($p \leq 0,000$);

- * overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * tracking down drunken drivers ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling ($p \leq 0,000$); and
- * ensuring traffic order on our roads ($p \leq 0,000$).

The tracing of dangerous drivers does not show any significant differences among the language groups, which means that the language groups agree that this traffic function are poor to very poorly performed by the traffic police in Transkei.

The general attitude of the sample group towards the execution of selected functions of traffic policing in Transkei is negative and may pose a threat to future co-operation between the public and the traffic police.

4.2.3 Age

Table 4.3 reveals that the age group 18 - 25 years rate the efficiency of officers with regard to the traffic functions positively, except for -

- * education motorists in the form of advice ($\bar{X} = 3,36$);
- * educating pedestrians ($\bar{X} = 3,19$);
- * tracing of unroadworthy vehicles ($\bar{X} = 3,21$);
- * tracing down dangerous drivers ($\bar{X} = 3,42$);
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling ($\bar{X} = 3,01$); and
- * ensuring traffic order ($\bar{X} = 3,13$).

Respondents in the age group 26 - 35 years perceive almost all the traffic functions listed in table 4.3 in a negative manner, except for -

- * control over parking in town ($\bar{X} = 2,93$); and
- * speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,83$).

The age group 36 - 45 years also seems to have a negative perception of the execution of the traffic functions, except for speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,88$) which is viewed positively. On the other hand, respondents in the age group 46 - 66 years have a negative perception of all the functions. The age group 56 years and above is negatively inclined towards these traffic functions except for the control over parking in towns ($\bar{X} = 2,62$).

TABLE 4.3
EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO
AGE GROUPS (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Prevention of road accidents	2,75	1,37	3,15	1,34	3,52	1,28	3,73	1,18	3,24	1,41	0,000*
Regulation of traffic flow	2,48	1,16	3,03	1,27	3,42	1,16	3,78	1,06	3,24	1,18	0,000*
Control over parking in town	2,52	1,30	2,93	1,32	3,21	1,28	3,59	1,16	2,62	1,32	0,000*
Educating motorists through advice	3,36	1,29	3,30	1,37	3,66	1,20	4,10	1,02	3,52	1,12	0,001*
Speed control	2,49	1,34	2,83	1,27	2,88	1,24	3,07	1,25	3,24	1,18	0,071*
Education pedestrians	3,19	1,36	3,49	1,31	3,86	1,28	4,24	1,04	3,67	1,28	0,000*
Control over reckless and negligent driving	2,99	1,48	3,45	1,36	3,80	1,29	4,12	8,06	3,86	1,20	0,000*
Tracking down unroad-worthy vehicles	3,21	1,54	3,38	1,36	3,52	1,38	3,68	6,29	3,57	1,33	0,384
Tracing dangerous drivers	3,42	1,39	3,58	1,29	3,89	1,18	4,32	7,86	3,52	1,25	0,001*
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	2,94	1,13	3,08	1,22	3,39	1,24	3,70	1,12	3,24	1,26	0,003*
Tracking down drunken drivers	2,97	1,49	3,37	1,36	3,79	1,27	3,95	1,05	3,57	1,33	0,001*
Supervision of traffic situation through street patrols	3,01	1,29	3,31	1,32	3,61	1,16	3,73	1,16	3,38	1,40	0,008*
Ensuring traffic order on streets/roads	3,13	1,35	3,27	1,33	3,54	1,23	3,83	1,02	3,38	1,32	0,022*

* $p \leq 0,05$

It appears from table 4.3 that the more inexperienced drivers (18 - 25 years) differ significantly from experienced drivers (45 - 55 years and 56 and above) on all the traffic functions. The following differences are noteworthy -

- * educating motorists by giving advice ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * educating pedestrians ($p \leq 0,000$);
- * control over reckless and negligent driving ($p \leq 0,000$);
and
- * the tracing of dangerous drivers ($p \leq 0,000$).

4.2.4 Educational qualifications

Table 4.4 is a breakdown of the execution of selected traffic functions in Transkei according to the educational qualifications of the respondents. This table yields significant differences in respect of all the traffic functions.

TABLE 4.4

EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Prevention of road accidents	2,67	1,46	3,18	1,33	3,68	1,22	3,53	
Regulation of traffic flow	2,71	1,24	3,06	1,31	3,44	1,21	3,39	1,06	0,000*
Control over parking in towns	2,67	1,38	2,95	1,35	3,30	1,20	3,10	1,24	0,017*
Educating motorists through advice	3,01	1,43	3,39	1,34	3,81	1,08	3,79	1,11	0,000*
Speed control	2,48	1,32	2,73	1,28	2,99	1,22	3,19	1,17	0,000*
Education pedestrians	3,03	1,38	3,52	1,41	4,01	1,09	3,99	0,99	0,000*
Control over reckless and negligent driving	2,94	1,48	3,69	1,73	3,92	1,21	3,87	1,08	0,054*
Tracking down unroad-worthy vehicles	2,84	1,45	3,33	1,40	3,62	1,35	3,93	1,12	0,000*
Tracing dangerous drivers	3,06	1,42	3,86	1,61	3,96	1,16	4,04	1,03	0,035*
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	2,76	1,25	3,17	1,21	3,36	1,08	3,50	1,21	0,000*
Tracking down drunken drivers	2,79	1,57	3,44	1,33	3,86	1,91	3,84	1,12	0,000*
Supervision of traffic situation through street patrols	2,92	1,32	3,29	1,31	3,56	1,15	3,81	1,09	0,000*
Ensuring traffic order on streets/roads	2,95	1,35	3,36	1,35	3,53	1,21	3,62	1,12	0,002*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Respondents with degree and diploma qualifications have a negative evaluation of these functions, except for a positive evaluation of speed control ($\bar{X} = 2,99$) by respondents with diploma qualifications. On the other hand, the respondents possessing matric certificates are also displaying negative perceptions towards the selected traffic functions except for -

- * speed control (speed checks) ($\bar{X} = 2,73$); and
- * control over parking in town ($\bar{X} = 2,95$).

Table 4.4 further reveals that respondents with educational qualifications below matric are the most positive group with regard to the selected traffic functions. Only the following functions are being evaluated as poor to very poor -

- * educating motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) - although close to the neutral point;
- * educating pedestrians ($\bar{X} = 3,03$); and
- * tracing of dangerous drivers ($\bar{X} = 3,06$).

The overall impression is that education may play a significant role in the formation of attitudes regarding the evaluation of the execution of traffic functions in Transkei.

The significance of the following traffic functions is noteworthy -

- * educating motorists ($p = 0,000$);
- * educating pedestrians ($p = 0,000$);
- * control over reckless and negligent drivers ($p = 0,000$);
- * tracing down drunken drivers ($p = 0,000$); and
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of street patrolling ($p = 0,000$).

In summary, it appears from tables 4.1 to 4.4 that the reactive element of traffic policing in Transkei is being over-emphasised, namely -

- * conducting of speed checks;
- * control over parking;
- * enforcement of traffic laws and regulations at the expense of the proactive component, *inter alia* -
 - * educating of motorists;
 - * traffic supervision (as a short-term prevention measure);
 - * ensuring traffic order on the streets, etc.

Efficiency should, however not be regarded as the only measurement of the role image of traffic policing. If it is used as the only measurement, it would mean a disparagement of the basic principles in terms of which the traffic role should be fulfilled in a democratic society. Curbing of traffic disorder should be executed without causing a disturbance in the relationships between the traffic officer and the motorists. If this kind of partnership does not materialise to its full extent, efficient role fulfilment would also be affected negatively. Efficiency in this regard also points to the extent in which individual rights to privacy, freedom and security are guaranteed (Skolnick, 1966:18; Geary, 1975:19).

Civil rights are demands which the society makes of the government in connection with its obligation to ensure that the powers delegated to it for the maintenance of order are exercised in accordance with the constitutional provisions. Civil liberty entails the individual's immunity from oppression. Freedom depends to a large extent upon privacy. The constitutional guarantees regarding the protection of individual rights are in fact a list of immunities rather than a set of requirements. These immunities amount to a promise to

promote freedom and ensure that individuals enjoy peace of mind and are free from unnecessary fears (Germann, Day and Gallati, 1962:24).

4.2.5 Contact

The evaluation of traffic police functions according to the type of contact between the public and traffic officers is depicted in table 4.5. From this table it can be observed that newspaper reports (i.e. the written media) indeed facilitates a positive evaluation of all the traffic functions among the respondents, yielding extremely important significant differences compared to other forms of contact or knowledge about the execution of these functions. It is especially -

- * the conducting of speed checks ($\bar{X} = 2,14$);
- * ensuring traffic order on the streets ($\bar{X} = 2,33$);
- * supervision of traffic situations by means of regular street patrolling ($\bar{X} = 2,43$);
- * overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations ($\bar{X} = 2,42$); and
- * regulation of traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 2,53$) that are positively evaluated by the respondents on the grounds of newspaper reports.

TABLE 4.5
EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO
TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Prevention of road accidents	3,06	1,40	3,44	1,27	3,25	1,43	3,46	1,22	2,58	1,16	0,001*
Regulation of traffic flow	2,96	1,26	3,35	1,22	3,07	1,24	3,33	1,21	2,53	1,25	0,001*
Control over parking in towns	2,82	1,28	3,17	1,27	3,01	1,33	3,11	1,34	2,61	1,38	0,068
Educating motorists through advice	3,29	1,35	3,69	1,28	3,65	1,21	3,65	1,20	2,61	1,34	0,000*
Speed control	2,70	1,29	2,91	1,22	3,03	1,37	2,98	1,23	2,14	1,10	0,002*
Education pedestrians	3,57	1,41	3,83	1,25	3,75	1,15	3,65	1,26	2,83	1,38	0,002*
Control over reckless and negligent driving	3,31	1,44	3,77	1,25	4,37	6,07	3,65	1,25	2,94	1,53	0,032*
Tracking down unworthy vehicles	3,29	1,45	3,63	1,30	3,53	1,38	3,56	1,32	2,67	1,37	0,002*
Tracing dangerous drivers	3,54	1,32	3,81	1,21	3,75	1,25	4,23	1,35	2,97	1,52	0,051*
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	3,03	1,29	3,47	1,16	3,17	1,21	3,39	1,15	2,42	1,02	0,000*
Tracking down drunken drivers	3,35	1,44	3,83	1,21	3,32	1,43	3,65	1,21	2,69	1,43	0,000*
Supervision of traffic situation through street patrols	3,20	1,27	3,77	1,27	3,47	1,24	3,52	1,17	2,39	1,18	0,000*
Ensuring traffic order on streets/roads	3,23	1,32	3,70	1,22	3,48	1,26	3,49	1,22	2,33	1,22	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Direct contact with traffic officers on the other hand, seems to offer more valuable information in this regard, because it is within the contact situation where these traffic functions are being operationalized. It appears from table 4.5 that the efficiency of traffic officers, when executing these functions, is mostly negatively evaluated. Traffic functions that seem to be isolated as the scapegoats are -

- * educating pedestrians ($\bar{X} = 3,57$);
- * tracing dangerous drivers ($\bar{X} = 3,54$);
- * tracking down drunken drivers ($\bar{X} = 3,35$);
- * control over reckless and negligent driving ($\bar{X} = 3,31$);
- * tracking down unroadworthy vehicles ($\bar{X} = 3,29$);
- * educating motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,29$); and
- * traffic supervision by means of regular street patrolling ($\bar{X} = 3,20$).

The only functions that are positively evaluated are -

- * speed checks ($\bar{X} = 2,70$);
- * control over parking in town ($\bar{X} = 2,28$); and
- * regulation of traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 2,96$).

Further, the only traffic function which is efficiently executed (as observed or seen by motorists when other motorists are prosecuted) is the conducting of speed checks ($\bar{X} = 2,91$). Knowledge gained from what they have been told by other people, led the respondents to believe that the traffic functions tabulated in table 4.5 are not efficiently executed. This negative evaluation is in conflict with what they have read about it in newspapers. These differences which are significant at the 0,05% level are -

- * prevention of road accidents ($p = 0,001$);
- * regulation of traffic flow ($p = 0,001$);
- * educating motorists ($p = 0,000$);
- * enforcement of traffic laws and regulations ($p = 0,000$);

- * traffic supervision ($p = 0,000$);
- * tracking down drunken drivers ($p = 0,000$);
- * ensuring traffic order on our streets ($p = 0,000$); etc.

4.2.6 Traffic institutions

Table 4.6 depicts the efficiency of municipal and provincial (government) traffic officers in the execution of traffic functions. This table clearly shows that -

- * municipal traffic officers are negatively evaluated with regard to the overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations ($\bar{X} = 3,46$); while provincial traffic officers are being regarded as doing a good job in this regard ($\bar{X} = 2,68$) - $p = 0,000$;
- * municipal traffic officers are more negatively evaluated ($\bar{X} = 4,78$) than provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,23$) with regard to the tracing or detecting of dangerous drivers ($p = 0,002$);
- * respondents believe that provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) are performing good in tracing unroadworthy vehicles, while municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,66$) are perceived as performing poorly ($p = 0,000$);
- * ensuring traffic order is maintained at acceptable levels, as being performed efficiently enough by municipal traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,61$), while provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) are being regarded as doing a job in this regard ($p = 0,006$);
- * prevention of traffic accidents is being handled more efficiently by provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,88$) than is the case with municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,58$) $p = 0,009$;
- * the regulation of traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 2,86$) is efficiently handled by provincial traffic officers. Municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,49$) are negatively evaluated with regard to the execution of this function $p = 0,013$.

TABLE 4.6

EVALUATION OF THE EFFICIENCY OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO TYPE OF TRAFFIC INSTITUTION (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNICI- PAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F-Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Prevention of road accidents	3,58	1,16	2,88	1,47	3,27	1,32	0,009*
Regulation of traffic flow	3,49	1,26	2,85	1,21	3,13	1,25	0,013*
Control over parking in towns	3,15	1,35	2,86	1,38	2,99	1,30	0,455
Educating motorists through advice	3,58	1,16	3,12	1,39	3,54	1,29	0,038*
Speed control	2,92	1,33	2,49	1,32	2,89	1,24	0,045*
Education pedestrians	3,63	1,31	3,19	1,38	3,71	1,29	0,009*
Control over reckless and negligent driving	3,95	1,32	2,99	1,43	3,71	2,99	0,065
Tracking down unroad-worthy vehicles	3,66	1,38	2,95	1,44	3,49	1,36	0,030*
Tracing dangerous drivers	4,78	6,62	3,23	1,47	3,73	1,22	0,002*
Overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	3,46	1,16	2,68	1,17	3,26	1,22	0,000*
Tracking down drunken drivers	3,49	1,43	3,04	1,47	3,57	1,31	0,009*
Supervision of traffic situation through street patrols	3,46	1,39	3,08	1,29	3,44	1,24	0,079
Ensuring traffic order on streets/roads	3,61	1,22	2,96	1,37	3,42	1,28	0,006*

* $p \leq 0,05$

It also appears from this table that -

- * educating motorists by means of giving advice is being evaluated more negatively in the case of municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,58$) - $p \leq 0,038$; and
- * municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,92$) seem to be more efficient in conducting speed checks than provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,42$) - $p \leq 0,045$.

When both municipal and provincial traffic officers are evaluated, it appears that the respondents agree that -

- * the conducting of speed checks in the towns and on national roads ($\bar{X} = 2,89$) is being conducted efficiently ($p \leq 0,045$); and
- * members of both traffic institutions appear to be insufficient as far as the execution of the remaining functions are concerned.

An overall impression gained from table 4.6 is that municipal traffic officers are apparently performing significantly poorer than their provincial counterparts when executing the functions that appear on this table. On a joint basis, it seems as if the conducting of speed checks is the only traffic functions that is regarded as being performed good. It will be interesting to see whether the conducting of speed checks is mainly intended to fill the government's coffers as a stable means of financial income.

TABLE 4.7

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC OFFICER'S SOCIAL STATUS ACCORDING TO TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

VARIABLE	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNI- CIPAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F-Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
They have a high social status in society	2,78	1,18	2,85	1,20	3,14	1,16	0,022*

* $p \leq 0,05$

When it comes to the social status of the traffic officers in society (table 4.7) municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,78$) receive a more positive evaluation than provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,85$). There are, however, significant differences in the opinions of the respondents. The only significant difference that is observed is when these institutions are jointly evaluated ($\bar{X} = 3,14$) - $p \leq 0,022$.

TABLE 4.8

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC OFFICER'S SOCIAL STATUS ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

VARIABLE	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	They have a high social status in society	3,04	1,17	3,09	

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.8 is an evaluation of the status of the traffic police in the society according to gender. It is interesting to note that this table shows that male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) evaluate the status of the traffic officers less negative than female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,09$). The differences that are shown between male and female respondents are insignificant.

TABLE 4.9

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC OFFICER'S SOCIAL STATUS ACCORDING TO HOME LANGUAGE (N = 500)

VARIABLE	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	They have a high social status in society	3,02	1,21	3,28	1,01	3,00	

Table 4.9 renders an evaluation of traffic officers' social status in terms of languages groups. Although not significant, it appears that the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) has a more negative opinion than the other two languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,02$ and $\bar{X} = 3,00$ respectively).

TABLE 4.10

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC OFFICER'S SOCIAL STATUS ACCORDING TO AGE GROUP (N = 500)

VARIABLE	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26- 35 Years n = 235		36- 45 Years n = 136		46- 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	They have a high social status in society	2,96	1,17	3,08	1,22	3,04	1,13	3,22	1,17	2,95	

Table 4.10 contains an evaluation of the social status by age groups. The 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) shows a positive evaluation of the status of traffic police officers in society. The evaluation by 36 - 45 years group ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) is negative, followed by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,08$). The 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) show negative evaluation. On the other hand, the more elderly group, i.e. 56 and above, ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) evaluates the status of traffic police also somewhat positively. The positive attitude expressed by the youngest and oldest age groups differ, however not significantly, ($p \geq 0,05$) from other age groups.

TABLE 4.11

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC OFFICER'S SOCIAL STATUS ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

VARIABLE	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	They have a high social status in society	2,70	1,20	3,05	1,19	3,16	1,19	3,26	

* $p \leq 0,05$

According to table 4.11 the respondents with matric and tertiary educational qualifications are of the opinion that traffic police officers do not have a high social status in society. This viewpoint changes drastically among respondents with qualifications below matric ($\bar{X} = 2,70$) who have a positive evaluation in this regard. This difference is significant ($p = 0,006$).

TABLE 4.12

EVALUATION OF THE STATUS OF TRAFFIC POLICING ACCORDING TO TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

VARIABLE	DIRECT CONTACT		WHAT IS SEEN		WHAT PEOPLE SAY		WHEN THEY REGULATE		NEWSPAPER REPORTS		F-Value
	n = 142		n = 105		n = 75		n = 142		n = 36		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
They have a high social status in society	3,01	1,19	3,13	1,11	3,08	1,24	3,15	1,17	2,64	1,15	0,188

Table 4.12 tabulates the evaluation of the social status of traffic policemen according to the nature of contact. The respondents who had face-to-face contact with the traffic officers, i.e. direct contact ($\bar{X} = 3,01$), believe that traffic policemen do not have a high social status in society. This attitude does not change significantly when it comes to respondents who are expressing the opinion of what they have seen when traffic policemen are at work ($\bar{X} = 3,13$). Respondents who express what they have been told by other people ($\bar{X} = 3,08$), also evaluate the status of the traffic policemen negatively. The same trend is displayed by those who see them when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,15$).

An interesting opinion is displayed by the respondents who read about traffic policemen in the newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,64$) because, contrary to all other forms of contact in this table, these respondents evaluate the social status of traffic officers in a positive manner. The differences are however, not significant ($p > 0,05$).

4.3 IMAGE OF TRAFFIC POLICING BASED ON KNOWLEDGE

The kind of image emanating from the experience of the contact with real control of traffic seems to be a very important denominator. It stands to reason that not all members of society come into contact with the real traffic control situation in the same way. Problem-identification, i.e. the determination of the image of traffic policing with a view, of problem solving in the interest of a partnership in traffic control cannot be meaningfully integrated unless the nature of the image based on specific levels of knowledge is taken into consideration. The following levels of the image of traffic policing are therefore noteworthy -

- * contact image, i.e. the evaluation by persons who previously were in contact with traffic police officials. It could be anticipated that this kind of contact will usually result in negative perceptions as a result of prosecutions;
- * bystanders' image, which reflects evaluations regarding the traffic police image on the basis of personal observation without having been in direct contact of whatever nature; and
- * communication image, which is facilitated by the mass media such as the radio, newspapers and television.

4.3.1 The institutional image

The data in table 4.13 reflect the importance of the traffic occupation according to the type of contact. This table shows that :

TABLE 4.13
EVALUATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAFFIC OCCUPATION ACCORDING
TO THE TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT		WHAT IS SEEN		WHAT PEOPLE SAY		WHEN THEY REGULATE		NEWSPAPER REPORTS		F-Value
	n = 142		n = 105		n = 75		n = 142		n = 36		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Render an important service to the nation	2,14	1,16	2,35	1,26	2,11	1,24	2,42	1,22	1,64	0,64	0,004*
Their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police	2,45	1,20	2,46	1,22	2,35	1,38	2,67	1,07	2,00	1,31	0,039*
The nature of their duty does not re- quire high standard of education	2,69	1,16	2,69	1,06	2,60	1,20	2,70	1,14	2,69	1,19	0,980

* $p \leq 0,05$

Respondents who read newspapers ($\bar{X} = 1,64$) about the activities of traffic officers seem to have a more favourable evaluation of the importance of the traffic service to the nation.

Also with regard to their services not being as important as those of the Transkeian police, respondents who read newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,00$) believe that traffic police services are less important compared to those of the Transkeian police.

Further, concerning the nature of their duties not requiring a high standard of education all the contact groups show negative evaluation.

Significant differences are observable with regard to the following -

- * traffic officers in the Transkei are rendering an important service to the nation ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * their services are viewed as less important compared with the services of the Transkeian police ($p \leq 0,05$).

The general evaluation in this table by the contact groups is negative. Respondents seem to believe that traffic police render an important service to the Transkei nation. That traffic police services are not as important as the Transkeian police services. They also seem to believe that traffic police job does not require a high standard of education.

TABLE 4.14
EVALUATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAFFIC POLICE ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Render an important service to the nation	2,08	1,21	2,21	1,20	2,26	1,21	2,34	
Their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police	2,12	1,34	2,45	1,23	2,59	1,12	2,66	1,10	0,010*
The nature of their duty does not require high standard of education	2,66	1,14	2,71	1,12	2,71	1,17	2,61	1,14	0,858

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 4.14 depicts the evaluation of the importance of the traffic police occupation in terms of the respondent's educational qualifications. It is again worthy to note that all the educational categories are more or less in agreement that -

- * traffic police officers are rendering an important service ($p = 0,499$) - not significant; and
- * the nature of their duty does not require a high standard of education ($p = 0,858$) - not significant.

However, respondents who possess educational qualifications below matric ($\bar{X} = 2,12$), have a more negative evaluation of the importance of the traffic police occupation compared to that of the Transkeian police. This difference in opinion is significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

The general evaluation by the respondents seem to be negative.

TABLE 4.15

EVALUATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAFFIC POLICE OCCUPATION BY GENDER (N = 500)

LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Render an important service to nation	2,16	1,21	2,33	1,18	0,703
Their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police	2,51	1,25	2,39	1,16	0,251
The nature of their duty does not require a high standard education	2,75	1,13	2,56	1,15	0,731

Information contained in table 4.15 indicates that the traffic police occupation appears to be indispensable for securing harmonious co-existence of people by means of traffic safety.

Both male ($\bar{X} = 2,16$) and female respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,33$) are of the opinion that traffic officers are indeed rendering an important service to the people of Transkei. Their acceptance of the statement which suggests that the services of traffic police are less important than those of the Transkeian police is a clear indication that male ($\bar{X} = 2,51$) and female ($\bar{X} = 2,39$) are holding the traffic police occupation in low esteem. Another negative viewpoint is evident in their evaluation of the required standard of education, where male ($\bar{X} = 2,75$) and female respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,56$) believe that the nature of their duty does not require a high standards of education. The differences between the two groups are insignificant.

TABLE 4.16

EVALUATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAFFIC POLICE OCCUPATION BY LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

VARIABLE	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Render an important service to the nation	2,13	1,20	2,69	1,12	2,21	1,15	0,007*
Their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police	2,40	1,28	2,73	0,95	2,58	1,01	0,071
The nature of their duty does not require high standard of education	2,66	1,18	2,76	0,10	2,72	0,96	0,755

* $p \leq 0,05$

The three language groups in table 4.16 are in agreement that traffic police officers do render an important service, namely African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,13$) and foreign languages group

($\bar{X} = 2,21$). However, the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,69$) has a significant lower positive image of traffic policing in Transkei ($p = 0,007$).

All language groups are more or less equally in agreement that the services of traffic police officers are less important and that their occupation does not require a high standard of education. The overall evaluation is negative.

TABLE 4.17
EVALUATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF TRAFFIC POLICE OCCUPATION ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS (N = 500)

VARIABLE (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 6		26- 35 Years n = 235		36- 45 Years n = 136		46- 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Render an important service to the nation	2,12	15	2,20	1,24	2,29	1,17	2,39	1,28	2,05	0,92	0,678
Their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police	2,21	38	2,39	1,20	2,63	1,17	2,61	1,16	2,81	1,08	0,074
The nature of their duty does not require high standard of education	2,53	31	2,58	1,16	2,84	1,12	2,80	1,10	2,90	0,10	0,151

Table 4.17 shows no significant differences in the evaluation of the importance of the traffic police occupation according to the different age categories. All the age groups are more or less equally in agreement that -

- * the traffic police are rendering an important service ($p = 0,678$);
- * their services are not as important as those of the Transkei police ($p = 0,074$); and

- * the nature of their work does not require a high standard of education (p = 0,151).

The general evaluation in this table seem to be positive.

4.4 TRAFFIC POLICE PERFORMANCE AND IMAGE

In a market-oriented public, traffic police administrators should try to maintain public confidence in department productivity. This often leads to the manipulation of statistics. The problem is further aggravated because the police do not have control over the outcome of cases they initiate in the enforcement process. Judges, magistrates and prosecutors make the eventual determinations. A traffic officer may dedicate many hours trying to solve a certain traffic offence and when the case is taken to court the offender may be found not guilty. When the offender is seen by the public in the streets again the blame for the failure of the court to convict him or her is directed to the traffic officer. If only the public could realise that traffic police also want the offenders to be convicted and punished. They see this as the appreciation of their efforts, and as upholding morality (Radelet, 1986:131).

Traffic police work cannot easily be measured because it involves many tasks that occur well beyond public notice and that are often time-consuming, overly routine, and excessively burdensome. These activities include surveillances, transporting offenders, protecting witnesses, writing arrest and other reports, and giving evidence at court. In short peacekeeping operations generally do not involve criminal activities, and often are not even in the area of law enforcement (Inciardi, 1987:190).

4.5 TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR

4.5.1 Corruption

Although there are few specific theories of police corruption, there have been two recurring themes used to account for its occurrence. The first, and which has been often used by traffic police administrators and other people the "myth of the rotten apple". According to this theory which bordered on official department doctrine, any traffic policeman found to be corrupt must promptly be denounced as a rotten apple, in an otherwise clean barrel. It must never be accepted that his individual corruption may be symptomatic of underlying disease (Knapp Commission, 1973:6).

The "rotten apple" refer to either weak individuals who have managed to evade the elaborate screening process of most traffic police institutions and succumbed to the temptations inherent in police work, or deviant traffic police officers who continue their deviant activities in an environment which provides them enough opportunity. However, investigations have shown little support for this explanation (Knapp Commission, 1973:6).

Murphy (1973:72) believes that

"The rotten apple theory won't work any longer. Corrupt police officers are not natural born criminals, nor morally wicked men, constitutionally different from their honest colleagues. The task of corruption control is to examine the barrel, not just the apples -- the organisation, not just the individuals in it, because corrupt police are made not born".

The "rotten apple" theme should be best viewed as an impression management or normalisation of deviance technique rather than an explanation of traffic police corrupt behaviour. The

initial response of traffic police administrators, applying the label "rotten apple" or "rogue cop" to publicly exposed officers, is an attempt to normalise or create plausible excuses and explanations for deviant conduct. Even those who use this technique often recognise the futility of this exercise (Barker and Carter, 1986:10).

Inciardi (1987:272) believes that corruption occurs in many forms, but observers and investigators of traffic police behaviour seem to agree that it is most common in nine specific areas :-

- * meals and services
- * kickbacks
- * opportunistic theft,
- * planned theft,
- * shakedowns,
- * protection,
- * case fixing,
- * private security, and
- * patronage.

4.5.1.1 Meals and services

Free or discount meals are made available to traffic officers by many coffee shops and restaurants as well as other small cafe shops. The owners of these businesses maintain this policy to ensure that there is always a traffic police presence in their stores. They believe that if they can maintain traffic police presence this will extend a measure of security to their place of business. Investigations show that few hold-ups occur in such places and if they do occur patrol officers instantly respond to the call of the owners. Such deterrent presence is also "purchased" by other businesses like hardware stores, dry cleaners, small food shops, clothing shops, liquor stores by offering traffic officers goods at discount prices. Some business owners do not make such offers

voluntarily but do so that they may as well get some favours from the traffic police. It cannot be easy for a traffic officer to arrest or take drastic steps against a friend of this nature. Offences committed by these people are often overlooked by officers (Inciardi, 1987:272).

4.5.1.2 Kickbacks

Traffic police officers have good opportunities of directing people in stressful situations to certain individuals or companies that can help them for a profit. A traffic police officer can, for example, refer an arrested person to a defence attorney, to a company that have towing services, or arrange the delivery of the bodies to a specific mortuary. Given the vary nature of the traffic police work, such opportunities are common and the potential for kickbacks on a regular basis may always be present (Inciardi, 1987:273).

4.5.1.3 Opportunistic theft

Traffic police are presented with various opportunities to appropriate unlawfully many items of value. These include jewellery at scenes of accidents, money, merchandise and other valuable items that may be left by criminals who sometimes abandon their cars and flee leaving behind stolen property (Inciardi, 1987:273).

4.5.1.4 Planned theft

Planned theft as a variety of traffic police corruption means the direct involvement of traffic police in predatory criminal activities. A traffic officer may be involved in car theft by making opportunities available for the criminals to avoid detection. He may thereafter get a share from the money emanating from that theft. Most traffic institutions do not tolerate this behaviour (Inciardi, 1987:276).

4.5.1.5 Shakedowns

Shakedowns are forms of extortion where traffic police officers accept money from members of the public in lieu of enforcing the traffic law. A traffic officer may, for example, not arrest taxi drivers for overloading and instead get money for failure to enforce the law. Some offenders offer officers amounts of money that are so attractive to refuse. Most common shakedowns involve traffic violations. Some officers go out of their way and demand shakedowns from traffic offenders (Inciardi, 1987:276).

4.5.1.6 Protection

Protection of illegal activities is common in other police units but not in traffic police. Such protection often involves illegal goods and services such as prostitution, gambling, narcotics, and pornography, and the resulting corruption is properly organised (Inciardi, 1987:277).

4.5.1.7 Case fixing

Case fixing as a form of traffic police corruption involves a situation when the offender pays a traffic official a certain amount of money to destroy evidence that may lead to his or her conviction of an offence of which he or she has been charged. It can also take the form of an officer perjuring himself or herself on the witness stand, reducing the seriousness of a charge against an offender (Inciardi, 1987:277).

4.5.1.8 Private security

Corruption in the form of private security includes providing more traffic protection or presence than is required by standard operating procedures. This may include the escorting of

businessmen to the banks. In such instances payments are less likely to be in cash but more in goods, services and favours (Inciardi, 1987:280).

4.5.1.9 Patronage

This can occur in many ways all of which involve the use of an officer's official position to influence decision making. It can involve the arranging of access to confidential department records or agreeing to change such records. Granting driver's licences to people who have failed the driving test can also be construed as patronage (Inciardi, 1987:280).

Many patterns of traffic police deviance, including certain "forms of corruption, are examples of approved deviance in an organisational setting", i.e. deviant behaviour which does not reflect unfavourably on the individual's overall identity. These forms of "approved deviance" are being supported by the groups, because they are not defined as deviant and culprits who engage in them have few chances of being exposed and arrested (Schur, 1971:25). Certain types of corruption of authority, i.e. the receipt of free meals, services or discounts and liquor are perceived to invoke little risk of suction. This is seldom reported because the groups does not perceive it as a form of corruption.

The traffic police profession is unlike other vocations in various ways, all of which contribute to the problem of police malpractice and the number of citizen complaints regarding police activities. Some of the factors which influence traffic police deviant behaviour and the frequency of complaints against traffic police officers include :

- (a) Because the traffic police have the unique duty for traffic law enforcement, in some cases they are requested by other people to ignore some violations of the law for one reason or another.

- (b) Since traffic police wear visible uniforms and easily identifiable cars, their actions are more noticeable by the public.
- (c) Traffic law enforcement sometimes creates more enemies than friends for traffic officers.
- (d) Traffic police officers are exposed to temptations which are not always found in other forms of work.
- (e) Traffic officers who work in the field are often without supervision and this exposes them to misconduct and mythical practices.
- (f) Members of the public are often more critical to traffic police because they are expected to show a higher level of conduct and behaviour than others.
- (g) The nature of traffic police work sometimes is attractive to people who have antisocial or brutal tendencies which creates a need for psychological screening.
- (h) Emotional charge of situations are commonly encountered during traffic police contacts such as arrests, interviews at crimes, and so on. Such emotion can obscure reason and judgement of both traffic police and citizens (Miller and Braswell, 1988:129-30).

TABLE 4.18

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY GENDER (N = 500)

DEVIANCE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Officers are not easily bribed	3,50	1,26	3,45	1,26	0,980
Justness	3,13	1,18	3,13	1,16	0,832
Sarcasm	3,34	1,12	3,22	1,22	0,157
Uninterestedness	3,41	1,23	3,29	1,24	0,922

The data in table 4.18 reveal that both male ($\bar{X} = 3,50$) and female ($\bar{X} = 3,45$) respondents believe that traffic police in Transkei are easily bribed.

With regard to justness the table reveals that there is consensus between male ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) and female ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) respondents that traffic police sometimes do show justness to the motorists.

Concerning sarcasm male ($\bar{X} = 3,34$) and female ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) respondents show a somewhat positive evaluation of the traffic police deviant behaviour.

Further, concerning uninterestedness of both sexes seem to believe that traffic police sometimes show uninterestedness.

The general evaluation of the traffic police deviant behaviour in this table is positive. However, they all believe that traffic police in Transkei are easily bribed. The existence of bribery requires immediate attention of the heads of traffic institutions in Transkei.

TABLE 4.19

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

DEVIANT DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNI- CIPAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F-Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Officers are not easily bribed	3,56	1,24	3,32	1,29	3,50	1,26	0,448
Justness	3,03	1,14	3,00	1,22	3,17	1,17	0,431
Sarcasm	3,25	1,01	3,15	1,20	3,33	1,18	0,481
Uninterestedness	3,44	1,13	3,18	1,40	3,39	1,22	0,363

The data in table 4.19 reveal that municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,56$) traffic officers are more easily bribed than provincial ($\bar{X} = 3,32$) traffic officers. There are not significant differences between respondents ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to justness the respondents seem to believe that provincial ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) show justness, sometimes more than municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,03$) traffic police.

Concerning sarcasm, respondents seem to believe that provincial ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) tend to show more sarcasm than municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) traffic police. Nevertheless, both institutions seem to receive somewhat positive evaluation. When both ($\bar{X} = 3,33$) institutions are evaluated together, respondents seem to show less negative evaluation.

Further, concerning uninterestedness all respondents seem to show negative evaluation.

The general evaluation in this table reveals that respondents believe that traffic officers of both institutions are easily bribed. That they fail to always show justness to the motorist. That they are sarcastic. Further, that sometimes they show uninterestedness.

TABLE 4.20

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY HOME LANGUAGE (N = 500)

DEVIANCE DETERMINANT (abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Officers are not easily bribed	3,45	1,30	3,74	1,06	3,33	
Justness	3,13	1,22	3,26	0,92	2,84	1,11	0,166
Sarcasm	3,25	1,17	3,50	0,99	3,28	1,37	0,224
Uninterestedness	3,40	1,28	3,18	1,02	3,40	1,16	0,357

The data in table 4.20 reveal that the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,74$) seem to believe that traffic officers in Transkei are more easily bribed.

With regard to justness the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,84$) seem to believe that traffic police often show justness. On the other hand, the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,26$) and the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) seem to show negative evaluation.

Concerning sarcasm, the table reveals that all respondents seem to show positive evaluation. There are no significant differences between the language groups ($p > 0,05$).

Further, concerning uninterestedness again all respondents seem to show positive evaluation of the traffic police deviant behaviour.

Respondents in this table seem to believe that justness is not always shown by traffic police. That they are easily bribed. Traffic police community relations will not be created in a situation where the public believes that the traffic police accept bribery and justness is lacking.

TABLE 4.21

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

DEVIANCE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Officers are not easily bribed	3,22	1,38	3,51	1,26	3,62	1,16	3,53	
Justness	2,91	1,39	3,16	1,17	3,29	0,98	3,13	1,10	0,208
Sarcasm	3,10	1,22	3,27	1,18	3,27	1,11	3,47	1,10	0,162
Uninterestedness	3,45	1,26	3,39	1,31	3,40	1,08	3,23	1,17	0,556

The data in table 4.21 reveal that respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,62$) seem to believe that traffic police in Transkei are easily bribed than other groups. However, even other groups in this table seem to believe that bribing a traffic policeman in Transkei is not a difficult thing to do.

With regard to justness the Std 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 2,91$) seem to be of the opinion that traffic police in Transkei are just. All other respondents seem to believe that justness is not common.

Concerning sarcasm, all respondents seem to show positive evaluation. The respondents with Std 10 ($\bar{X} = 3,27$) and those with diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,27$) qualifications seem to agree that traffic police sometimes do show sarcasm to motorists.

Further, regarding uninterestedness all respondents show positive evaluation. There are insignificant difference between the groups ($p > 0,05$).

Although the general evaluation seem to be positive, respondents seem to believe that traffic police are easily bribed. That they are not just. Sarcasm and uninterestedness are sometimes shown by traffic police.

TABLE 4.22

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY THE TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

DEVIANCE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Officers are not easily bribed	3,37	1,30	3,70	1,22	3,60	1,37	3,46	1,13	3,14	1,36	0,095
Justness	3,06	1,16	3,35	1,13	3,35	1,16	2,94	1,17	3,03	1,30	0,027*
Sarcasm	3,20	1,18	2,85	1,15	3,51	1,08	3,58	1,08	3,36	1,20	0,000*
Uninterestedness	3,25	1,26	2,94	1,25	3,73	1,04	3,53	1,16	3,61	1,38	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 4.22 reveal that with regard to bribery the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in tables 4.18 - 4.21. As is the case in those tables respondents in this table seem to believe that in Transkei it is easy to bribe a traffic policeman. There are no significant differences between the contact groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to justness, respondents who have seen the traffic officers when regulating traffic ($\bar{X} = 2,94$) seem to show positive evaluation. All other contact groups seem to show negative evaluation.

Concerning sarcasm, respondents who have seen traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,85$) seem to believe that they are often sarcastic.

Further, regarding uninterestedness respondents who have seen traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,94$) seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic deviant behaviour.

Significant differences are observable with regard to the following :

- * justness ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * sarcasm ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * uninterestedness ($p \leq 0,05$).

The general evaluation of bribery and justness is negative. Respondents seem to believe that traffic officers do not always show justness and that they are easily bribed. With regard to sarcasm and uninterestedness respondents seem to show positive evaluation.

TABLE 4.23

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE DEVIANT BEHAVIOUR BY AGE GROUPS
(N = 500)

DEVIANCE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	18 - 25		26 - 35		36 - 45		46 - 55		56 +		F-Value
	Years		Years		Years		Years		Years		
	n = 86	n = 222	n = 73	n = 119	n = 119						
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Officers are not easily bribed	3,34	1,38	3,56	1,27	3,49	1,17	3,46	1,27	3,05	1,24	0,383
Justness	3,01	1,29	3,14	1,19	3,20	1,11	3,07	1,19	3,95	1,07	0,788
sarcasm	2,99	1,05	3,19	1,15	3,46	1,13	3,34	1,28	4,19	1,03	0,000
Uninterestedness	3,28	1,24	3,34	1,29	3,47	1,13	3,20	1,31	3,48	1,17	0,683

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 4.23 reveal that all respondents believe that traffic officers in Transkei are easily bribed. Respondents who are 26 - 35 years ($\bar{X} = 3,56$) seem to show more negative evaluation than other age groups. There are no significant differences between the age groups ($p > 0,05$).

Concerning justness, respondents who are 56 + years and above ($\bar{X} = 3,95$) seem to show negative evaluation than other age groups. There are no significant differences between the age groups ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to sarcasm, the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,99$) seem to believe that traffic police in Transkei are often sarcastic. On the other hand, the 56 and above age group ($\bar{X} = 4,19$) seem to show more positive evaluation of the traffic police deviant behaviour. Significant differences between the age groups are observable ($p \leq 0,05$).

Further, concerning uninterestedness all the respondents seem to show positive evaluation. There are no significant differences between the age groups ($p > 0,05$).

The data in this table clearly show that all the respondents believe that traffic officers are easily bribed in Transkei. That traffic police in Transkei lack justness. They are also believed to be sarcastic. They sometimes display uninterestedness. All these issues demand immediate attention. Traffic institutions in Transkei need to ensure that traffic officers are not involved in bribery.

4.6 SUMMARY

This chapter deals with external image of traffic policing in Transkei. Image includes the manner in which the traffic police perform their functions. Whether such functions are performed to the satisfaction of the society. It also includes the manner in which the conduct of the traffic police

is viewed by the members of the society. It is the reflection of the reaction of the public which is formed in the execution of the traffic function.

The general evaluation of the efficiency of the traffic police in Transkei is contained in tables 4.1 to 4.6. The response-pattern in these tables is more or less similar, in that most traffic functions seem to have been evaluated negatively by the respondents. The only traffic function which respondents in all these tables seem to believe is performed efficiently is speed control. With regard to table 4.5 it is interesting to notice that respondents who read newspapers about the activities of traffic police generally show a more positive evaluation of almost all traffic functions.

Concerning the importance of the traffic police occupation respondents seem to believe that it is indispensable. They also believe that traffic police services are not less important when compared to those of the Transkeian police.

Further, regarding traffic police deviant behaviour, respondents seem to believe that it is easy to bribe traffic officers in Transkei. They also seem to believe traffic police in Transkei lack justness.

The general evaluation of the traffic police image is negative. There can be no co-operation between the traffic police and the public when members of the public believe that traffic police are corrupt. Traffic police institutions in Transkei will have to first eradicate bribery so that the society may have confidence in the traffic police. This will be a good start towards establishing good traffic police community relations. The traffic police and the public will start to develop a set of activities together to produce security and public safety (Friedmann, 1992:19-20).

CHAPTER 5

RELATIONSHIP ISSUES IN TRAFFIC POLICING

5.1 INTRODUCTION

"The police officer burst into the fifth floor apartment of a Bronx tenement yelling 'Fire! Fire!'"

An elderly Puerto Rican woman, who was an occupant of the flat, shocked by the intrusion and not understanding his language, responded by throwing a pot of hot coffee at him. If the police officer had called out "Fuego! Fuego!" the message might have been understood and resulted in a more hospitable reception.

The second instance relates to an officer who approached two young black men sitting on a park bench at midnight. In a most friendly manner he stood beside the bench, hands on his hips, and asked them some simple questions about their activities. There were no threats, no search, and no interrogation. When he was about to leave them he said, just as he would to his own teenage sons, "You boys really ought to get on home. It's pretty late to be out here". Then, they suddenly responded in anger. A scuffle ensued and the boys were arrested on charges of disorderly conduct.

In none of these two situations could the officer be accused of brutality, discourteous or any other illegal conduct. But in each instance something went wrong that left a bad impression on the citizens involved. That "something" was the officers' lack of understanding of the cultural differences between the people; and the ways in which a simple word or gesture can turn a "positive encounter into a negative confrontation" (McEvoy, 1976:1-2).

The traffic police job is not one that can be learned by "rote" and performed from memory. Every situation a traffic officer faces is different in some way and degree from the one before. This is because a traffic policeman is in a people-centred business, and people are not all the same. For this reason it is very important that in his daily contact with the public he must ensure that understanding is established. No traffic institution can succeed to maintain the traffic order without the assistance of the public. If the partnership between the traffic police and public is established, the traffic officer's job will become less aggravating, less frustrating and more personally fulfilling (McEvoy, 1976:3).

5.2 COMMUNITY ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC POLICING

There is a general assumption that members of the public in general do not appreciate the services that are rendered by the traffic police: this statement cannot be true because the public regards the traffic police service as more important than most other social services and have a high opinion of the effectiveness with which, on the whole, the problem of traffic is handled. Members of the public are also aware of their responsibility towards the maintenance of traffic order. Some members of the public are always prepared to assist the traffic police. The mere existence of this attitude does not imply that the public co-operates with the police. Wilson and McLaren (1972:218) believe that only when the public actually obey traffic laws, and support the traffic police in their efforts, that there can be any mention of favourable relations. The public's willingness to help does not always develop into actual help because of objections to the way in which the traffic police role is fulfilled. Such objections are so dangerous to the traffic police public relations because they create a gulf between the traffic police and the public (Van Heerden, 1986:135-36).

Niederhoffer and Smith (1974:36) believe that the following are some of the complaints and accusations of the public towards traffic police -

- * they function like a military group;
- * are aggressive, incompetent, insensitive, hostile, racist and corrupt;
- * are not available when their services are needed;
- * do not respond instantly to emergency calls;
- * discriminate against minority groups and people belonging to other colour other than their own;
- * do not show respect for human dignity when questioning people or when they carry out arrests;
- * do not protect the community against crime; and
- * also break the laws of the land.

5.3 STEREOTYPING

5.3.1 Traffic police stereotypes

Brandstatter and Radelet (Van Heerden, 1986:139) define police stereotype as -

" ... a firmly-imprinted opinion held by the public concerning the police. It is the culmination of certain attitudes in a fixed belief that the actions of the police in general display certain specific characteristics".

Further, they believe that as the police image differs from one person to another and from one group to another so do differing stereotypes arise, because they are also formed under the influence of prejudices and personal experience. Police stereotypes are not a separate entity from the police image. In fact, they are part and parcel of the image. Another point worthy to note is that, whilst the citizenry often display fluctuating characteristics, stereotypes are static and very difficult to change (Van Heerden, 1986:139).

5.3.2 Brutality

Traffic police brutality is generally associated with physical abuse of people, particularly at the time of arrest and during questioning.

Brutality involves much more than just physical abuse. It includes physical, verbal and mental abuse of people (Norris, 1973:27). This type of reaction is the result of unjust execution of power and authority and abuse of law by traffic police and this includes an indifferent or contemptuous glance, sadistic application of illegal violence, cold silence, obscene vituperation, unwillingness to take proper traffic police action, excitement in taking unnecessary action, failure to consider any alternative to arrest and taking of most punitive possible sanction (Germann, *et al.*, 1962:238). Traffic police brutality, therefore, is the mental and physical injury inflicted by traffic police to the general public by the attitude and the manner in which they perform their duties.

In situations where brutality charges are directed against the traffic police, there is often a communication problem caused by definition differences. Such situations are further complicated by emotional outbursts on both sides, by accusing and counter-accusations and by media reports that often exaggerate the issue. It is difficult to bring reason to bear on the matter and to get at the question of exactly what is being contested. Traffic officers sometimes attempt to defend themselves by accusing the public of being quick to accuse an officer of brutality, but are not so concerned when the traffic officer is attacked, insulted, or killed. However, there is no question that there are traffic police officers for whom beating up or defaming people are grim means of job satisfaction. With some such traffic officers, this may have been the motivation for joining the institution; with others it is more

a result of what happens to them after they have joined. With some, it is plain fear in the face of "statistical danger", a perception and interpretation of what seems necessary for survival. It is also true that the abuse and unnecessary provocation absorbed by traffic police in the line of duty is little known and far from being appreciated. The real solution to brutality problems will be solved only when oppression and second-class citizenship have been abolished (Radelet, 1986:192-93).

A good example of police response to public bravado, defiance and provocation has been recorded with the 1991 beating of a black motorist, Rodney King in Los Angeles by four white policemen. The acquittal of these policemen by an all-white jury sparked a riot that swept Los Angeles during April 1992 which also led to wide scale looting and unrest. Police action was not only evident of open physical brutality but also included racial discrimination: "Plainly, it was not the case that only black people were rioting ... the riot had spread well beyond the bounds of race" (Petersilia and Abrahamse, 1993:1).

For the purpose of analyzing and interpreting some characteristics of traffic police behaviour, viz. bossiness, abuse of power and authority, cheekiness, aggressiveness, use of insulting language and ignoring human dignity, researcher has decided to reverse the scores according to Spector's (1992:cf.) guidelines as these characteristics are deemed as negative. For this purpose, researcher deemed scores ranging from 1,6 to 5,0 as being negative and scores ranging from 1,0 to 1,5 as positive, i.e. indicating an absence of these characteristics. The neutral point stabilizes at 3,0.

TABLE 5.1

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO THE GENDER OF RESPONDENTS (N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Bossiness	3,04	1,32	2,88	1,31	0,948
Abuse of power	3,07	1,32	2,92	1,33	0,820
Cheekiness	3,25	1,28	3,33	1,25	0,797
Aggressiveness	3,32	1,23	3,23	1,26	0,700
Use of insults	3,79	1,28	3,76	1,29	0,846
Ignoring human dignity	3,28	1,31	3,15	1,32	0,919

Table 5.1 shows the evaluation of traffic police brutality according to gender of the respondents. According to this table, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) seem to have a positive evaluation of bossiness of the traffic police. However, their female ($\bar{X} = 2,88$) counterparts seem to disagree because they show a somewhat less negative evaluation. This means that female respondents believe that traffic officers are only often guilty of bossiness, while the males believe that it happens sometimes. The differences between the two groups of respondents are not significant ($p > 0,05$).

Male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) seem to be of the opinion that traffic police officers do not always abuse their power and authority. This belief is rejected by female respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,92$) who believe that it is common to see traffic officers abusing their power and authority. The table shows that such differences are not significant ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to cheekiness traffic police officers are evaluated more positively by female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,33$). The male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) seem not to agree with their female counterparts as they also evaluate them in a positive manner.

The table further shows that male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,32$) have evaluated aggressiveness of traffic police officers in a more positive manner. The female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,23$) are also of the opinion that they display aggressive attitudes towards the motorists. With regard to the use of abusive language by traffic police officers, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,79$) seems to have a favourable evaluation of the traffic police behaviour. Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,76$) also agree that the traffic police are, to a certain extent, abusive towards motorists.

With regard to ignoring human dignity, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) seem to be more favourable towards traffic police than their female ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) counterparts. There are no significant differences between the two groups ($p > 0,05$).

In general, the evaluation of traffic police brutality by the respondents in this table is positive. This is a good signal towards good relations between the public and the traffic police. However, the picture shown by this table is not good as the respondents agree that brutality does exist even though at a lower rate.

TABLE 5.2
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE
GROUPS (N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Bossiness	3,02	1,36	2,92	1,10	2,72	1,24	0,344
Abuse of power	3,16	1,35	3,03	1,13	2,91	1,43	0,843
Cheekiness	3,25	1,30	3,35	1,08	3,42	1,28	0,640
Aggressiveness	3,27	1,28	3,28	1,03	3,42	1,30	0,763
Ignoring human dignity	3,18	1,36	3,32	1,03	3,51	1,33	0,228
Use of insulting language	3,73	1,34	3,97	0,95	3,88	1,28	0,252

In table 5.2, the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,72$) clearly show a more negative evaluation of traffic police behaviour. This negative evaluation is also displayed by the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,92$). The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,02$) is the only group that seem to show a positive evaluation. The table displays no significant differences between the three languages groups ($p > 0,05$).

Similarly, with regard to abuse of power and authority by traffic officers, the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,91$) also show a somewhat negative evaluation of traffic police behaviour. The South African language group ($\bar{X} = 3,05$) show a slightly positive evaluation. The language group that seem to have a more positive evaluation, is the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,16$).

It is important to note that with regard to cheekiness by the traffic police, the evaluation by the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,42$) changed negative to more positive than any other

group. Another positive evaluation is also shown by the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,35$). More interesting is that the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) shows a less favourable evaluation than the other language groups but their evaluation remains positive.

Similarly, the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,42$) seem to have a more positive evaluation of the traffic police behaviour regarding aggressiveness than the other two groups. The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) do agree that the traffic officers are aggressive but this is not a common behaviour of them. The belief of the South African group is agreed upon by the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,27$) who also show more or less a favourable evaluation of traffic police behaviour.

The evaluation by the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,51$) continues to be more positive even with regard to ignoring of human behaviour by the traffic officers. The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,32$) also agree that they do not always ignore human dignity. The Africa languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,18$) display a less favourable evaluation than the other two groups. There are no significant differences between the groups ($p \geq 0,05$). With regard to abusive language, the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,97$) show a more positive evaluation. The table shows that the foreign language group ($\bar{X} = 3,88$) also have a favourable evaluation. The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,73$) seem to show more or the same positive evaluation of the traffic police behaviour.

The general evaluation by respondents in this table is somewhat positive. However, respondents seem to agree that brutality does prevail.

TABLE 5.3
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS
(N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	18 - 25		26 - 35		36 - 45		46 - 55		56 +		F-Value
	Years		Years		Years		Years		Years		
	\bar{X}	SD									
Bossiness	2,72	1,36	2,95	1,36	3,05	1,27	3,05	1,24	3,52	1,03	0,140
Abuse of power	2,51	1,20	2,97	1,31	3,24	1,36	3,07	1,23	3,48	1,36	0,002*
Cheekiness	2,99	1,22	3,28	1,29	3,40	1,23	3,12	1,33	3,81	1,12	0,054
Aggressiveness	2,85	1,29	3,21	1,24	3,40	1,24	3,66	1,09	4,05	0,80	0,000*
Ignoring human dignity	2,69	1,27	3,22	1,34	3,39	1,25	3,17	1,32	4,10	1,00	0,000*
Use of insulting language	3,44	1,37	3,78	1,34	3,79	1,19	3,95	1,16	4,33	0,86	0,056

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.3 displays the evaluation of traffic police brutality by the age groups. The age group that seem to show more positive evaluation than other groups is the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,52$). Another positive evaluation is shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,05$). Apparently, these are not the only two groups who are more or less positive, because the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,05$) have the same positive evaluation as the 36 - 45 years age group. The only two age groups that show negative evaluation of traffic police behaviour, are the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) and the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,72$). There are however, no significant differences between these groups ($p > 0,05$).

The table further shows that with regard to the abuse of power and authority by the traffic police, the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 3,48$) show more favourable evaluation than the

other age groups. This positive evaluation is also shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). A more or less positive evaluation is also displayed by the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,07$). The remaining two age groups seem to disagree with the other age groups but they show negative evaluation. This view is also supported by the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,51$). A somewhat less favourable view is shown by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,97$).

Similarly, with regard to cheekiness by traffic officers, the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 3,81$) show a more positive evaluation than other age groups. The group that also shows positive evaluation, the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,40$). This positive evaluation shown by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,28$). A more or less positive evaluation in this table seem to be shown by the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,12$). The only group that shows a less favourable evaluation in this table towards cheekiness is the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,99$).

Aggressiveness is evaluated more positively by the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 4,05$). Another positive evaluation in this table seem to have been expressed by the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,66$). The 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,40$) also agrees that traffic police officers do not always display an aggressive attitude towards the public. A favourable evaluation is also shown by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,21$). The only age group that displays an almost neutral (but negative) evaluation of traffic police behaviour, is the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,85$). The differences between the age groups are significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

The elderly age group 56 years and above ($\bar{X} = 4,10$) continues to show more positive evaluation of traffic police behaviour. A lesser positive evaluation is further shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,39$). The table also shows that the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) also agree that the traffic

police are brutal, but such brutality is not often displayed towards the public. Another favourable evaluation of lesser degree has been shown by the 45 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,17$). The 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,69$) continues to emphasise that there is more brutality that is constantly shown by the traffic police officers towards them..

The use of insulting language by the traffic police has been evaluation positively by all age groups. But, it is important to point out that the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 4,33$) continue to show more positive evaluation of the traffic police behaviour. The 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,95$) also display positive evaluation. This positive evaluation is also shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,79$). The 36 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,78$) believe that abusive language is commonly used by traffic police officers. Another positive evaluation of a lesser degree is shown by the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,44$). There are significant differences between the age groups ($p \leq 0,05$) in this regard.

It must be pointed out that even though the general evaluation by the age groups seem to be favourable, the mere fact that the 56 years and above age group believes that the traffic officers are more brutal than other groups is a cause for concern. It is also important to note that even though other groups show a favourable evaluation, they also believe that brutality exists.

TABLE 5.4

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Bossiness	3,24	1,44	2,97	1,31	2,88	1,20	2,86	
Abuse of power	2,88	1,43	3,03	1,34	3,10	1,19	3,02	1,30	0,765
Cheekiness	3,01	1,49	3,37	1,22	3,34	1,17	3,28	1,23	0,161
Aggressiveness	3,03	1,31	3,36	1,27	3,44	1,03	3,24	1,23	0,132
Ignoring human dignity	3,15	1,42	3,20	1,36	3,33	1,14	3,28	1,27	0,801
Use of insulting language	3,78	1,40	3,76	1,31	3,93	1,24	3,71	1,17	0,711

Table 5.4 clearly shows that the only group of respondents that displays favourable evaluation of the behaviour of the traffic officers is the Std 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). The group that seem to show more negative evaluation is the one with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 2,86$). This group is supported by the group whose respondents have diploma qualifications ($\bar{X} = 2,88$). Another negative evaluation of a lesser extent is shown by the Std 10 group ($\bar{X} = 2,97$). The table does not show any significant differences between the groups ($p > 0,05$).

A minor change of attitude is shown by the respondents when they evaluate the abuse of power and authority by traffic police. Here, there is only one group that feels strongly about the abuse of power and authority by traffic police and that is the Std 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 2,88$). All other groups show more or less favourable evaluations - respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,10$), and to a lesser extent also

shown by respondents with Std 10 qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,03$) and those who possess degrees ($\bar{X} = 3,02$). There are no significant differences between the groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to cheekiness by the traffic police, the table shows a somewhat favourable evaluation by all the groups. The group which shows a more favourable evaluation than others, is the group of respondents with Std 10 ($\bar{X} = 3,37$). The group that is composed of respondents with diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,34$) also appear to be of the view that the traffic police officers are, to a certain extent cheeky towards the public. Graduates ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) also seem to agree that traffic officers do have a problem of being cheeky sometimes. A somewhat less favourable evaluation is shown by the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 3,01$).

Similarly, more or less the same evaluation which was shown by the respondents towards cheekiness is also shown by them towards aggressiveness as they all show favourable evaluations. However, in this case the group that shows more favourable evaluation than other groups is the group of respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,44$), followed by those with Std 10 qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,36$) and degrees ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). Lastly, the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 3,03$) has the least unfavourable evaluation.

The trend which the respondents have been following towards traffic police brutality before this category does not change, because the evaluation that is displayed remains more or less positive. No strong emphasis of the absence of brutality is made by any of the groups. The group that shows a more favourable evaluation than other groups, is the group of respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,33$). Graduates ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) seem to have an overall favourable evaluation of traffic police behaviour as well. This favourable evaluation trend is also followed by the Std 10 group ($\bar{X} = 3,20$). The last group

that also display favourable evaluation is the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 3,15$). There are no significant differences between the groups ($p > 0,05$).

The last form of traffic police behaviour that is evaluated by the respondents in this table is the use of insults. Respondents with diplomas ($\bar{X} = 3,93$) show a more positive evaluation of this kind of behaviour. Another group that seem to show favourable evaluation are those with a school qualification of Std 9 and below ($\bar{X} = 3,78$). The Std 10 group ($\bar{X} = 3,76$) seem to believe that traffic police do not insult people. The graduates ($\bar{X} = 3,71$) also feel strongly that the traffic police are abusive to people.

The general evaluation is more or less favourable but not satisfactorily.

TABLE 5.5

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Bossiness	2,98	1,32	2,66	1,30	3,15	1,34	3,13	1,24	2,94	1,45	0,049*
Abuse of power	2,99	1,34	2,56	1,26	3,11	1,32	3,32	1,25	3,00	1,41	0,000*
Cheekiness	3,25	1,32	2,78	1,26	3,31	1,25	3,52	1,12	3,89	1,19	0,000*
Aggressiveness	3,18	1,29	2,96	1,26	3,29	1,23	3,59	1,14	3,42	1,20	0,001*
Ignoring human dignity	3,13	1,38	2,77	1,24	3,53	1,21	3,48	1,22	3,31	1,49	0,000*
Use of insulting language	3,75	1,37	3,05	1,38	4,23	1,02	4,09	0,98	3,83	1,32	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.5 displays that respondents who show a favourable evaluation of traffic police behaviour, are those who have been told by other people ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) about the behaviour of traffic police. Another group that shows positive evaluation is the one that has the experience of watching traffic officers as they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,13$). Respondents who show a more negative evaluation are those who have seen the traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,66$). Respondents who get information about traffic police activities from the newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,94$) also show negative evaluation of their behaviour. Respondents who had direct contact with traffic officers as a result of traffic offences ($\bar{X} = 2,98$) seem to have a somewhat unfavourable evaluation, though to a lesser extent.

Abuse of power and authority by traffic police seem to be evaluated more positively by respondents who have seen the traffic police when they regulate traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 3,32$). The table also show that respondents who depend on what they have been told by other people about the behaviour of the traffic police ($\bar{X} = 3,11$) display favourable evaluation.

A somewhat favourable evaluation is also shown by respondents who depend on newspaper reports about the activities of traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,00$). Respondents who show an unfavourable evaluation more stronger than other respondents is the group that have seen them when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,56$). Respondents who had direct contact with the traffic officers as a result of an offence ($\bar{X} = 2,99$) also show an unfavourable evaluation.

When it comes to the evaluation of cheekiness of traffic officers, the table indicates that the only group of respondents that shows negative evaluation of the traffic police behaviour is the one that has observed them when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,78$). Respondents who get the information about traffic officers from newspaper reports ($\bar{X} = 3,89$) seem

to have more positive evaluation than other groups. Another positive evaluation is also shown by respondents who have seen the traffic officers when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,52$). Respondents who have been told about the behaviour of the traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,31$) show favourable evaluation of the behaviour of the traffic officers. Those who had direct contact with the traffic officers as a result of traffic offence ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) believe that they are not always cheeky.

Aggressiveness of traffic officers is evaluation more positively by respondents who have seen the traffic officers when they regulate traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 3,59$). The table further reveals that respondents who read newspaper reports about the activities of traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,42$) show favourable evaluation of their behaviour. Another group that seem to agree that traffic police are not always displaying aggressive behaviour are those who depend on being told by other people ($\bar{X} = 3,29$). Respondents who had direct contact with traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,18$) also view them in a favourable manner. A different view in this category is shown by respondents who have see the traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) who show a negative evaluation of the behaviour of traffic officers.

According to the data in table 5.5 there is no consensus amongst the respondents with regard to the degree of brutality (ignoring human dignity) that is shown by traffic officers. The great majority of the contact groups seem to have favourable evaluation of the behaviour of the traffic officers. The only contact group that seem to have negative evaluation of the behaviour of traffic officers is the group that have seen the traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,77$).

Regarding the use of insulting language by traffic officers, according to the data, all the contact groups show favourable evaluation of the behaviour of the traffic officers. The

table also reveals that respondents who have been told about the activities of traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 4,23$) show more positive evaluation of their behaviour. This positive evaluation is also shown by respondents who have seen them when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 4,09$). These two groups seem to agree that traffic officers do not use insulting language. This table further shows that there is relative agreement amongst the other contact groups that brutality in the form of insulting language does exist but is not commonly displayed by the traffic police officers.

The data in table 5.5 further reveals statistical significant differences amongst the contact group with regard to -

- * bossiness ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * abuse of power and authority ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * cheekiness ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * aggressiveness ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * ignoring human dignity ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * use of insulting language ($p \leq 0,05$).

TABLE 5.6

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE BRUTALITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

IMAGE DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNI- CIPAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F- Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Bossiness	2,92	1,33	2,92	1,30	3,00	1,32	0,823
Abuse of power	2,85	1,26	2,92	1,33	3,06	1,33	0,426
Cheekiness	3,25	1,20	2,92	1,38	3,36	1,24	0,024*
Aggressiveness	3,15	1,20	2,89	1,37	3,39	1,21	0,005*
Ignoring human dignity	3,36	1,21	3,05	1,41	3,24	1,31	0,394
Use of insulting language	3,93	1,22	3,66	1,43	3,78	1,26	0,473

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.6 reveals a very interesting response-pattern: respondents show consensus in their evaluation of the behaviour of the municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,92$) and provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,92$). On the other hand when both ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) are evaluated they receive negative evaluation. No statistically significant differences between the respondents are shown.

Regarding the abuse of power and authority the municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,85$) are evaluated more negatively. Provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,92$) also receive negative evaluation from the respondents. When they are both evaluated ($\bar{X} = 3,06$) the response-pattern changes as they receive positive evaluation.

With regard to cheekiness of the traffic police officers, when both ($\bar{X} = 3,36$) officers of the two institutions are evaluated they get positive evaluation. But when provincial traffic officers ($X = 2,92$) are evaluated separately they receive negative evaluation. Municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) continue to receive positive evaluation even when evaluated separately.

Further, concerning aggressiveness provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,89$) receive negative evaluation. On the other hand, municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) continue to enjoy positive evaluation. When traffic officers of both institutions ($\bar{X} = 3,39$) are evaluated they receive positive evaluation. There are significant differences between the responses of the respondents.

This table also reveal that municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,39$) received high positive evaluation from the respondents. Even the provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,66$) received positive evaluation in this category. When the traffic officers of both institutions ($\bar{X} = 3,78$) are evaluated together, they get more positive evaluation. The general positive evaluation of the traffic police regarding the use of insulting language indicates clearly that they do not always insult members of the community.

The general evaluation of the traffic police behaviour in this table seems to be positive. On the other hand, the negative evaluations regarding bossiness and abuse of power and authority are a clear signal that a change of attitude is necessary when traffic police deal with the public.

5.3.3 Traffic police partiality

Allegations of partiality usually refer to the differential treatment of members of society with certain economic and professional interests, political affiliations, religious con-

victions, nationality, colour or language. Van Heerden (1986:142) believes that the public is of the opinion that educational qualifications, socio-economic status and profession have favourable effects, while language, nationality, colour and political affiliations have adverse effects. This stereotype is often encountered among the lower socio-economic classes and in minority groups. The traffic police are accused of unfriendliness and discrimination because traffic police refuse to use alternatives of arrest and detention when they deal with these classes and because they get less protection than is given to other groups. Geary (1975:111) also believe that inadequate protection is indeed seen by the minority groups as the worse form of colour discrimination, particularly because it involves unequal traffic order maintenance which gives the impression that they are not worthy of protection.

TABLE 5.7

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Tourist are prosecuted more than Transkeians	2,98	1,42	3,30	1,23	0,029*
Males are prosecuted more than females	2,71	1,27	3,14	1,15	0,120
Skin colour or race influences the way of enforcement	2,85	1,40	3,02	1,28	0,200
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,38	1,32	3,58	1,19	0,114

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.7 reveal that female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,30$) show more positive evaluation of the traffic partiality. On the other hand, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,98$) seem to have negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. There are significant differences between the responses of the two groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

Regarding the better treatment of females than males, female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,16$) show favourable evaluation of the traffic police behaviour. The male respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,71$) display an unfavourable evaluation of traffic police partiality. There are no significant differences between the responses of the two groups ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to differentiated treatment according to skin colour or race by traffic officers, female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,02$) show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. On the other hand, their male ($\bar{X} = 2,85$) counterparts show negative evaluation of the behaviour of traffic police officers.

About the better treatment for blacks by traffic officers the data in this table reveal that female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,58$) show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. Similarly, a more or less same positive evaluation is shown by male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,38$).

The general attitude of the respondents particularly that of female respondents seem to be positive towards traffic police partiality.

TABLE 5.8
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO AGE
GROUPS (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	18 - 25		26 - 35		36 - 45		46 - 55		56 +		F- Value
	Years		Years		Years		Years		Years		
	n = 677		n = 235		n = 136		n = 41		n = 21		
	\bar{X}	SD									
Tourist are proce- cuted more than Transkeians	3,12	1,35	3,14	1,31	3,18	1,43	2,80	1,45	2,71	1,27	0,373
Males are prose- cuted more than females	2,51	1,34	2,94	1,24	2,96	1,26	2,78	1,04	2,90	1,14	0,114
Skin colour or race influences the way of enforcement	2,39	1,42	3,00	1,32	3,11	1,39	2,73	1,28	2,76	1,14	0,004*
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,42	1,29	3,49	1,31	3,57	1,20	3,02	1,29	3,29	1,01	0,174

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.8 reveals that the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,18$) show more positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. More or less the same positive evaluation is shown by the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,14$). Also the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,12$) show somewhat favourable evaluation of the traffic police partiality. The two age groups that seem to show negative evaluation of traffic police partiality are the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,80$) and the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 2,71$).

With regard to the better treatment of females than males this table reveals a general consensus amongst the different age groups. The data in this table also show that the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,51$) show more negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. Another age group that show

negative evaluation of traffic police partiality is the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,78$). A somewhat similar negative evaluation is shown by the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 2,94$) and the 36 - 45 years age group also show negative evaluation of traffic police partiality.

Regarding different treatment of people because of skin colour or race, the only age groups that show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality is the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,11$) and the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$). All other age groups seem to show negative evaluation of traffic police partiality. The age group which shows more negative evaluation is the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,39$) followed by the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,73$) and the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 2,76$). The table also show significant differences between the responses of the age groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

Further, concerning the treatment of blacks better than whites, the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 5.7. As is the case in that table all age groups show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. The age group which seem to show more positive evaluation than other age groups in this table is the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,57$).

TABLE 5.9
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE
OF CONTACT (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Tourist are prose- cuted more than Transkeians	3,07	1,40	2,85	1,39	3,03	1,38	3,29	1,31	3,39	
Males are prose- cuted more than females	2,86	1,31	2,79	1,23	2,81	1,30	2,99	1,15	2,86	1,27	0,769
Skin colour or race influences the way of enforcement	3,77	1,37	2,78	1,31	2,72	1,44	2,92	1,31	3,25	1,40	0,080
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,48	1,28	3,46	1,27	3,43	1,45	3,47	1,17	3,33	1,31	0,979

The data in table 5.9 reveal that all contact groups show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality with the exception of respondents who have seen traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,85$) who show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. No significant differences are observable ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to males being prosecuted more than females, the table shows that all the contact groups of respondents show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. This indicates that there is consensus amongst the contact groups with regard to traffic police partiality.

On the other hand, with regard to the treatment of motorists according to skin colour or race the data in this table show minor differences between the responses of the contact groups. It should be pointed out, however, that these differences are

statistical insignificant. Respondents, for example, who had direct contact with the traffic police as a result of traffic offences ($\bar{X} = 3,77$) show more positive evaluation of traffic police partiality. On the other hand, respondents who had observed traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 2,70$) seem to show more negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality than all other contact groups.

Further, concerning the prosecution of blacks rather than whites, again the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 5.7 and table 5.8. As is the case in those tables all contact groups show a positive evaluation of traffic police partiality. The general picture shown by this table indicates that traffic police are partial particularly in relation to the prosecution of males more than females, and the influence of skin colour or race in the way of traffic law enforcement.

TABLE 5.10

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Tourist are prosecuted more than Transkeians	3,25	1,33	2,36	1,34	3,12	
Males are prosecuted more than females	2,87	1,29	2,81	0,95	3,02	1,28	0,657
Skin colour or race influen- ces the way of enforcement	3,03	1,38	2,50	1,21	2,67	1,27	0,003*
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,62	1,24	2,72	1,08	3,33	1,36	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.10 reveal that African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,25$) and foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,12$) show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. On the other hand, the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,36$) show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality.

Regarding the prosecution of female drivers better than males, the languages group that seem to show more negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality is the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,81$). The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,87$) also seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. Contrary, to the evaluations of the other languages groups, the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,02$) show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality.

With regard to the influence of skin colour or race on the way in which traffic officers treat motorists, the only languages group that seem to show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality is the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,03$). Foreign languages ($\bar{X} = 2,67$) and South African languages ($\bar{X} = 2,50$) groups show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality.

Further, concerning the treatment of blacks better than whites, the only languages group that seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality is the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,72$). The other two remaining languages groups, African languages ($\bar{X} = 3,62$) and foreign languages ($\bar{X} = 3,33$) seem to have evaluated the traffic police partiality in a positive manner.

Significant differences are also observable with regard to the following -

- * tourists are more likely to be prosecuted than Transkeian citizens or people living in Transkei ($p \leq 0,05$);

- * skin colour or race has a definite influence on the way in which traffic officers treat motorists ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * traffic officers treat black motorists more sympathetically than they do with white motorists ($p \leq 0,05$).

This table shows respondents believe that the traffic police are partial and this requires attention of traffic authorities.

TABLE 5.11
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Tourist are prosecuted more than Transkeians	3,07	1,36	3,92	1,33	2,96	1,48	2,86	
Males are prosecuted more than females	2,94	1,31	2,88	1,27	2,79	1,21	2,86	1,18	0,900
Skin colour or race influences the way of enforcement	2,87	1,35	3,07	1,39	2,92	1,37	2,66	1,27	0,064
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,37	1,36	3,64	1,24	3,40	1,37	3,20	1,15	0,018*

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.11 reveal that respondents with Std 10 qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,92$) show more positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality than other respondents. The table also show that respondents who possess Std 9 and under qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) seem to have a positive view of the traffic police partiality. Respondents who possess degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 2,86$) show more negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. Also the respondents who have

diplomas ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality. There are significant differences between the groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

With regard to male motorists being prosecuted more than females, the data in this table reveal that there is consensus amongst the various groups of evaluation in this table. They all seem to believe that traffic police in Transkei are partial.

Concerning the skin colour or race having an influence on the way in which traffic officers treat motorists, the data in this table show that only respondents who possess Std 10 qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) seem to show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. All other groups show negative evaluation of the traffic police partiality.

Further, concerning the treatment of blacks better than whites, all respondents in this table show positive evaluation of the traffic police partiality. It is, however, important to note that respondents who possess Std 10 ($\bar{X} = 3,64$) show more positive evaluation than all other groups. There are significant differences between the groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

The general evaluation of the traffic police partiality is negative. This demands the attention of traffic police institutions in Transkei. Transkei traffic police institutions must ensure traffic officers change their attitude towards the members of the public. Because if they continue to be seen as partial, members of the public will not co-operate with them in the performance of their duties.

TABLE 5.12

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE PARTIALITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

NATURE OF PARTIALITY (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNICI- PAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F-Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Tourist are prosecuted more than Transkeians	2,78	1,29	3,11	1,34	3,15	1,37	0,149
Males are prosecuted more than females	2,73	1,11	2,82	1,27	2,91	1,26	0,550
Skin colour or race influences the way of enforcement	2,76	1,34	2,79	1,25	2,96	1,38	0,416
Blacks are treated better than whites	3,29	1,34	3,25	1,34	3,52	1,24	0,135

The data in table 5.12 reveal that respondents show negative evaluation of the municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,78$). Provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,11$) seem to be evaluated positively by the respondents. When the traffic officers of both ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) institutions are evaluated together they seem to be evaluated positively.

With regard to the prosecution of males more than females, respondents show negative evaluation more towards municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,73$). Negative evaluation is also shown by the respondents towards provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,82$). Even when the traffic officers of both ($\bar{X} = 2,91$) institutions are evaluated together, respondents continue to show negative evaluation of their partiality.

Further, concerning the skin colour or race having a definite influence on the way in which traffic officers treat motorists, the data in this table reveal that respondents show negative evaluation towards municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,76$) and provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,76$) as well as to traffic officers of both ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) institutions.

On the other hand, concerning the treatment of black motorists more sympathetically than white motorists the general response-pattern of the respondents is positive. There are no significant differences that are observable.

This table reveals that evaluation of traffic police partiality is negative, particularly with regard to the prosecution of males more than females and the influence of skin colour or race in the way traffic laws and regulations are enforced by traffic officers. The existence of partiality in the traffic police institutions in Transkei is a serious threat to traffic police-community relations.

5.3.4 Inferiority

The stereotype of inferiority is connected with the belief that traffic policing is a social service that does not require individual's intelligence. Consequently a traffic police officer is regarded as an uneducated, unqualified and unprofessional person who, by reason of his lack of both educational qualifications and natural ability, performs an inferior service. Wilson (1968:151) is of the opinion that traffic police institutions contribute to traffic police inferiority by paying the officers low salaries. In some cases recruiting requirements are very low, training methods are outdated, low academic qualifications, recruiting that is aimed at a high number of intake rather than attracting better qualified people, and inability to provide in-service train-

ing. All these together affect the morale of the traffic police and sooner or later they will feel inferior (Wilson, 1968:151-52).

Van Heerden (1986:141) believes that this kind of stereotype is somewhat misplaced because the vocational status of the traffic police is high, and that the public regard traffic policing as one of the most important occupations in society which indeed require high academic qualifications and should offer higher salaries.

TABLE 5.13

**EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO GENDER
(N = 500)**

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Traffic police render an important service	2,16	1,21	2,33	1,18	0,703
Their services less important than those of Transkeian Police	3,51	1,25	3,39	1,16	0,251
They have a high social status in society	3,04	1,17	3,09	1,18	0,911
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,75	1,13	3,56	1,15	0,731

The data in table 5.13 reveal that male respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,16$) show more positive evaluation of the importance of service that the traffic police render in Transkei. Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,33$) as well seem to show positive evaluation of the importance of their service.

Similarly, with regard to the importance of their services compared to those of the Transkeian police, both males ($\bar{X} = 3,51$) and females ($\bar{X} = 3,39$) respondents seem to show positive evaluation.

With regard to their high social status in the society, both female ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) and male ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) respondents seem to show negative evaluation.

Further, concerning their work not requiring a high standard of education, male ($\bar{X} = 3,75$) and female ($\bar{X} = 3,56$) respondents show positive evaluation.

This table shows that respondents show high regard of traffic police services when they compare them with those of Transkeian police. They believe that traffic officers do not have a high social status in the society.

TABLE 5.14

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS n = 59		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS n = 73		BOTH MUNI- CIPAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS n = 368		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
The police render an important service	2,36	1,16	2,44	1,33	2,16	1,17	0,128
Their services are less important than those of Transkeian police	3,63	1,08	2,89	1,25	3,55	1,20	0,000*
They have a high social status in society	2,78	1,18	2,85	1,20	3,14	1,16	0,022*
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,51	1,25	3,63	1,15	3,71	1,16	0,402

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.14 reveal that respondents show more positive evaluation of the service rendered by municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,36$). The respondents also show positive evaluation of the service rendered by provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,44$). When the respondents evaluate both ($X = 2,16$) traffic officers of municipality and provincial they show a much higher evaluation than even the one they have shown to municipal traffic officers. No significant differences are observable ($p > 0,05$).

With regard to their services being less important than those of the Transkei police, municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,68$) again receive more positive evaluation than their provincial ($\bar{X} = 2,89$) counterparts who seem to be evaluated negatively. When both ($\bar{X} = 3,55$) are evaluated, respondents show positive evaluation. There are significant differences between the respondents ($p > 0,05$).

Further, concerning their high social status in the society, municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,78$) seem to be evaluated more positively than their provincial ($\bar{X} = 2,85$) counterparts. When traffic officers of both ($\bar{X} = 3,14$) institutions are evaluated, they receive negative evaluation.

Regarding their work not requiring high standard of education, respondents show positive evaluation for both municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,51$) and provincial ($\bar{X} = 3,63$) traffic officers. Even when traffic officers of these institutions are evaluated both ($\bar{X} = 3,71$) respondents give them more positive evaluation.

This table makes it clear that respondents believe that traffic police work need to be done by educated officers. That traffic officers have a high social status in the society. Further, that their services are important even if they are compared to Transkeian police services. Furthermore, that they render an important service to the community of Transkei.

TABLE 5.15

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE STEREOTYPE OF INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	The police render an important service	2,08	1,21	2,21	1,20	2,26	1,21	2,34	
Their services are less important than those of Transkeian police	3,12	1,34	3,45	1,23	3,59	1,12	3,66	1,10	0,010*
They have a high social status in society	2,70	1,20	3,05	1,19	3,16	1,19	3,26	1,07	0,006*
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,66	1,14	3,71	1,12	3,71	1,17	3,61	1,14	0,858

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 5.15 shows that all respondents show positive evaluation of the nature of the services traffic officers render to the public. It is important to note that respondents with Std 9 and under ($\bar{X} = 2,08$) seem to show more positive evaluation than any other group. There are no significant differences between the respondents.

With regard to their services being less important compared to those of the Transkeian police, respondents seem to disagree as they all show positive evaluation of traffic police. Respondents who possess degrees ($\bar{X} = 3,66$) seem to show strong disagreement than any other group.

Further, concerning them having a high social status in society, only respondents with Std 9 and under ($\bar{X} = 2,70$) seem to show positive evaluation of the traffic police social

status. Respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,26$) seem to show more negative evaluation of the traffic police social status than any other group.

Regarding their work not requiring a high standard of education, the response-pattern of the respondents in this table is similar to that in table 5.14. As is the case in that table all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police.

The table further shows significant differences between the educational qualification groups with regard to -

- * their services are less important compared to those of the Transkeian police ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * they have a high social status in the society ($p \leq 0,05$).

The data in this table reveal that the respondents believe that traffic police render an important service to the community, and their services are not less important when compared to those of the Transkeian police. Furthermore, they show consensus to their belief that the traffic police work requires high standard of education.

TABLE 5.16

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE STEREOTYPE OF INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
The police render an important service	2,13	1,20	2,69	1,12	2,21	1,15	0,000*
Their services are less important than those of Transkeian police	3,40	1,28	3,73	0,95	3,58	1,01	0,071
They have a high social status in society	3,02	1,21	3,28	1,01	3,00	1,07	0,184
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,66	1,18	3,76	1,00	3,72	0,96	0,755

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.16 reveal that the response-pattern of the respondents in this table is similar to that in table 5.15. Also, as is the case in that table all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police. Significant differences are, however, observable ($p \leq 0,05$).

Similarly, concerning their services being less important than those of the Transkeian police the respondents overwhelmingly show positive evaluation of the traffic police. It is important to note that the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,73$) seem to show more positive evaluation of the traffic police.

But, with regard to them having a high social status in the society, respondents show negative evaluation. The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,28$) seem to show more negative evaluation than other language groups.

More important to note is that the data in this table reveal that all respondents believe that traffic police work requires officers with a high standard of education. The response-pattern that is shown by respondents in this table is the same as that shown in table 5.15.

To sum up, respondents in this table show positive evaluation of the traffic police. This is a good signal for future traffic police-community relations.

TABLE 5.17
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE STEREOTYPE OF INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO THE AGE GROUPS (N = 500)

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
The police render an important service	2,12	1,15	2,20	1,24	2,29	1,17	2,39	1,28	2,05	0,92	0,678
Their services are less important than those of Transkeian police	3,21	1,38	3,39	1,20	3,63	1,17	3,61	1,16	3,81	1,08	0,074
They have a high social status in society	2,96	1,17	3,08	1,22	3,04	1,13	3,22	1,17	2,95	1,02	0,821
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,54	1,13	3,58	1,16	3,84	1,12	3,80	1,10	3,90	1,00	0,151

The data in table 5.17 reveal that the response-pattern that is shown in table 5.16 by the respondents is also shown in this table. As is the case in that table, all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police. The 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 2,05$) seem to believe strongly that

traffic police render an important service to the Transkei community. There are no significant differences between the age groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

Again, with regard to their services being less important than those of the Transkeian police, all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police. The 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,63$) seem to show more positive evaluation than other groups.

Concerning the traffic officers having a high social status in the society, the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic police. Other two age groups that show negative evaluation of the traffic police social status are the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,08$) and the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,04$). The 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) and the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,96$) seem to show more or less the same positive evaluation of the social status of the traffic police.

Further, concerning their work not requiring a high standard of education, again a similar response-pattern that is shown by respondents in table 5.16 is also shown in this table. As is the case in that table all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police.

The general evaluation of the traffic police in this table is positive. Respondents believe that they render an important service to the community. That their services are not less important when compared with those of the Transkeian police. Furthermore, that they have a high social status and that their work requires a high standard of education.

TABLE 5.18

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE INFERIORITY ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

STATUS DETERMINANT (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
The police render an important service	2,14	1,16	2,35	1,26	2,11	1,24	2,42	1,22	1,64	0,64	0,004*
Their services are less important than those of Transkeian police	3,45	1,20	3,46	1,22	3,35	1,38	3,67	1,07	3,00	1,31	0,039*
They have a high social status in society	3,01	1,19	3,13	1,11	3,08	1,24	3,15	1,17	2,64	1,15	0,188
Their work in society doesn't require high education standards	3,69	1,16	3,69	1,06	3,60	1,20	3,70	1,14	3,69	1,19	0,980

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 5.18 reveal that all the contact groups show positive evaluation of the traffic police. Respondents who read newspaper reports about the activities of the traffic police ($\bar{X} = 1,64$) show a more positive evaluation of the traffic police than any other contact group. Significant differences between the contact groups are observable ($p \leq 0,05$).

With regard to traffic police services being less important compared to those of the Transkeian police, all the contact groups show positive evaluation of the traffic police. Respondents who have observed them when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,67$) show more positive evaluation than other contact groups. There are also significant differences between the contact groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

Further, concerning the traffic officers having a high social status in society, respondents who read newspapers about the activities of the traffic police ($\bar{X} = 2,64$) seem to be the only contact group that show positive evaluation of the traffic police. All other contact groups show negative evaluation of the traffic police social status.

This table further reveals that the response-pattern of respondents that is shown in this table is similar to that in table 5.17. As is the case in that table all respondents show positive evaluation of the traffic police. There are no significant differences between the contact groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

This table further shows that members of the community have a high regard of the traffic police services. That such services continue to be important to them even if they are compared to those of the Transkeian police. They do not believe that traffic officers have a high social status. They believe that the traffic police work requires a high standard of education.

Looking at the positive attitude of the respondents in these tables, one is bound to believe that traffic police have no reason to have the stereotype of inferiority.

5.3.5 Suppression

This stereotype emanates from the belief that traffic policemen are the agents of the authority structure which is suppressing the community. The reason for the traffic police to be labelled this way is because they are the visible representatives of the whole social structure, as a result allegations that are aimed at the governing structure are directed to the traffic police. Consequently the enforcer of the law is not regarded as a protector of the individual rights but as the oppressor: instead of being seen as a friend he is regarded as an enemy. The aims and objectives of the traffic

law enforcement are viewed with suspicion. The whole judiciary system is believed to be the government's instrument for maintaining the present authority structure and its policies, and implementing a principle of second-class citizenship by enforcing traffic laws, practices, customs and taboos of an intolerable system of social classes (Brandstatter and Radelet, 1968:198). Van Heerden (1986:142) believes that this stereotyped attitude is more closely associated with the social structure than those the researcher have discussed above and could not in itself be directly connected to the manner in which the traffic police role is fulfilled. The presence of this stereotype among the minority groups impedes communications.

The public's attitude emanates from the evaluation of the police on the basis of the central democratic principle that the individual's freedom, safety and privacy are guaranteed. The nature of stereotype is determined by the degree to which the individual feels that certain actions amount to interference with his rights and privileges. Stereotypes cannot be neglected because of their hypothetical character nor be eliminated by means of counter-stereotypes. Psychologically, it is the conviction or disposition that is important, not the validity of facts on which it is based (Brandstatter and Radelet, 1968:198).

Van Heerden (1986:143) believes that traffic police will never succeed in modifying the public attitudes if they permit a negative attitude on the part of the public to isolate them. Traffic officers must first win the confidence of the public. The only method of winning this "confidence" is through sound and reasonable decision-making in the course of contact with the public and the striking of healthy balance between the advisory and enforcement roles of the police.

There are some traffic offenders who know that they deserve to be charged for their offences, then in order to cover their backs they make vindictive complaints against the traffic police and, although most complaints are proved to be groundless or unsubstantiated, the effect on the officer complained of, can be considerable. He will always be under stress while complaints are being investigated and it may well affect his attitude towards his job. He often finds it difficult to understand why a senior officer should devote more time to a complaint against him than he himself is able to devote to serious traffic crimes (Pike, 1985:108).

5.4 SUMMARY

In this chapter various stereotypes that are often directed at the members of the traffic police have been discussed. This has been necessitated by the belief that if the stereotypes against the traffic police can be identified and addressed properly, members of the public will begin to co-operate with the traffic police, and the traffic police image will improve. Police stereotypes are not a separate entity from the traffic police image, in fact they are part and parcel of the image.

Views of the members of the public with regard to bossiness, abuse of power, cheekiness, aggressiveness, ignoring human dignity and use of insulting language were tested. Views of the respondents were also tested with regard to traffic police partiality, and inferiority. In addition to the above, stereotype of suppression was discussed. Whilst citizenry is often fluctuating, stereotypes tend to be static and sometimes very difficult to change. Some people ponder the traffic police role as a hypothetical abstraction, in ignorance of the true facts, and conceive the traffic police to be a potential instrument of tyranny which will destroy the freedom of a democratic society. Because their reading and research are

confined to incidents that discredit the traffic police, they conclude that all traffic police are bad (Sowle, 1962:26). This is one of the ways in which stereotypes are formed.

CHAPTER 6

TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter actually represents a continuation of the debate contained in chapter 5, but for the sake of convenience, the researcher deemed it necessary to have it separated.

Although this chapter deals with traffic police conduct in the operational execution of their duties, it should be noted that certain related traffic police attitudes as seen from the viewpoint of the public are also evident.

Bowden (1978:24) believes that a traffic police officer should have a high degree of tolerance and do his work efficiently even though he may be continually ostracised by his master (the public). He becomes an overworked and unpopular functionary of the state. He has little of the steam of the soldier. He is expected to make personal sacrifices willingly, demonstrating along the way the highest moral and physical standards.

Traffic policemen are in daily contact with the public; they wear uniform and are enforcing laws of the country. All these expose them to constant evaluations by the community. They are often called to intervene and help in situations that cause stress. Most citizens would avoid such situations, which normally produce tension, nausea, and acute discomfort. Yet traffic police must perform their duty, without allowing such incidents to influence their behaviour towards any group of individuals involved. Stress and tension often influence how officers act, and it is precisely against this combination which they must guard themselves (Bennet-Sandler, Frazier, Torres and Waldron, 1979:207).

6.2 TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT

In a democratic society, policing cannot succeed without the co-operation of the members of society. It is natural that a human being will refuse to co-operate with a person who shows no respect for him. Therefore, traffic police need to display a high degree of respect for members of the community which they are serving. The very nature of policing and its daily contact with the society opens it to critical evaluation with regard to protection of individual rights. Traffic policemen should always be conscious of the fact that all members of the community are their masters and they (the police) are servants. It, therefore, goes without saying that a master requires special treatment from a servant that he pays.

Consequently, if the traffic policemen are seen by the society to be misbehaving, the society will distance itself from all efforts of traffic police and regard traffic policemen as enemies of the society. It is the nature of the conduct which the traffic policemen display in their daily contact with the public that will promote or destroy the relationships between themselves and the public. It is important for all traffic policing institutions to ensure that their members are aware of the fact that traffic policing in a democratic country requires a high degree of skill and intelligence in order to serve the public in a more efficient manner. Traffic policing is a community service; therefore, daily contacts with the public are unavoidable. Their role will therefore be subjected to constant evaluations in terms of a particular set of expectations (Curran, Fowler and Ward, 1973:409).

TABLE 6.1
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Friendliness	3,08	1,30	3,12	1,31	0,942
Helpfulness	3,06	1,30	3,06	1,34	0,672
Competence	3,09	1,26	2,95	1,23	0,765
Reasonableness	3,09	1,29	3,02	1,21	0,318
Courteousness	3,03	1,22	3,15	1,26	0,604

Table 6.1 contains a breakdown of traffic police conduct as evaluated by gender of the respondents. This table shows that the female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,12$) evaluate the conduct of the traffic police with regard to friendliness in a negative manner. The male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,08$) seem to also evaluate this conduct in a negative manner. When it comes to the helpfulness of the traffic police, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,06$) and female respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,06$) seem to agree that the traffic police are not helpful to the public. Regarding the competence of the traffic police, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) show a more negative evaluation of this conduct than their female ($\bar{X} = 2,95$) counterparts. Concerning reasonableness, male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) again show a more negative evaluation of the conduct of the traffic police than their female ($\bar{X} = 3,02$) counterparts. A slight change in the negative attitude of the male respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,03$) is shown when they evaluate the traffic police courteousness less negative than their female ($\bar{X} = 3,15$) counterparts. The general evaluation of the traffic police conduct in this table is negative. When

the public has such a negative view of their traffic police it will be very difficult for such traffic police to get co-operation from the public.

TABLE 6.2

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Friendliness	2,87	1,45	3,07	1,33	3,32	1,19	3,18	
Helpfulness	2,78	1,43	3,01	1,35	3,27	1,24	3,24	1,15	0,038*
Competence in performing duties	2,65	1,30	3,14	1,26	3,16	1,07	3,04	1,24	0,014*
Reasonableness	3,07	1,34	3,07	1,32	3,18	1,10	2,98	1,19	0,781
Courteousness	2,93	1,39	3,10	1,26	3,19	1,15	3,06	1,13	0,588

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.2 shows that respondents with Std 9 and lower ($\bar{X} = 2,87$) qualifications have a more favourable attitude towards the conduct of the traffic officers with regard to their friendliness than any other group in the table. Std 10-group respondents ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) show a negative evaluation with regard to certain characteristics. When it comes to respondents with diploma qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,18$) the table shows clearly that the negative evaluation has increased. This table further indicates that the group that has a more negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct as far as friendliness is concerned, is the group that has diploma qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,32$). The differences in these groups are not significant $p \geq 0,05$.

With regard to helpfulness of the traffic police the respondents with diploma qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,27$) show a more negative evaluation than any other group. This negative evaluation, though at a lesser degree, is also shown by respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). The Std 10-group ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) also show a negative evaluation of this conduct. The only group that shows a favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct in this category is the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 2,78$).

The competence of the traffic police is evaluated positively only by the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 2,65$). The group which shows a more negative evaluation towards the competence of the traffic police, is the diploma group ($\bar{X} = 3,16$). This negative evaluation is followed by the Std 10-group ($\bar{X} = 3,14$). The respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) show a negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct (competence when performing their duties).

In this table reasonableness seems to be evaluated more negatively than other groups than by the respondents with diploma qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,18$). Two other groups that seem to have the same negative evaluation of the reasonableness of the traffic police are the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) and the Std 10-group ($\bar{X} = 3,07$). The respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 2,98$) show a slightly more positive evaluation.

Courteousness is evaluated more negatively by the diploma group ($\bar{X} = 3,19$). This negative evaluation is followed by the Std 10-group ($\bar{X} = 3,10$). The respondents with degree qualifications ($\bar{X} = 3,06$) have also evaluated this characteristic negatively. A slightly more positive evaluation is shown by the Std 9 and lower group ($\bar{X} = 2,93$).

The general evaluation by the respondents in this table seem to be negative. Respondents seem to believe that traffic officers are unfriendly, less helpful, incompetent, not always reasonable and do not show courteousness to the public when executing their duties.

TABLE 6.3

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Friendliness	3,00	1,36	3,50	0,98	3,19	
Helpfulness	3,00	1,36	3,41	1,00	3,00	1,31	0,038*
Competence in performing duties	2,98	1,30	3,42	0,86	2,81	1,28	0,008*
Reasonableness	3,04	1,30	3,35	1,02	2,72	1,22	0,027*
Courteousness	3,05	1,27	3,33	1,03	2,80	1,15	0,055*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.3 clearly shows that the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,50$) see the traffic police in Transkei as being unfriendly. This negative evaluation is also shown by the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,19$). The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) seem also to be agreeing that the traffic police are not friendly in Transkei. The differences among these groups are significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) and foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) seem to have the same somewhat negative evaluation of the traffic police's helpfulness. The group that seem to differ from these two groups is the South African

languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,41$) which shows a more negative evaluation of this kind of traffic police conduct in Transkei. It is important to note that these differences are significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

With regard to the competence of the traffic police in Transkei, the only group that shows a more negative evaluation is once more the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,42$). The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,98$) seem to have a favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct. A more favourable evaluation is shown by the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,81$). The table shows significant differences among the languages groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

The South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,35$) seem to have a more negative evaluation of the reasonableness of the traffic police. The table also shows that the African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,04$) is not impressed by the conduct of the traffic police when it comes to reasonableness. The group that seem to have a favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct is the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,72$).

Courteousness seem to be lacking among the Transkei traffic officers according to the evaluation that has been made by the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,33$) which, is more negative compared to the other languages groups. The African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,05$) also view the courteousness of the traffic police in a negative manner. The group that shows a more favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct in this category is the foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,80$).

The general evaluation of the traffic police conduct is negative. This negative evaluation shows that there is a problem in the traffic police community relations in Transkei. This is more evident among foreign motorists. The absence of these most wanted characteristics when dealing with certain sectors

of the public may confirm the existence of differential treatment - a stereotype that may seriously encroach upon sound mutual relationships.

TABLE 6.4

**EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS
(N = 500)**

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Friendliness	3,15	1,27	3,01	1,35	3,23	1,29	3,20	1,27	2,81	
Helpfulness	2,96	1,35	3,01	1,33	3,22	1,26	3,24	1,30	2,62	1,24	0,199
Competence in performing duties	3,07	1,18	2,96	1,34	3,13	1,18	3,21	1,11	2,86	1,06	0,557
Reasonableness	3,00	1,31	3,05	1,27	3,11	1,25	3,29	1,25	2,67	1,11	0,434
Courteousness	2,96	1,30	3,09	1,21	3,11	1,27	3,37	1,22	2,52	1,03	0,126

Table 6.4 shows the evaluation of selected types of the traffic police conduct by various age groups. This table indicates that the age group that shows a more negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct with regard to friendliness is the 36 - 45 years group ($\bar{X} = 3,23$). The negative evaluation is also endorsed by the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,20$). Another negative evaluation in this table seem to have been made by the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,15$). Likewise, the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) also view the friendliness of the traffic police in a negative manner. The only group in this table that shows a more favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct is the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,81$). The differences between these groups are, however, not significant ($p \leq 0,05$).

This table further shows that the age group that seem to have a more negative evaluation of the helpfulness of the traffic police is the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). The negative evaluation is also confirmed by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,22$), as well as the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) who also have a negative evaluation of the helpfulness of the traffic police. The two groups that seem to have a more favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct are the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,62$) and the 18 - 26 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,96$).

The table also shows that the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,21$) has a more negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct regarding their competence when performing their duties. The 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) seem to share more or less the same view of traffic police incompetence in performing their duties. The negative evaluation is also shown by the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,07$). The groups that seem to have a favourable evaluation of the traffic police conduct are the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,86$) and the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,96$). The differences among the age groups are not significant ($p \geq 0,05$).

The only age group that seem to have a positive evaluation of the reasonableness of traffic police is the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,67$). The table further reveals that the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,29$) has a more negative evaluation of reasonableness of the traffic police. The negative assessment is also shown by the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,11$). The 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,05$) and the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) seem to share more or less the same negative view of the lack of reasonableness among the traffic police. The differences among the age groups are not significant.

With regard to the courteousness of the traffic police the age groups that seem to have a favourable view towards this conduct are the 56 and above years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,52$) and the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,96$). The 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,37$) seem to have a more negative view of the traffic police courteousness than any other age group in this table. The 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,11$) and the 26 - 35 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) also show a negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct. There are no significant differences among the groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

The general negative evaluation of traffic police conduct shown in this table is a cause for concern as it clearly indicates that there is a gap between the traffic police and the public they are serving, which may seriously hamper sound police-community relationships.

TABLE 6.5

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF CONTACT (N = 500)

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	DIRECT CONTACT n = 142		WHAT IS SEEN n = 105		WHAT PEOPLE SAY n = 75		WHEN THEY REGULATE n = 142		NEWSPAPER REPORTS n = 36		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Friendliness	3,13	1,31	3,24	1,28	3,00	1,36	3,10	1,27	2,72	1,37	0,317
Helpfulness	3,07	1,30	3,27	1,30	3,09	1,31	3,01	1,30	2,56	1,36	0,085
Competence in performing duties	2,90	1,31	3,22	1,22	3,08	1,24	3,06	1,16	2,86	1,38	0,313
Reasonableness	3,13	1,27	3,21	1,22	3,01	1,25	2,92	1,26	3,03	1,42	0,440
Courteousness	3,09	1,24	3,22	1,22	3,01	1,19	3,01	1,21	2,94	1,51	0,668

Table 6.5 shows the evaluation of the traffic police conduct by means of certain characteristics according to the type of contact. The first characteristic that is evaluated in this

table is friendliness of the traffic officers. The respondents who seem to have a more negative view in this regard, are those who have an experience of seeing them when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,24$). The next group of respondents that also seem to believe that they are not friendly, is the one that had a direct contact ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) with the traffic officers as a result of traffic offence(s). Another group that seem to have a negative view of the traffic police conduct is the one that has an experience of seeing them when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,10$). This table further shows that the only group of respondents that have a positive evaluation of the traffic police conduct is the group that depend on newspaper reports ($\bar{X} = 2,72$). These differences are insignificant.

The respondents who have observed traffic police when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,27$) have a negative evaluation of their helpfulness. Respondents who have been told about their behaviour ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) seem to believe that they are not helpful. The negative evaluation of the traffic police conduct with regard to helpfulness is also viewed negatively by the respondents who had a direct contact with traffic officers as a result of traffic offence ($\bar{X} = 3,07$). Respondents who have been told by other people about the behaviour of the traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) believe that traffic officers are not helpful. It is interesting to notice that even in this category the only group that has a positive evaluation of the traffic police conduct is the one that got the information about them from the newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,56$). No significant differences are observed among these groups.

The table further shows that competence of the traffic officers is viewed more negatively by respondents who have seen traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,22$). More or less the same negative evaluation is shown by respondents who have been told about the conduct of the traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,08$) and respondents who have seen

them when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 3,06$). Respondents who had a direct contact with the traffic officers as a result of a traffic offence ($\bar{X} = 2,90$) show a positive evaluation of the traffic police conduct. Again, respondents who read about the behaviour of the traffic officers in the newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,86$), have a positive evaluation of the conduct of traffic police in Transkei.

Reasonableness is evaluated more negatively by respondents who have seen the traffic officers when they were prosecuting other motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,21$). Those who had a direct contact with traffic officers as a result of traffic offence ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) believe that they are unreasonable. Another interesting revelation in this category is that even people who read newspapers ($\bar{X} = 3,03$) view reasonableness in a negative manner. Respondents who have been told by other people about the behaviour of the traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) show a negative evaluation of the traffic conduct. However, a more favourable evaluation is shown by respondents who have observed traffic officers when they regulate traffic ($\bar{X} = 2,92$). There are no significant differences between the contact groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

Courteousness is viewed in a positive manner only by respondents who read about the conduct of the traffic officers in the newspapers ($\bar{X} = 2,94$). Table 6.5 also indicates that the respondents who have watched traffic officers when they prosecute other motorists ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) have a more negative evaluation of the conduct of the traffic officers. Another negative view is shown by respondents who had direct contact with the traffic officers as a result of a traffic offence ($\bar{X} = 3,09$). Respondents who have been told about the behaviour of the traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) and respondents who have seen the traffic officers when they regulate the traffic flow ($\bar{X} = 3,01$) have a less negative evaluation. There are no significant differences between the contact groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

The general attitude that is shown by the respondents towards the conduct of the traffic officers is negative.

TABLE 6.6

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT ACCORDING TO THE TYPE OF INSTITUTION (N = 500)

TYPE OF CONDUCT (Abridged)	MUNICIPAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		BOTH MUNI- CIPAL AND PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC OFFICERS		F- Value
	n = 59		n = 73		n = 368		
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Friendliness	3,10	1,16	2,90	1,39	3,13	1,31	0,391
Helpfulness	3,22	1,33	2,70	1,39	3,09	1,28	0,017*
Competence in performing duties	3,17	1,16	2,78	1,11	3,07	1,28	0,139
Reasonableness	3,05	1,31	2,84	1,37	3,11	1,23	0,233
Courteousness	3,19	1,37	2,89	1,33	3,09	1,23	0,337

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.6 shows the evaluation of the traffic police conduct according to the type of institution. It is clear from this table that the respondents have a negative evaluation of the conduct of the traffic officers from both ($\bar{X} = 3,13$) institutions. The respondents also seem to have a negative evaluation of the traffic officers that are under the employment of the municipality ($\bar{X} = 3,10$). The table further shows that respondents have a positive evaluation of the provincial traffic police ($\bar{X} = 2,90$) as far as friendliness is concerned. The differences between the groups are not significant ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to the helpfulness of the traffic police the respondents seem to view the conduct of municipal traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 3,22$) in a negative manner. This negative evaluation is also shown by respondents towards officers of both ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) institutions. Respondents seem to have a positive evaluation of the conduct of the provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,70$). The differences are significant.

Further, this table shows that respondents regard the municipal traffic police ($\bar{X} = 3,17$) as somewhat incompetent because they have a negative evaluation of their conduct. When these institutions are both ($\bar{X} = 3,07$) evaluated, it seems that they receive a negative evaluation. It is also clear from this table that provincial traffic officers ($\bar{X} = 2,78$) received a positive evaluation from the respondents.

With regard to reasonableness, respondents seem to have a more negative evaluation of both ($\bar{X} = 3,11$) traffic institutions. The negative evaluation is also shown towards municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,05$) traffic officers. Provincial ($\bar{X} = 2,84$) traffic police seem to be getting a more positive evaluation from the respondents.

The table further shows that municipal ($\bar{X} = 3,19$) traffic officers are evaluated more negatively by the respondents as far as courteousness is concerned. The negative evaluation is also shown when both ($\bar{X} = 3,09$) are evaluated. It is interesting to note that even in courteousness, provincial ($\bar{X} = 2,89$) traffic officers are evaluated in a positive manner.

Traffic officers that seem to have received a negative evaluation from the respondents are municipal traffic officers. This means that the respondents believe that provincial traffic officers displayed a more favourable type of conduct than municipal traffic officers by means of certain characteristics that came to the fore in their contact with the driving public.

6.3 TRAFFIC POLICE ATTITUDES

There are complaints which the public makes against the traffic police that are justified. In the same way, there are objections of the traffic police to the attitude of the public that are also justified. These include complaints that the public -

- * do not appreciate the services rendered by the traffic police;
- * fail to understand the problems of the traffic police;
- * refuse to co-operate with the traffic police;
- * often complain about traffic police corruption, yet are willing to bribe traffic police officials if they can gain by doing so;
- * demand protection, but object to decisive activities;
- * do not understand the danger inherent in traffic policing;
- * make unsubstantiated complaints against traffic police;
- * are hostile and negative towards traffic police; and
- * show little respect for traffic police (Niederhoffer and Smith, 1974:38).

It is unavoidable that such attitudes may have some influence upon the traffic police. The question is not whether or not the traffic police are justified to do some stereotyping of their own, but what role such stereotyping plays in the performance of traffic police duties. When traffic police allow personal opinions to affect their duties, police-community relations will also be affected. A traffic police officer should under no circumstances allow his stereotyping to influence his official duties (Gabor and Low, 1973:404).

The nature of relationship is determined by the attitudes of the parties involved because the actions of each are determined by his or her own attitudes and influence the attitudes

and behaviour of the other. The public's attitude is to a great extent moulded and built by the traffic police as the representatives of the active side of the partnership. While traffic police play an important part in creating public attitudes, there are other influences in constant play, such as -

- * the press;
- * motion pictures; and
- * television, which exerts a powerful influence in moulding public opinion.

These may through misrepresentation, form a climate of feeling which is unfriendly and unfair. Strong personalities within the society, if not converted to the traffic police point of view, can also do much to destroy public confidence in the traffic police, to build resentment, and to prevent the formation of a desirable rapport between the traffic police and the public. The traffic police, however, can influence even these factors by proper attitudes (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:222-23).

Traffic police institutions are often described as paramilitary organisations which are very bureaucratic in character. A traffic police institution consists of a central control structure. There is one-way downward communication in the form of orders. There are rigid subordinate-superior relationships that are based on the prerogatives of rank characterised by an impersonal atmosphere. The defenders of the existence of this structure believe it is necessary to instil the unquestioning discipline which is necessary for rapid mobilisation during crisis situations.

The reasons for the existence of such a structure may be sound, but it can have many negative effects on both the internal and external environment, and these may internally af-

fect traffic police-public relations negatively. Within the institution, the para-military structure has the following shortcomings. It -

- * causes low morale and a feeling of helplessness manifest among the lower ranks;
- * gives an impression of arbitrary rule, since there is only one-way communication system;
- * promotes cynical attitudes in the lower ranks because they do not have access to the common rationale, and the orders are regarded as unrealistic when they reach the lower ranks;
- * creates a gap between the managers and line functionaries which causes the lower ranks to resort to cynicism (Van Heerden, 1986:144).

In such an environment it is very difficult to make changes because the rigid command system thwarts the flow of ideas, and as a result, all activities are initiated by orders. This makes junior members to depend heavily upon authority, in which everybody fears to take discretionary action. This situation explains the belief that traffic police officers have no desecration of their own (Sandler and Mintz, 1974:459).

The pyramidal shape of the military model was originally designed to accommodate a distribution of official discretion that gave those at the top the greatest and broadest decision-making authority and limited discretion at the lowest organisational levels. In the military, after all, the generals and their commanders-in-chief make all "the great decisions - should we go to war? How extensive should our commitment be? Will it be an air war, or shall we also commit ground troops? Meanwhile, soldiers are limited to doing and dying, rather than wondering why" (Skolnick and Fyfe, 1993:118).

A more democratic organisational structure similar to that characteristic of hospitals, universities, and law firms would be more appropriate for the traffic police. In such places, administration is by and large a ministerial function - making sure that enough personnel are available at any time, that they have the support they need to do their jobs, and that there is enough money on hand to keep the enterprise going.

Just like in traffic police departments, the decisions related to direct delivery of services in these organisations are made by those on the line. "Doctors, not administrators, decide whether to operate or to medicate; professors, not deans, decide whether students' work is passing or failing; trial lawyers, not managing partners, decide whether to advise clients should settle or go before juries; traffic police, not chiefs, decide whether and when to shoot (Skolnick and Fyfe, 1993:118).

The traffic police must always make a thorough assessment of their own viewpoint to be certain that it is a proper one. Their attitude will be influenced by their concept of the traffic police function - of their obligation to the public. All members of the traffic service must recognise that the people through their representatives, hire and pay traffic police officers and that, as it is with any other employment, there must exist a proper employer-employee relationship. The traffic police must also understand that the essence of a correct traffic police attitude is willingness to serve, but at the same time they should distinguish between service and servility and between courtesy and softness. They should also be firm but not rude. They should understand that the primary traffic police purpose is to prevent traffic violations, not to arrest people. They should also recognise the line demarcation between traffic police function and judiciary function (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:223).

TABLE 6.7
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N = 500)

TYPE OF ATTITUDE (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Public have little appreciation of traffic police duties	2,29	1,09	2,38	1,20	2,33	1,12	2,45	
Public is antagonistic towards traffic police	2,69	1,13	2,62	1,13	2,53	1,09	2,73	1,21	0,659
Public do not co-operate with traffic police	2,34	1,17	2,54	1,25	2,40	1,18	2,52	1,19	0,543
Public often attempt to bribe officers if that will benefit them	2,19	1,23	2,36	1,22	2,33	1,21	2,34	0,97	0,678
Public do show understanding of traffic officer's problems	2,58	1,15	2,82	1,19	2,95	1,13	3,12	1,01	0,008*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.7 reveal that all respondents show a negative evaluation of the traffic officers. The Std 9 and under group ($\bar{X} = 2,29$) seem to have more negative evaluation of the traffic police.

With regard to the public being antagonistic towards the traffic police, again all respondents show a negative evaluation. Respondents who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 2,53$) seem to show a more negative evaluation of the traffic police. There are no significant differences between these groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

Further, concerning the public which does not co-operate with the traffic police, again respondents show a negative evaluation of the traffic police. Respondents who possess Std 9 and under ($\bar{X} = 2,34$) seem to have a more negative evaluation than any other group.

About the public attempting to bribe traffic officers if they will benefit from that, respondents also show negative evaluation. Again the Std 9 and under ($\bar{X} = 2,19$) group have a more negative evaluation in this regard.

With regard to public showing understanding of traffic police officer's problems, most respondents from the groups in this table display a positive evaluation. The only group that seem to show negative evaluation is the group of respondents who possess degrees ($\bar{X} = 3,12$). There are significant differences between the groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

The general negative evaluation shown by respondents in this table is not encouraging. All respondents agree that they do not show appreciation of the traffic officer's duties. That they are antagonistic towards the traffic police. Further, that they do not co-operate with the traffic police. It is also interesting that respondents agree that they do attempt to bribe the traffic police if they can benefit from it. That they do show understanding of the traffic police problems is a good indication that they can be encouraged to work with traffic police.

TABLE 6.8

EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS
(N = 500)

ATTITUDE (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Public have little appreciation of traffic police duties	2,27	1,16	2,40	1,17	2,38	1,13	2,32	1,37	2,57	1,29	0,862
Public is antagonistic towards traffic police	2,34	1,05	2,60	1,10	2,86	1,21	2,51	1,25	3,00	1,05	0,013*
Public do not cooperate with traffic police	2,24	1,16	2,42	1,17	2,65	1,24	2,46	1,27	2,86	1,39	0,093
Public often attempt to bribe off officers if that will benefit them	2,03	1,06	2,31	1,19	2,40	1,17	2,30	1,12	2,95	1,07	0,026*
Public do show understanding of traffic officer's problems	2,88	1,29	2,82	1,14	2,92	1,05	3,00	1,24	2,81	1,12	0,867

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 6.8 reveal that the response-pattern in this table is basically similar to that in table 6.7. As is the case in that table, all respondents seem to have a negative evaluation of the traffic police. The 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,27$) seem to evaluate traffic police officers more negatively than other groups regarding little appreciation for their services. There are no significant differences between the groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

Concerning public antagonism towards the traffic police, the table reveals that the only age group that shows a somewhat positive evaluation, is the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} =$

3,00). All other age groups show negative evaluation of the traffic police. The age group that has a more negative evaluation is the 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,34$). There are significant differences between the groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

Further, concerning the public, co-operation with the traffic police, the data in this table reveal that the response-pattern in this table is more or less similar to that in table 6.7. And also, as is the case in that table, all respondents show negative evaluation of the traffic police. There are no significant differences between the age groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to the public often attempting to bribe traffic police if that would benefit them, respondents again display negative evaluation. The 18 - 25 years age group ($\bar{X} = 2,03$) seem to show negative evaluation of the traffic police. There are significant differences between the age groups ($p \leq 0,05$).

With regard to the public showing understanding of the traffic officer's problems, only the 46 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 3,00$) seem to show less positive evaluation. Otherwise, all other age groups show a positive evaluation. There are significant differences between the age groups ($p \geq 0,05$). The general positive evaluation by the respondents in this table is also encouraging.

TABLE 6.9
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE ATTITUDES ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE
GROUPS (N = 500)

ATTITUDE (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICA LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Public have little appreciation of traffic police duties	2,38	1,21	2,40	1,13	2,30	0,96	0,908
Public is antagonistic towards traffic police	2,64	1,16	2,60	1,10	2,72	1,08	0,862
Public do not co-operate with traffic police	2,48	1,21	2,49	1,25	2,44	1,14	0,978
Public often attempt to bribe officers if that will benefit them	2,29	1,21	2,36	1,02	2,58	1,01	0,280
Public do show understanding of traffic officer's problems	2,84	1,16	3,01	1,11	2,86	1,06	0,484

The data in table 6.9 reveal that the response-pattern in this table is almost similar to that in table 6.7 and 6.8. As is the case in those tables, all respondents in this table show a negative evaluation of the traffic officers. Foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,30$) seem to show a more negative evaluation than the other two groups. There are no significant differences between the language groups ($p \geq 0,05$) in this regard.

With regard to the antagonism of the public towards the traffic police, all respondents show negative evaluation of this statement. South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,60$) seems to show a more negative evaluation than other language groups.

Concerning the failure of the public to co-operate with the traffic police, all respondents seem to show a negative evaluation. The foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,44$) seems to show the more negative evaluation in this regard.

Further, concerning the public often attempting to bribe traffic officers if that can benefit them, all respondents seem to show negative evaluation. It is clearly shown in this table that African languages group ($\bar{X} = 2,29$) show a more negative evaluation than all the other languages groups. There are no significant differences between the language groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

Showing understanding of the traffic police problems, most respondents show positive evaluation. The only group that seem to display a somewhat negative evaluation, is the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 3,01$). However, there are no significant differences between the language groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

The general evaluation by the respondents from various language groups is negative. The acceptance of the negative statements contained in this table, is discouraging and detrimental to better relationships between both partners.

TABLE 6.10
EVALUATION OF TRAFFIC POLICE ATTITUDE ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

ATTITUDE (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Public have little appreciation of traffic police duties	2,38	1,18	2,36	1,18	0,919
Public is antagonistic towards traffic police	2,69	1,13	2,57	1,16	0,636
Public do not co-operate with traffic police	2,46	1,21	2,50	1,21	0,918
Public often attempt to bribe officers if that will benefit them	2,30	1,34	2,37	1,21	0,304
Public do show understanding of traffic officer's problems	2,90	1,17	2,81	1,09	0,282

The data in table 6.10 reveal that both male ($\bar{X} = 2,38$) and female respondents show negative evaluation of the traffic police. There are no significant differences between the two groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

With regard to public antagonism towards the traffic police, respondents of both sexes again seem to show negative evaluation towards the traffic police. There are no significant differences between the two groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

The respondents seem to follow the same trend of negative evaluation even when they evaluate the failure of the public to co-operate with the police. Male respondents ($\bar{X} = 2,46$) seem to show more negative evaluation than their female ($\bar{X} = 2,50$) counterparts.

Concerning the public often attempting to bribe traffic officers if that will benefit them, respondents of both sexes seem to have a negative evaluation. There are no significant differences between the two groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

Further, concerning the public showing understanding of the problems encountered by traffic officers, respondents show positive evaluation. Again there are no significant differences between the two groups ($p \geq 0,05$).

The general evaluation by the respondents in this table is negative. Respondents seem to agree that the public are antagonistic towards the traffic police. That they have no appreciation of the traffic police duties and that they do not co-operate with the traffic police. Further, that they do attempt to bribe the traffic police if that will benefit them, and that they do show understanding of the traffic police problems.

6.4 PROBLEM SOLVING

6.4.1 Improving traffic police-community relations

The breakdown of communication between the traffic police and the public has forced traffic institutions in modern times to place more emphasis than ever on community relations. This problem was originally created by the growth in population, as well as the increase in the crime incidence and the shortage of manpower, which forced the traffic institutions to remove the institution's best communicator, the patrolman and placed him in other duties. To replace the patrolman, attempts were made to increase public relations efforts. However, these new efforts failed to replace the patrolman because they were devoted to advertising the traffic police and enhancing their image thereby causing a one-way communication. Public relations proved to be inadequate because under normal circumstances communication is a two-way process (Caldwell, 1972:132).

Consequently, during the past decades of traffic policing, the community has become separated from the traffic police. Traffic police are expected by society and by members of their own profession to communicate with the public and serve. Such a separation often creates an aura of mystique concerning the traffic police profession from the society's viewpoint and a cautious attitude of traffic police officers towards society. This separation of traffic police and the community may have been the result of technological innovations or the historically political and corruptive influences concerning the traffic police role, or changing social values and structures. Whatever reason one may think of, the fact remains that traffic officers are at times, not only obliged to combating the traffic criminal element in a community, but, in a sense, to protect the community as well (Miller and Braswell, 1988:1).

Community relations refers to the reciprocal attitudes of traffic police and the public. It is the sum total of activities by which it may be emphasised that the traffic police are an important part of - not apart from - the community they serve. It is an emphasis for all phases of traffic police work, not merely for a specialised unit in the department. It is a method of a traffic police officer to view his work in dealing with citizens. For citizens it is a way of viewing the traffic police officer: what he does and how he does it. Ideally, it is a matter of struggling to achieve mutual understanding and trust, as with any human relationship. All problems in traffic police work today are in some sense problems of traffic police-community relations. To solve such problems, community traffic police co-operation must be in operation. Improving community relations includes not only instituting programmes and changing procedures and practices, but the re-examination of fundamental attitudes. The traffic police must learn to listen patiently and understandingly to people who are often critical of them or even hostile sometimes towards them, since those people are precisely the ones

with whom relations have to be improved. Police-citizen relationships on the street should become person-to-person encounters rather than the "black-versus-white, oppressed-versus-oppressor, confrontation they too often are" (Radelet, 1986:26).

The traffic police and the rest of the community are more dependent on each other than either is consciously aware. There could be no traffic order, no community life, no individual security without an institution assigned the responsibility to enforce traffic law and maintain traffic order. The people need the traffic police. They need a well-trained, as dedicated a traffic police institutions can be established. The life of any society depends on it. The traffic police need people too. They cannot provide the community with the protection and service it demands and deserves without willing citizens co-operation (McEvoy, 1976:29-34).

TABLE 6.11
EVALUATION OF ATTITUDES OF THE RESPONDENTS TOWARDS PROBLEM-
SOLVING EFFORTS ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

EFFORTS (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Educating the public	1,41	0,72	1,50	0,71	0,928
Better communication with public	1,50	0,69	1,48	0,58	0,008*
Educating the youth	1,44	0,76	1,46	0,67	0,066
A more professional rendering of service	1,60	0,73	1,54	0,66	0,094
Regular street patrols	1,62	0,82	1,45	0,68	0,005*
Sympathetic treatment of everybody	2,09	1,16	2,07	1,14	0,733
More publicity (TV, radio)	1,84	1,05	1,70	0,84	0,000*
Academic training of officers	2,65	1,37	2,41	1,26	0,204
Training officers in human relations	1,66	0,80	1,69	0,82	0,749
Intensive departmental in-service training	1,61	0,77	1,56	0,67	0,038*
Improving social status of traffic officers	2,08	1,07	1,96	0,92	0,026*
Just execution of power and authority	2,00	1,51	1,84	0,87	0,000*
Intensive selection of officers	1,85	0,97	1,83	0,88	0,123
Eliminating hazards on streets	1,62	0,92	1,53	0,65	0,000*

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.11 reveals that respondents of both sexes show more positive evaluation of all efforts of solving traffic problems.

Regarding the education of the public with regard to traffic-related issues, respondents of both sexes show an outstanding support for this effort. Male respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,41$) show a more positive evaluation than their female ($\bar{X} = 1,50$) counter-

parts. About better communication with the public, female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,48$) show a more favourable evaluation than male ($\bar{X} = 1,50$) respondents. Further, concerning educating the youth, male ($\bar{X} = 1,44$) respondents show a more positive evaluation than female ($\bar{X} = 1,46$) respondents.

Significant differences between sexes are observable with regard to the following -

- * better communication with the public ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * regular street patrols to prevent accidents ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * more publicity (TV, radio, newspapers) regarding traffic problems ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * intensive departmental in-service training of traffic officers ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * improving the social status of traffic officers ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * just execution of power and authority ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * eliminating hazards on streets (e.g. vehicles obstructing traffic flow) ($p \leq 0,05$).

The overall evaluation by respondents in this table is positive. Respondents seem to be expressing a clear message that the efforts that are tabulated in this table need to be put into operation.

TABLE 6.12
EVALUATION OF ATTITUDES OF THE RESPONDENTS TOWARDS PROBLEM-
SOLVING EFFORTS ACCORDING TO EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS (N =
500)

EFFORTS (Abridged)	STD 9 AND UNDER n = 86		STD 10 n = 222		DIPLOMA n = 73		DEGREE n = 119		F-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Educating the public	1,63	0,78	1,40	0,70	1,40	0,72	1,42	0,67	0,068
Better communication with public	1,72	0,79	1,48	0,62	1,42	0,58	1,39	0,60	0,002*
Educating the youth	1,58	0,83	1,45	0,77	1,36	0,63	1,39	0,60	0,177
A more professional ren- dering of service	1,65	0,75	1,55	0,70	1,64	0,67	1,54	0,70	0,532
Regular street patrols	1,55	0,75	1,54	0,76	1,58	0,83	1,59	0,79	0,950
Sympathetic treatment of everybody	1,97	1,07	2,08	1,16	2,26	1,26	2,07	1,13	0,449
More publicity (TV, radio)	1,93	1,08	1,80	0,99	1,79	0,91	1,64	0,91	0,200
Academic training of officers	2,49	1,31	2,61	1,36	2,70	1,28	2,43	1,34	0,481
Training officers in human relations	1,86	0,80	1,66	0,83	1,64	0,82	1,57	0,75	0,084
Intensive departmental in-service training	1,65	0,66	1,60	0,73	1,59	0,70	1,52	0,80	0,632
Improving social status of traffic officers	1,93	0,99	1,96	0,96	2,12	1,13	2,18	1,06	0,164
Just execution of power and authority	2,02	0,97	1,94	0,94	1,95	1,09	1,88	2,04	0,901
Intensive selection of officers	2,07	1,02	1,89	0,94	1,78	0,93	1,62	0,82	0,005*
Eliminating hazards on streets	1,64	0,81	1,63	0,86	1,55	0,88	1,48	0,76	0,372

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data contained in table 6.12 reveal that the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 6.11. As is the case in that table, all respondents show a positive evaluation of the efforts that have been selected to solve the traffic problem.

It is important to mention some responses that are outstanding in this table. Respondents who possess Std 10 ($\bar{X} = 1,40$) and those who possess diplomas ($\bar{X} = 1,40$), seem to show more positive evaluation of the education of the public with regard to traffic-related issues. Also, regarding better communication with the public, respondents with degrees ($\bar{X} = 1,39$) show more positive evaluation of this effort than other groups. Further, concerning the education of the youth in respect of traffic-related issues and problems, respondents with diplomas ($\bar{X} = 1,36$) and those who possess degrees ($\bar{X} = 1,39$) seem to show more positive evaluation than other groups.

There are significant differences between the groups with regard to -

- * better communication with the public ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * intensive selection of traffic officers on enrolment ($p \leq 0,05$).

All the efforts that are listed in this table seem to have been evaluated positively by all the respondents.

TABLE 6.13
EVALUATION OF ATTITUDES OF THE RESPONDENTS TOWARDS PROBLEM-
SOLVING EFFORTS ACCORDING TO AGE GROUPS (N = 500)

EFFORTS (Abridged)	18 - 25 Years n = 67		26 - 35 Years n = 235		36 - 45 Years n = 136		46 - 55 Years n = 41		56 + Years n = 21		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Educating the public	1,60	0,95	1,46	0,66	1,32	0,60	1,44	0,74	1,62	0,92	0,067
Better communication with public	1,51	0,64	1,51	0,68	1,51	0,66	1,44	0,55	1,33	0,48	0,783
Educating the youth	1,55	0,91	1,50	0,77	1,34	0,55	1,41	0,74	1,29	0,46	0,151
A more professional rendering of service	1,81	0,87	1,56	0,72	1,54	0,61	1,51	0,51	1,52	0,75	0,085
Regular street patrols	1,58	0,70	1,57	0,83	1,53	0,76	1,51	0,64	1,57	0,68	0,972
Sympathetic treatment of everybody	2,09	1,14	2,17	1,23	1,99	1,05	2,02	1,08	1,86	1,11	0,564
More publicity (TV, radio)	1,99	1,20	1,76	0,88	1,73	1,01	1,80	0,98	1,71	0,96	0,474
Academic training of officers	2,55	1,31	2,57	1,33	2,41	1,35	2,93	1,31	2,71	1,42	0,283
Training officers in human relations	2,03	1,13	1,68	0,81	1,54	0,64	1,59	0,59	1,48	0,51	0,000*
Intensive departmental in-service training	1,58	0,65	1,73	0,86	1,43	0,50	1,39	0,49	1,48	0,81	0,000*
Improving social status of traffic officers	1,94	1,06	2,02	0,98	2,01	1,06	2,32	0,96	2,10	1,14	0,416
Just execution of power and authority	2,07	0,97	1,94	0,97	1,82	0,94	2,27	3,26	1,62	0,86	0,216
Intensive selection of officers	2,04	1,02	1,86	0,96	1,76	0,88	1,78	0,96	1,57	0,60	0,176
Eliminating hazards on streets	1,70	1,02	1,60	0,87	1,58	0,75	1,46	0,64	1,29	0,46	0,286

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 6.13 reveal that the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 6.11 and 6.12. As is the case in those tables, there are positive evaluations of all efforts listed in this table.

There are age groups in this table that show an extremely positive evaluation of certain efforts. Regarding education of the public with regard to traffic-related issues, the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,32$) seems to show a more positive evaluation than the other age groups. Concerning better communication with the public, the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 1,33$) shows a more positive evaluation of this effort than other age groups. With regard to the education of the youth in respect of traffic-related issues and problems, the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 1,29$) and the 36 - 45 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,34$) show a more positive evaluation than other age groups regarding this effort. Further, concerning intensive in-service training, of traffic officers the 45 - 55 years age group ($\bar{X} = 1,39$) show more positive evaluation of this effort. Regarding the elimination of hazards on streets, the 56 years and above age group ($\bar{X} = 1,29$) shows a more positive evaluation than other age groups.

Significant differences are observable with regard to the following -

- * training of traffic officers in sound human relations ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * intensive departmental in-service training of traffic officers ($p \leq 0,05$).

All respondents in this table show support for these efforts.

TABLE 6.14:
EVALUATION OF ATTITUDES OF THE RESPONDENTS TOWARDS PROBLEM-
SOLVING EFFORTS ACCORDING TO LANGUAGE GROUPS (N = 500)

EFFORTS (Abridged)	AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 379		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES n = 78		FOREIGN LANGUAGES n = 43		F- Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Educating the public	1,44	0,74	1,49	0,70	1,42	0,54	0,823
Better communication with public	1,48	0,65	1,54	0,60	1,53	0,77	0,703
Educating the youth	1,46	0,78	1,35	0,51	1,53	0,59	0,334
A more professional rendering of service	1,55	0,70	1,59	0,59	1,79	0,86	0,112
Regular street patrols	1,54	0,77	1,58	0,66	1,70	0,94	0,427
Sympathetic treatment of everybody	2,11	1,17	1,97	1,02	2,05	1,19	0,620
More publicity (TV, radio)	1,75	0,98	1,96	0,97	1,74	0,98	0,217
Academic training of officers	2,49	1,34	2,97	1,33	2,44	1,20	0,010*
Training officers in human relations	1,70	0,84	1,59	0,69	1,60	0,76	0,483
Intensive departmental in-service training	1,60	0,73	1,49	0,72	1,70	0,83	0,285
Improving social status of traffic officers	1,96	0,98	2,35	1,05	2,16	1,21	0,005*
Just execution of power and authority	1,97	1,40	1,81	0,97	1,91	0,92	0,596
Intensive selection of officers	1,89	0,95	1,58	0,75	1,91	1,04	0,025*
Eliminating hazards on streets	1,62	0,87	1,44	0,59	1,56	0,80	0,208

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 6.14 also reveal that the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 6.11 to 6.13. As is the case in those tables, all respondents in this table have positive evaluations of the selected efforts.

With regard to the education of the public regarding traffic-related issues, African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,44$) and foreign languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,42$) show a more positive evaluation. Also, with regard to the education of the youth, the South African languages group ($\bar{X} = 1,35$) strongly supports this effort.

Significant differences between the languages groups are also observable with regard to the following efforts -

- * academic training of traffic officers (i.e. obtaining a University degree) ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * improving the social status of traffic officers ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * intensive selection of traffic officers on enrolment ($p \leq 0,05$).

The overall evaluation of the selected efforts to solve the traffic problem is positive. Respondents seem to believe that these efforts are absolutely necessary.

6.4.2 Manpower

No traffic institution can be able to maintain traffic order without a reasonable number of traffic officers. Relations cannot be established between traffic police and the community if, when the community needs them, they are not available. The most realistic argument in favour of increasing traffic police manpower is not to ensure that the streets are safer, but rather that the traffic police might have adequate time to create the kind of curbstone relationships which are necessary to effective traffic police-citizen interaction. More traffic policemen are needed not because their mere presence insures security, but because adequate staffing would provide time for officers to create the necessary community relationship to stimulate essential citizen involvement (McEvoy, 1976:30).

A traffic institution should at least have manpower to provide the following -

- * the supervision of the junior traffic patrol officers;
- * the traffic-engineering staff, which makes studies of high accident locations, traffic flow and movement, and other factors;
- * full-time officers or civilians posted to the enforcement of time-limit parking regulations and to crosswalk and intersection duties, although such officers may be assigned to the patrol division when necessary to ensure continuous supervision;
- * a small traffic squad which can be used for escorts, speed checks and other problems requiring intensive or complicated coverage; and
- * one or more officers to serve as aides to the head of the division in checking on the performance of street officers having traffic assignments and checking signs, signals and markings in need of maintenance service (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:436-37).

6.4.3 Informing the public

Failures of traffic police institutions are often traceable to a lack of public support emanating from some misconceptions on the part of the public with regard to traffic police purposes and methods. Resentment and mistrust change to friendliness and respect on closer public acquaintance with the traffic police. It is the duty of the head of the traffic institution to ensure that the public is informed of traffic police activities, the problems that are faced by the department and how the department intend to solve these problems and more important, why a particular solution is being used. To achieve this, the institution must have a liaison officer to keep the public informed (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:225).

The functions of the liaison officer should be to -

- * evaluate public opinions and attitudes with regard to policies, methods, and personnel of the department;
- * advise the head of the institution with regard to the public relations aspects of new or revised department programmes, policies, procedures and activities;
- * create programmes that will be used to keep the public informed of traffic police activities;
- * assist in crime resistance and safety education;
- * advise the department on the modification of processes that may result in hostile attitudes.

6.4.4 Traffic police and the press

The press, because of its influence on public opinion, can assist in improving the quality of traffic police service by pointing out the need for improved personnel, for better equipment and for adequate manpower. Good relations with the press can also afford traffic police many other advantages. The traffic department can use newspapers for communicating departmental activities to the public and for disseminating information with regard to programmes and procedures. A favourable press report can invite public support in crime and traffic control problems; it can also assist in influencing the public regarding the nature and the purpose of new regulations and in educating the public in procedures designed to eliminate opportunities for traffic criminal acts and accidents. The traffic police should welcome honest criticism based on facts when such criticism is constructively designed to improve their image. However, the press should not criticise without having all the facts, and its criticism should not be aimed at particular officers, but should be constructive in aiming at improving procedures and policies (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:228).

6.4.5 Community-relations unit

In large traffic police institutions a community-relations unit is necessary. This unit will be responsible for -

- * acting as liaison with formal community organisations;
- * creating a working relationship with other organisations in the community that are involved in community relations work;
- * developing community relations programmes for the whole institution;
- * publicising traffic police aims, objectives, goals, problems and achievements;
- * acting as a link for the information coming from the community organisations to the traffic police institutions;
- * suggesting improvements in activities by traffic police which may affect traffic police-community relations; and
- * identifying training requirements through interviews with citizenry and communicating with international investigations unit (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:240).

6.4.6 Selected possible traffic hazards

There are various hazards that can cause serious fatal accidents on the roads. The views of the respondents have been tested with regard to those that appear in the tables below.

TABLE 6.15

EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS SELECTED POSSIBLE TRAF-
FIC HAZARDS ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)

TYPE OF HAZARD (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Overloaded vehicles	1,41	0,69	1,33	0,51	0,000*
Stray animals	1,29	0,66	1,24	0,44	0,000*
Unroadworthy vehicles	1,43	0,67	1,38	0,61	0,157
Travelling too slowly	2,71	1,32	2,70	1,32	0,298
Double parking	2,07	1,03	2,03	0,92	0,085
Poor pedestrian behaviour	1,77	0,89	1,69	0,74	0,004*
Failing to indicate	1,44	0,67	1,40	0,57	0,012*
Vehicle that follow too slowly	1,62	0,78	1,56	0,70	0,129

* $p \leq 0,05$

Table 6.15 reveals that female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,33$) regard overloaded vehicles to be more dangerous than their male ($\bar{X} = 1,41$) counterparts.

Regarding stray animals, female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,24$) once again seem to believe that they are a dangerous hazard on our streets and roads. Also, with regard to unroadworthy vehicles, female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,38$) regard them as dangerous hazards.

Significant differences between the groups are observable with regard to -

- * overloaded vehicles ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * poor pedestrian behaviour ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * stray animals ($p \leq 0,05$); and

* failing to indicate ($p \leq 0,05$).

The data in this table reveals that both male and female respondents regard all the listed hazards as very dangerous to dangerous. This means that traffic police need to enforce traffic laws and regulations more efficiently with regard to such hazards.

TABLE 6.16

**EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS SELECTED POSSIBLE TRAF-
FIC HAZARDS ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)**

TYPE OF HAZARD (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Driving under the influence of liquor of liquor	1,17	0,55	1,16	0,49	0,082
Inconsiderate driving	1,57	0,81	1,45	0,66	0,002*
Excessive speeding	1,38	0,70	1,22	0,50	0,000*
Improper driving	1,60	0,85	1,60	0,67	0,000*
Reckless driving	1,37	0,68	1,37	0,63	0,197

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 6.16 reveal that the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in table 6.15. As is the case in that table, all respondents regard the selected possible hazards as dangerous.

However, some responses in this table are worthy to be highlighted. Both female ($\bar{X} = 1,16$) and male ($\bar{X} = 1,17$) respondents believe that driving under the influence of liquor is very dangerous. Further, that both female ($\bar{X} = 1,22$) and male respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,22$) regard excessive speeding as being very dangerous.

Significant differences between the groups are observable with regard to -

- * inconsiderate (selfishness of drivers towards other road users) driving ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * excessive speeding of motorists ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * improper driving ($p \leq 0,05$).

Respondents in this table seem to view these possible hazards in serious light, given the low (positive) mean scores.

TABLE 6.17

**EVALUATION OF PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS SELECTED POSSIBLE TRAF-
FIC HAZARDS ACCORDING TO GENDER (N = 500)**

TYPE OF HAZARD (Abridged)	MALE n = 311		FEMALE n = 189		t-Value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
	Inadequate road signs	1,50	0,81	1,43	
Unclear road signs	1,63	0,85	1,48	0,66	0,000*
Bad road conditions	1,67	0,87	1,61	0,66	0,000*
Ineffective law enforcement	1,95	0,92	1,87	0,77	0,006*
Overtaking on solid lines	1,49	0,71	1,49	0,71	0,938

* $p \leq 0,05$

The data in table 6.17 clearly indicate that the response-pattern in this table is similar to that in tables 6.15 and 6.16. And as is the case in those tables, all respondents regard the listed possible hazards as dangerous to very dangerous.

Some important observations in this table are nevertheless worth mentioning. Female respondents ($\bar{X} = 1,43$) seem to regard inadequate roads signs to be very dangerous. Overtaking on solid lines seem to be regarded as very dangerous by both male ($\bar{X} = 1,49$) and female ($\bar{X} = 1,49$) respondents.

The table also reveals significant differences between the groups with regard to -

- * inadequate road signs ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * unclear road signs ($p \leq 0,05$);
- * bad road conditions (pot-holes) ($p \leq 0,05$); and
- * ineffective enforcement of the traffic laws ($p \leq 0,05$).

All respondents regard these possible hazards as very dangerous. Traffic officers need to enforce traffic laws more efficiently to prevent accidents. From the data contained in table 6.17, it seems inevitable that careful engineering studies are necessary to upgrade physical constructs such as road signs, bad road conditions, etc. in Transkei. This is the primary concern of the traffic engineer who plays a strategic role when designing and planning highways, streets and roads.

6.5 TRAFFIC SAFETY

6.5.1 Public attitude

Statistics show that the human factor - the tendency of drivers and pedestrians to take unnecessary risks, coupled with "inattention" as a result of emotional pressures is the cause of the large number of automobile accidents. Road, vehicle, pedestrian and physical defects of motorists and lack of driver and pedestrian skill are also contributory factors to some accidents. However, the majority of accidents occur, when there is no fault in the driver, equipment, or roadway, and they involve the skilled rather than the unskilled driver.

The main contributory factor to these accidents is the attitude, which also aggravates traffic jams and congestion (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:441).

6.5.2 Driver attitude

Wilson and McLaren (1977:441) define an attitude as " ... the state of mind that influences conduct for good or bad". An improper attitude influences a person to commit violations in the traffic situation that represent bad driving manners; the motorist will finally be involved in an accident. An improper driving attitude is responsible for over 80 percent of all accidents because it is an overlapping cause. A crippled driver with a proper attitude can drive a defective vehicle through hazardous areas without causing a single accident. He may be a more successful driver than a normal driver who has a bad driving attitude. If the great majority of accidents is caused by selfish attitudes which makes the drivers to disregard the safety and convenience of others, then the traffic police should direct their efforts towards correcting the unfavourable attitudes of drivers. News releases, television and radio announcements can play an important role in influencing drivers with bad driving attitudes into good drivers. It should also be noted that there are other factors that contribute to accidents like driving under the influence of alcohol and overloaded vehicles (Wilson and McLaren, 1977:441). Annexure C, for instance, renders a complete statistical breakdown of the number of collisions and injuries on South African roads. Similarly Annexure D reflects the number of accidents for the period January 1991 till January 1994.

6.6 HANDLING OF PATROL VEHICLES BY TRAFFIC POLICE

6.6.1 Defensive driving

Traffic safety can be realised if the motorists can be well motivated to have good driving attitudes and be trained in defensive driving. Defensive driving can be seen as a global philosophy of driving safety. The effectiveness of this technique is questionable when the number of traffic accidents in which patrol cars are involved is considered. Patrolmen should know how drivers behave in different driving situations as well as knowing what happens to people when they take the wheel of a vehicle. To be safe drivers of patrol cars and to be able to interpret the improper attitudes of drivers, it is necessary that patrolmen should have some systematic approach to different drivers (Auten, 1989:23).

Various people have tried to find out why motorists behave in certain ways when they are driving. Auten (1989:25), for instance, believes that the most acceptable explanation is the "life-style theory of driving". A person's way of life, behaviour and life style remains the same behind the wheel of a vehicle as it is outside the traffic situation. If the motorist, for example, has a high risk of living in everyday life, his behaviour will be the same when he is driving. Driver's characteristics are usually well developed by the time they get a driver's licence. It should, therefore, be accepted that different driving styles would be connected to specific personality types. There are four kinds of driving styles :

- * Egoists: These are people who are mainly interested in their own interests, activities and needs and who are not interested in the society. In the traffic situation an egoist is a person who, for example, sees a highway as private property and regards other road users as intruders who are trespassing. Egoists resent other road users and often demonstrate this in a way they drive

their vehicles. The driving and behavioural symptoms of egoists include aggression, impatience, immaturity, and pride.

- * Overemotional people: The driving behaviour of these people is similar to that of egoists. Impatience and aggressiveness are some of the characteristics of these people with immaturity being the dominant characteristic. Unlike egoists, they are unable to keep their feelings to themselves and react accordingly in a traffic situation. They enjoy criticising the behaviour of other motorists.

- * Rationalisers: This is a person who tries to ascribe his activities to credible motives. They always pretend that they have never been involved in accidents, and if they happen to be involved in one they always blame somebody else to be the cause of the accident. They always shift the blame to other people and this makes them dangerous to other road users.

- * Show offs: A motorist who shows off is the one taking risks that are beyond imagination. He does not even consider what the consequences of his driving style may be. He regards himself or herself as someone who knows all that needs to be known by a driver. He does not accept advice or lessons from other people, particularly those in authority. This person considers any incident in the traffic situation as a challenge to his driving skills and status (Auten, 1989:26-33).

It is essential for patrolmen to be good drivers of motor vehicles and they should be able to identify these characteristics in other drivers, to anticipate them and take necessary action in good time to prevent accidents. The driver of a patrol vehicle should have the following qualities -

- * excellent driving skills;

- * a high degree of self-control;
- * have the ability to use such driving skills effectively in certain traffic situations;
- * be emotionally matured; and
- * be able to make decisions on his/her own and be prepared to bear the consequences of such decisions (Auten, 1989:33-36).

6.6.2 Emergency calls

Emergencies are situations where a quick reaction by patrol officers can reduce the continuation of the threat. Drivers of patrol cars should decide whether a case is an emergency or not after considering all the facts at their disposal. Before he/she can react to an emergency call a patrolman should take the following into consideration :-

- * the institutional definition of an emergency;
- * whether the incidence, taking all the information at his disposal into consideration, is a life threatening emergency;
- * whether the car could reach the scene in time to reduce the so-called threat;
- * whether at the time of the arrival of the patrolman the criminal will still be at the scene of crime;
- * institutional procedures of driving vehicles during emergencies (if any);
- * weather conditions, condition of the road, traffic density at the time and the distance to the crime scene;
- * whether the emergency involves a threat to life and property like in the case of fire;
- * whether other emergency units have been informed and how many;
- * whether it would be necessary to facilitate free movement for other emergency vehicle; and
- * whether instant application of first and other medical assistance could save lives (Auten, 1989:67-68).

6.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter the researcher discussed traffic police conduct. Traffic police conduct is very important. It is natural that a human being will refuse to help someone who does not respect him. Traffic police therefore, need to display a high degree of respect for the community.

Table 6.1 clearly shows that the conduct of the traffic police in Transkei fails to meet the expectations of the community. More or less the same response-pattern is shown in tables 6.2 - 6.6 in all these tables the evaluation of traffic police conduct is negative.

However, problem-solving efforts seem to have received overwhelming support of the respondents.

The establishment of partnerships between the traffic police and the public is the responsibility of both the passive and the active partners in traffic policing. The promotion of good relations between the traffic police and the community forms part of all traffic police activities and all administrative processes like personnel selection, training, the division of labour, staff promotions, policy planning, discipline, morale, the handling of complaints and the provision of services (Becker, 1970:117).

Better communication with the public is necessary if the question of direct partnership, i.e. the belief that traffic policing is a function of the society as a whole and that co-operation is indispensable - is to get the emphasis it requires. Open acceptance of mistakes that may cause certain attitudes and which can disturb relations is a necessary first step in the direction of an improved understanding on mutual

problems. The traffic police image cannot be improved if some attitudes that have an adverse effect upon it are allowed to continue (Brandstatter and Radelet, 1968:253).

CHAPTER 7

TENABILITY OF ASSUMPTIONS, KEY FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

This investigation has as its primary aim the establishment of the image of traffic policing in Transkei with specific emphasis on the role of traffic policing. The determination of the image of traffic policing directly relates to problem-identification and problem-solving, because virtually everybody in society (e.g. school pupils, university students, pedestrians, motor vehicle drivers, etc.) are to some degree involved in the process of traffic control with the objective of enhancing traffic security and traffic order (Van Heerden, *et al.* 1983:217). The image of traffic policing in Transkei discloses certain problem areas.

Traffic safety is too often only associated with injuries and loss of human life as a result of motor accidents. Safety, also traffic safety, is closely linked to the notion of individual freedom. Civil liberty refers to a set of individual immunities, which are based on a promise to uphold freedom and to ensure peace of mind through the elimination of fears. In order to meet these demands of civil liberty, any government must implement certain constraints to ensure that civil liberty in society is upheld (Van Heerden, 1986:61).

7.2 TENABILITY OF ASSUMPTIONS

The tenability of the assumptions formulated for this research is discussed below. The findings in this regard are based on the results of the F-test, t-test and Chi-square test.

7.2.1 Assumption 1

Males and females differ significantly in as far as the following are concerned :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of the traffic police officers;
- * importance of traffic police service, social status, and partiality of the traffic police;
- * conduct of the traffic police officers; and
- * possible traffic hazards.

The empirical data reflect the following in this regard :

7.2.1.1 Attitudes towards traffic legislation

Régarding seat-belts not being able to ensure safety of motorists, conducting of speed checks and traffic fines and prosecutions being intended to fill government coffers, there are no significant differences between male and female respondents. However, significant differences exist with regard to control over parking, see table 3.1.

7.2.1.2 Efficiency of traffic police

With regard to the following :

- * prevention of road accidents;
- * regulations of traffic flow;
- * control over parking in town;
- * educating motorists;
- * speed control;
- * educating pedestrians;
- * tracking down unroadworthy vehicles;
- * overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations;
- * tracking down of drunken drivers;
- * supervision of traffic situations by means of street patrols; and

* ensuring traffic order on roads; there are no significant differences between male and female respondents. Significant differences revolve only around two important functions, namely control over reckless and negligent driving and tracing of dangerous drivers. Table 4.1 clearly shows that there is an over-emphasis on the reactive traffic policing function at the expense of proactive traffic policing. Also see Annexure E.

7.2.1.3 Importance of traffic police service, social status and partiality of the traffic police

With regard to their social status, table 4.11 clearly shows significant differences. Also with regard to the importance of their service table 4.13 show significant differences. On the other hand with regard to traffic police partiality, table 5.7 indicates that there are significant differences concerning the other three determinants. Significant differences are only observable when it comes to the prosecution of tourists rather than Transkeians.

7.2.1.4 Conduct of the traffic police

With regard to the conduct of the traffic officers, table 6.3 clearly shows significant differences concerning the following types of conduct :

* friendliness, helpfulness, competence, reasonableness and courteousness.

7.2.1.5 Possible traffic hazards

In general, with regard to selected possible traffic hazards, significant differences exist - see table 6.17.

7.2.1.6 Synopsis

The above exposition leads to the following synopsis as regards the first assumption :

<u>DETERMINANT</u>	<u>ASSUMPTION CONFIRMED/NOT SUP- PORTED</u>
Attitudes towards traffic legislation	Not supported
Efficiency of traffic police officers	Not supported
Importance of traffic police service, social status and partiality	Confirmed
Conduct of the traffic police officers	Confirmed
Possible traffic hazards	Confirmed

7.2.2 Assumption 2

Respondents differ significantly according to home language as far as the following are concerned :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of traffic police officers;
- * importance of the traffic police service, social status, and partiality of the traffic police; and
- * conduct of traffic police officers.

The empirical data reflect the following in this regard :

7.2.2.1 Attitudes towards traffic legislation

With regard to traffic legislation in general, there are no significant differences. The only significant difference that could be observed, is with regard to the conducting of speed checks which appears to be overemphasised by traffic officers - see table 3.2.

7.2.2.2 Efficiency of the traffic police

In almost all the selected traffic functions, significant differences are observable. The only exception being the tracing of dangerous drivers. In general, significant differences exist between the home languages groups (table 4.2).

7.2.2.3 Importance of the traffic police service, social status and partiality

With regard to social status, there are no significant differences. However, with regard to importance of the service, significant differences are observable. Also, with regard to partiality, significant differences could be observed - see table 5.10.

7.2.2.4 Conduct of traffic police officers

With regard to the conduct of the traffic police, significant differences are observable between the different home languages groups - see table 6.3 and Annexure ?.

7.2.2.5 Synopsis

The above exposition leads to the following synopsis as regards the second assumption :

<u>DETERMINANT</u>	<u>ASSUMPTION CONFIRMED/NOT SUP- PORTED</u>
Attitudes towards traffic legislation	Not supported
Efficiency of traffic police	Confirmed
Importance of traffic police service, social status and partiality of traffic police	Confirmed
Conduct of the traffic police	Confirmed

7.2.3 Assumption 3

Respondents differ significantly according to educational qualifications with regard to the following :

- * attitudes towards traffic legislation;
- * efficiency of the traffic police officers;
- * importance of the traffic police service, social status and partiality of the traffic police officers; and
- * conduct of the traffic police officers.

7.2.3.1 Attitudes towards traffic legislation

With regard to attitudes towards traffic legislation there are no significant differences between the different age groups. The general attitude is positive (table 3.4).

7.2.3.2 Efficiency of traffic police officers

With regard to the efficiency of traffic police officers, there are significant differences with regard to the following functions :

- * prevention of road accidents;
- * regulation of traffic flow;
- * control over parking in towns;
- * educating motorists through advice;
- * speed control;

- * educating pedestrians;
- * control over reckless and negligent driving;
- * tracking down unroadworthy vehicles;
- * tracing of dangerous drivers;
- * overall enforcement of traffic flow and regulations;
- * tracking down drunken drivers;
- * supervision of traffic situation by means by street patrols; and
- * ensuring traffic order on roads.

7.2.3.3 Importance of the traffic police service, social status and partiality of traffic police

With regard to the social status of traffic police officers there are significant differences. Concerning the importance of the service that the traffic police officers render to the public, there are significant differences. Further, with regard to traffic police partiality, there are significant differences with regard to tourists being prosecuted more than Transkeians and Blacks that are treated better than whites. There are no significant differences with regard to males being prosecuted more than females and skin colour or race having an influence on the enforcement of traffic legislation (see tables 4.11, 5.11 and 4.14).

7.2.3.4 Conduct of traffic police officers

With regard to traffic police conduct, there are no observable significant differences. Significant differences are only observable with regard to two forms of conduct, i.e. helpfulness and competence in performing traffic duties (see table 6.2).

7.2.3.5 Synopsis

The above exposition leads to the following synopsis as regards the third assumptions :

<u>DETERMINANT</u>	<u>ASSUMPTION CONFIRMED/NOT SUPPORTED</u>
Attitudes towards traffic legislation	Not supported
Efficiency of traffic police	Confirmed
Importance of traffic police service, social status and partiality of traffic police	Not supported
Conduct of the traffic police	Not supported

7.2.4 Assumption 4

Respondents will differ significantly according to different age groups with regard to :

- * prevention of road accidents;
- * regulation of traffic flow;
- * control over parking in towns;
- * speed control;
- * educating pedestrians;
- * control over reckless and negligent driving;
- * tracing dangerous drivers;
- * the overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations;
- * tracking down drunken drivers; and
- * supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling.

The empirical data reflect the following in this regard :

7.2.4.1 Prevention of road accidents

There are significant differences - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.2 Regulation of traffic flow

There are significant differences - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.3 Control over parking in towns

There are significant differences - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.4 Speed control

Significant differences are observable - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.5 Educating pedestrians

Significant differences are also observable - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.6 Control over reckless and negligent driving

There are significant differences between the different age groups - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.7 Tracing dangerous drivers

In this regard significant differences are also observable - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.8 The overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations

Significant differences exists between the different age groups - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.9 Tracking down drunken drivers

There are significant differences between the age groups - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.10 Supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling

Even in this regard significant differences do exist - see Annexure E.

7.2.4.11 Synopsis

The above exposition leads to the following synopsis as regards assumption four :

Control over reckless and negligent driving

Tracing dangerous drivers

The overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations

Tracking down drunken drivers

Supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling

DETERMINANT

ASSUMPTION CONFIRMED/NOT SUPPORTED

Prevention of road accidents Confirmed

Regulation of traffic flow Confirmed

Control over parking in towns Confirmed

Speed control Confirmed

Educating pedestrians Confirmed

Control over reckless and negligent driving Confirmed

Tracing dangerous drivers Confirmed

The overall enforcement of traffic laws and regulations Confirmed

Tracking down drunken drivers Confirmed

Supervision of the traffic situation by means of regular street patrolling Confirmed

7.2.5 Synopsis

The proceeding exposition may be summarised as follows :

7.2.5.1 Assumption 1

In general, there appears to be no significant differences between male and female respondents with regard to their attitudes towards traffic legislation. There are also no significant differences with regard to the efficiency of traffic policing in Transkei. However, it appears that there are significant differences with regard to the importance of traffic police service, social status and partiality. Also, that significant differences have been observed towards the conduct of traffic police officers as well as towards possible traffic hazards. In general, this assumption is confirmed - see par. 7.2.1.5.

7.2.5.2 Assumption 2

In general, this assumption is confirmed, i.e. there are significant differences. The only exception relates to the attitudes of respondents toward traffic legislation.

7.2.5.3 Assumption 3

In general, this assumption is also not confirmed, namely that there are no significant differences between the respondents, though, with regard to certain determinants, few insignificant differences are observable.

7.2.5.4 Assumption 4

This assumption has been confirmed, namely that there are significant differences between the respondents of different age groups.

7.3 KEY FINDINGS

7.3.1 External image of traffic policing

7.3.1.1 Traffic police efficiency

An overall negative evaluation of selected traffic functions has been shown by the respondents. This view is a clear indication of the respondent's dissatisfaction with the manner in which these functions are performed by the traffic police. This could pave the way for disturbing relationships between traffic officers (active partner) and the public (passive partner). The research also shows that 68,80% of the respondents believe that traffic police in Transkei are failing to educate pedestrians properly. Concerning the tracking down of drunken drivers, 60,00% of the respondents believe that the traffic police in Transkei are also failing to perform this function efficiently. Further, 59,40% of the respondents are of the opinion that supervision of traffic situation by means of street patrolling does not meet the expectations of the community. Also see table 4.1 and Annexure E.

7.3.1.2 The importance of the traffic police occupation

The traffic police occupation is seen as an indispensable component for securing harmonious co-existence of people by means of traffic safety. Traffic officers are seen as rendering an important service to the Nation. The service that is being rendered by traffic officers is as important as the Transkei police service. However, respondents believe that the traffic police occupation does not require a high standard of education - see table 4.15.

7.3.1.3 Traffic police deviant behaviour

There appear to be consensus among the respondents that traffic police in Transkei are easily bribed by motorists; that traffic officers sometimes show sarcasm and uninterestedness towards motorists. The acceptance of bribery by public offi-

cials is a very serious form of deviant behaviour. It is, therefore, disturbing to find that respondents believe that traffic officers are easily bribed because such an atmosphere is not conducive to sound traffic police-community relations which are indispensable for the maintenance of traffic order and the fostering of community policing within the traffic situation - seen table 4.18.

7.4 RELATIONSHIP ISSUES IN TRAFFIC POLICING

7.4.1 Community attitudes towards traffic policing

7.4.2 Stereotyping

7.4.2.1 Brutality

It has been observed in this research that traffic policemen in Transkei sometimes show bossiness when performing their duties. They tend to abuse their power and authority when enforcing traffic laws and regulations. They are also viewed as ignoring human dignity when dealing with the motoring public, and using insulting language when communicating with members of the public - see table 5.3.

7.4.2.2 Partiality

The research has revealed that traffic policemen in Transkei are not impartial when dealing with the members of the public in that they tend to treat or prosecute tourists more than Transkeians; prosecute male drivers more than female drivers; and skin colour or race tend to influence the manner in which they enforce traffic laws and regulations. Respondents seem to believe that municipal traffic officers are more partial compared to provincial traffic officers when performing traffic duties - see table 5.12.

7.4.2.3 Inferiority

Respondents have shown that traffic police officers are rendering a very important service in Transkei. Their services are as important as any other social service, including the Transkei police service. They also believe that traffic policemen have a high social status in society, and that traffic police work indeed requires a high standard of education - see tables 4.10 and 4.13.

7.5 TRAFFIC POLICE CONDUCT

Respondents in this research seem to believe that traffic policemen in Transkei are not always friendly when performing their duties (54,40%); they are not often seen as helping members of the public (51,16%); they lack reasonableness when dealing with the driving public (50,40%). Further, they do not always display courteousness when dealing with the community (49,00%) - see table 5.1.

7.5.1 Traffic police attitudes

This research has revealed that respondents agree that members of the public in Transkei show little appreciation for the traffic officer's duties. Further, the public are antagonistic towards the traffic police; the public do not co-operate with the traffic police; they are prepared to bribe the traffic police if they can benefit from it, and they do not show understanding for the problems associated with traffic policing. There is a clear indication that traffic police institutions in Transkei have a great responsibility to facilitate co-operation between the active partner (traffic police) and the passive partner (public) in the interest of sound police-community relations.

7.6 PUBLIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS TRAFFIC HAZARDS

The respondents regard the following traffic hazards as dangerous to very dangerous :

- * overloaded vehicles;
- * stray animals;
- * unroadworthy vehicles;
- * travelling too slowly;
- * double parking;
- * poor pedestrian behaviour;
- * failing to indicate the intention to turn; and
- * vehicles that follow too slowly - see table 6.15.

Respondents seem to be sending a clear message to the traffic institutions in Transkei that laws and regulations relating to these possible hazards should be enforced more efficiently.

With reference to the following possible hazards, respondents have indicated that they are all very dangerous :

- * driving under the influence of liquor;
- * inconsiderate driving;
- * excessive speeding;
- * improper driving; and
- * reckless and/or negligent driving - see table 6.16.

With regard to the following constructs, there appears to be an overall consensus among respondents to the belief that these are very dangerous :

- * inadequate road signs;
- * unclear road signs;
- * bad road conditions (pot holes, etc.);
- * ineffective law enforcement; and
- * overtaking on solid lines - see table 6.17.

7.6.1 IMPROVING THE TRAFFIC POLICE IMAGE

Respondents have demonstrated an overwhelming support for the implementation of the following efforts to improve the traffic police image in society :

- * educating the public with regard to traffic-related issues;
- * better communication with the driving public;
- * educating the youth about traffic-related issues and problems;
- * a more professional rendering of service by regulating the traffic and advising the public how to prevent a repetition of the same offences;
- * prevention of road accidents by means of regular street patrols;
- * eliminating physical hazards on streets (e.g. vehicles obstructing traffic flow);
- * sympathetic treatment of everybody (drivers/pedestrians) with whom traffic officers come into contact with;
- * more publicity (TV, radio, newspapers) regarding traffic problems;
- * academic training of traffic officers (i.e. obtaining tertiary educational qualifications);
- * training of traffic officers in sound human relations;
- * intensive departmental in-service training of traffic officers;
- * the just execution of power and authority; and
- * intensive selection of traffic officers on enrolment - see table 6.14.

7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS

7.7.1 Children traffic patrols

Children traffic patrols under the supervision and direction of a trained officer of selected school children who have been organised and trained for this function, should maintain safety for other children crossing streets to and from school

and inculcate a sense of civic responsibility. This effort will establish relationships between the traffic police and school pupils and promote friendship and respect for the traffic police function. It should be recalled that today's children are tomorrow's citizens. If they begin to learn more about traffic safety and develop sound relationship with traffic police officers, there is hope for future traffic police-community relations.

Parents, school authorities and motorists will welcome such efforts with the objective of reducing the number of accidents that occur near schools. It will also contribute towards children being safety-conscious and more disciplined. Traffic police institutions in Transkei should promote the development of a child traffic patrol system and ensure that they supervise its operation.

7.7.2 The government

With special emphasis on traffic crime prevention through social development, it is recommended that the government should :

- * identify and promote community initiative which, in addition to opportunity - reduction measures, could offer enhanced traffic crime prevention and the safety of society;
- * encourage the private sector to work together with the government in creating better use of resources by prioritizing programmes and related projects that have the greatest impact on the elimination of traffic offences;
- * promote traffic education and training programmes in traffic crime prevention to the benefit of the motoring public and members of the community;
- * encourage the private sector to create initiatives that will promote traffic safety;

- * establish and co-ordinate community awareness and media campaigns about traffic crime prevention; and
- * sponsor research on traffic crime prevention, (CCJA, 1989:391-392).

It is further recommended that the government should encourage all tertiary institutions to establish Criminal Justice programmes in which criminal justice courses (especially traffic control) could be taught.

7.7.3 Courts

It is further recommended that courts should support efforts of traffic police institutions to maintain traffic order. The court bears the important responsibility for the effectiveness of traffic penalization. Consistent penalization policies are needed to ensure conformity to be able to act as a deterrent. The introduction of traffic courts can contribute towards alleviating the burden of attending court proceedings for too long hours. Expedient handling of traffic cases should be the pass word.

7.7.4 Intersection and crosswalk duty

It is recommended that, at least as far as Umtata and Butterworth are concerned, traffic officers be posted to direct traffic at intersections during peak hours and other areas that are known to have high accident rates to assist pedestrians to cross the roads safely. These towns are surrounded by rural areas and it is reasonable to assume that people (pedestrians) from these areas are used to urban roads. It is, therefore, essential that next to traffic lights, traffic officers should always be made available to assist in this regard. This endeavour should also be viewed as an opportunity to educate the pedestrians about road safety.

7.7.5 Parking

Traffic institutions should employ traffic wardens who could be tasked with enforcing parking regulations. Retired traffic officers can be utilised for this purpose. This can enable permanent members where they are needed most.

This research has shown that the control over parking is regarded as one of the most important functions of the traffic police - see table 3.1.

7.7.6 Patrol

Traffic patrolling is a powerful instrument in preventing traffic accidents and to eliminate precipitating factors. Other than being an important technique to reduce accidents, traffic patrolling will also improve relationships between the traffic police and the public. During traffic patrolling, traffic officers are able to interact with members of the public. It is, therefore, recommended that patrol should be prioritized by traffic institutions in Transkei. It should be remembered that the traffic patrolman will be in a position to contribute towards improving the image of traffic policing in Transkei.

7.7.7 Traffic education

Traffic authorities in Transkei should consider the implementation of appropriate education programmes. If traffic education can be used effectively, many lives that are lost yearly through traffic accidents can be saved. The safe use of streets and roads by motorists and pedestrians is a matter of having the correct attitudes and habits. As education in general changes, traffic education should also be up-dated. Drivers who acquired their licences about ten years ago and more, may not be familiar with the new roads and highways and for this reason, an on-going traffic education programme is

essential. Schools and other centres of learning should be supplied with traffic sign pictures, which should be displayed on the walls so that children can familiarize them with it.

7.7.8 Community-based traffic policing

Community-based traffic policing is not a new concept because it dates back from the time of Sir Robert Peel in 1829 when he and his two commissioners, Charles Rowan and Richard Mayne, suggested that police should work in close co-operation with the people and that police should protect the rights, serve the needs, and earn the confidence of the people they serve. Therefore, the Metropolitan police provided the first model for modern community traffic policing (Van Heerden, 1986:26). In community traffic policing the overall goal of the traffic police is traffic police-community partnership. Contrary to the professional model of traffic policing which is inclined towards keeping the traffic police separated from the community, community-based traffic policing brings the traffic police closer to the community, and ensures citizen involvement and participation in the maintenance of traffic order. Duties such as assisting pedestrians to cross the roads and directing people who are lost in town, will promote community interest in traffic policing.

In order to encourage community involvement in traffic policing, traffic institutions should consider broadening the traffic police in certain ways to provide for the community and citizen participation in traffic police matters. Traffic police institutions may also consider the publicising of tentative selective traffic enforcement policies and invite members of the public to criticise them and make suggestions before they are put into practice (Klockars, 1985:108).

7.7.9 Vehicle inspections

The effectiveness of a system of routine inspection of motor vehicles instead of prosecution, should be considered. This exercise is very important because it can save the lives of vehicle owners and other road users. It cannot be taken for granted that vehicle owners should be aware that their vehicles should always be roadworthy. Traffic enforcement of this nature should not be aimed at punishing owners for driving defective vehicles but rather at warning them to attend to defects of their vehicles.

7.7.10 Discretion

Traffic policing can become very traumatic for any traffic policeman to perform if he or she could be refused the choice to use discretion in the performance of his or her function. It is recommended that traffic policemen should be encouraged by their authorities to use discretion. Discretion should, however, not be confused with discrimination. Davis (1971:4) believes that discretion is the freedom to choose between action and in-action within the limits of one's authority. It should not be influenced by sex, class or racial differences because that would amount to the violation of the principle of equality before the law. Traffic officers should be discouraged from using double standards when enforcing traffic law. Traffic officers need to be encouraged to always make a clear distinction between discrimination and discretion. There should not be one sort of justice for friends, the rich, and females and another for male and the poor.

7.7.11 The use of the mass media

The mass media is one of the most powerful instruments that can be used by the traffic institutions in Transkei to inform the public about the traffic policing activities and problems they encounter in the performance of their duties. Respon-

dents have made it clear in this research that they do not show understanding of the problems of traffic police officers. It is not easy for the members of the public to show understanding of the traffic policing problems which they have not been informed about. Taudman (Varwell, 1978:105) maintains that:

"For many of us, contact with a police patrol officer has been limited to our being stopped for a traffic law violation. Our embarrassment at being stopped along with our belief that the police officer's time could be better spent 'fighting crime', generally produces feelings of resentment and antagonism. It is possible that our feelings of resentment might be less if we were to observe a patrol officer frantically attempt to breath life into the body of a dying child and then watch the officer's silent tears as the child died."

It is imperative, therefore, that traffic police institutions in Transkei should consider making use of newspapers, television and the radio to ensure that the public is aware of their activities and problems. Newspapers can be requested to publish certain articles on traffic policing. People can also be informed about dangerous curves and accidents that have occurred and alternative routes that they can use when there are traffic jams. The enormous potential that the TV has for the benefit of the society cannot be denied (Varwell, 1978:105).

7.7.12 **Stray animals**

This research has shown that stray animals are regarded as one of the most dangerous hazards. Transkei is well-known for its stray animals. Many people have lost their lives in Transkei in accidents that involved stray animals. All Transkei towns are surrounded by rural localities. In rural communities many people own cattle, sheep, goats, horses, donkeys, mules, dogs and other types of animals. Some of these animals are left

on their own in the open veld for grazing purposes. It is very common to see these animals crossing the public roads at night and during the day unguarded.

It is recommended that in order to eliminate the problems of stray animals, members of the rural communities should be made aware of the number of people who died because of stray animals every year, and the financial cost incurred by vehicle owners. Local chiefs should be involved in traffic policing by being encouraged to impose heavy fines whenever animals are found unguarded - particularly near public roads. All public roads should be properly fenced.

7.7.13 Research

It is recommended that further research be conducted in the field of traffic policing in Transkei. The results of such investigations should be disseminated to as many traffic institutions in South Africa as possible. The researcher believes that the findings of such research projects will be invaluable to traffic legislators, universities and traffic police institutions. Progress without research is futile.

It is further the conviction of the researcher that if the above recommendations can be put into operation, the positive result will show itself in all spheres of life in the form of improved traffic police community relations and improved traffic order as well as an improved traffic police image in society.

7.8 SUMMARY

This research brought to light various significant issues. Such issues include attitudes of the motoring public towards traffic legislation, efficiency of traffic police officers, conduct of the traffic police, the importance of traffic police service, partiality and social status of traffic of-

fficers. There are three assumptions that have been formulated for the purposes of evaluation. The tenability of these assumptions had been discussed in this chapter. The findings in this regard are based on the results of F-test, t-test and Chi-square test. Key findings regarding the external image of traffic policing (traffic police efficiency, the importance of the traffic police occupation and traffic police deviant behaviour, relationships issues in traffic policing (attitudes towards traffic policing and attitudes of the traffic police as observed by members of the public) have been discussed. Efforts that can be implemented to improve the traffic police image have also been discussed. Various important recommendations which are based on the findings have been put forward by the researcher. The researcher believes that the implementation of these recommendations will contribute positively towards improving the image of traffic policing in Transkei.

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CONFIDENTIAL**ANNEXURE A****QUESTIONNAIRE TO GAUGE THE IMAGE OF TRAFFIC
POLICING IN TRANSKEI**

Dear Respondent,

PLEASE NOTE THE FOLLOWING :

- * Your NAME and ADDRESS must NOT be reflected on this questionnaire
- * ALL the information that you are about to furnish, will be treated in the STRICTEST CONFIDENCE!
- * This questionnaire applies to -
MUNICIPALITY TRAFFIC OFFICERS and
PROVINCIAL TRAFFIC INSPECTORS only

Your contribution towards this research project is of decisive importance! PLEASE answer ALL the questions by marking EACH ONE in the appropriate block with a cross (X) as it applies to you personally

* N.B. PLEASE TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE AND START THERE

SECTION AQ.1 What is your SEX?

Male	1
Female	2

Q.2 Your HOME LANGUAGE?

Xhosa	1
Zulu	2
Sesotho	3
Swazi	4
English	5
Afrikaans	6
Greek	7
Portuguese	8
Zimbabwean	9
Zambian	10
Ugandan	11
Other	12

(If "other", specify

Q.3 To which AGE CATEGORY do you belong?

18 - 25 years	1
26 - 35 years	2
36 - 45 years	3
46 - 55 years	4
56 - 65 years	5
66 + years	6

Q.4 Indicate your HIGHEST educational level -

Std. 6	1
Std. 7	2
Std. 8	3
Std. 9	4
Std. 10	5
Diploma	6
Degree	7

Q.5 Your present MARITAL STATUS?

Married	1
Single	2
Widowed	3
Divorced	4

Q.6 Indicate your OCCUPATION category -

Professional worker (doctor, lawyer, teacher)	1
Technical and related worker (mechanic, electrician, etc.)	2
Businessman and sales worker	3
Administrative worker (supervisor, clerk)	4
Executive (director, secretary)	5
Clerical worker (typist, receptionist, etc.)	6
Worker in transport	7
Worker in communication (journalist, PRO, tele-communication, etc.)	8
Craftsman and production worker	9
Personal service worker (nurse, caterer)	10
Sport and recreational worker	11

Continued...

Ministerial services	12
Agricultural and related worker (engaged in tending crops, animals, game, forests, etc.)	13
Armed forces (police, army)	14
Other (specify	15

SECTION B

* How IMPORTANT would you rate the following FUNCTIONS of Traffic Law Enforcement Officers in the Transkei?

	Most Important	Important	Undecided	Less Important	Not important at all
Q.7 Issuing of parking tickets (i.e. of expired metres)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.8 Conducting speed checks (speed traps)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.9 Inspection of all kinds of motor vehicles for roadworthiness	1	2	3	4	5
Q.10 Tracking down motorists driving a vehicle under influence of liquor	1	2	3	4	5
Q.11 Prosecution of drivers who ignore traffic signs (failing (to stop at stop streets, red traffic lights)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.12 Regulation of traffic flow during peak hours	1	2	3	4	5
Q.13 Prosecution of drivers who fail to wear seat belts (safety belts)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.14 Prevention of motor accidents	1	2	3	4	5
Q.15 Supervision of road users in the form of regular street patrols	1	2	3	4	5
Q.16 Inspection of road conditions and traffic signs in order to eliminate accident risks	1	2	3	4	5

Continued

Q.17	Enforcement of traffic rules on roads/streets (failing to keep left, failing to indicate intention of changing lanes, failing to obey solid lines, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.18	Investigation of road accidents	1	2	3	4	5
Q.19	Assisting injured persons at road accident scenes	1	2	3	4	5
Q.20	Educating motorists (drivers) by means of advice how to prevent a repetition of similar offences future	1	2	3	4	5
Q.21	Escorting of dignitaries (State President, Ministers)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.22	Serving traffic summonses	1	2	3	4	5

* To WHAT EXTENT do you AGREE/DISAGREE with the following statements?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Diss-agree	Strongly disagree
Q.23	There are sufficient traffic officers to ensure road safety in the Transkei	1	2	3	4	5
Q.24	The Transkeian Police should be more concerned with controlling the traffic in Transkei	1	2	3	4	5
Q.25	Traffic laws in Transkei are sufficiently strict to ensure the safety of road users	1	2	3	4	5
Q.26	Control over parking in towns is necessary to promote traffic order	1	2	3	4	5
Q.27	Seatbelts do not ensure the safety of drivers and passengers	1	2	3	4	5

Q.28	Conducting speed checks "speed traps" is intended to ensure greater safety on our roads or streets	1	2	3	4	5
Q.29	Too much emphasis is being placed on the enforcement of traffic laws and regulations	1	2	3	4	5
Q.30	A better traffic flow will improve road safety	1	2	3	4	5
Q.31	Traffic officers are not doing their utmost to prevent motor accidents	1	2	3	4	5
Q.32	The prosecution of and subsequent fines imposed for traffic offences are mainly intended for raising funds for Treasury (i.e. to fill the Government's coffers)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.33	Traffic laws and regulations should be enforced more strictly	1	2	3	4	5
Q.34	The general condition of painted white/yellow lines on our roads contributes towards traffic offences	1	2	3	4	5
Q.35	Traffic road signs are generally clear and unambiguous	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C

* To WHAT EXTENT do you AGREE/DISAGREE with the following statements with regard to Traffic Officers?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Dissagree	Strongly disagree
Q.36	Traffic officers in the Transkei are rendering an important service to the Nation	1	2	3	4	5
Q.37	Their services are less important compared with the services of the Transkeian Police	1	2	3	4	5

Continued...

Q.38	They have a high social status in society	1	2	3	4	5
Q.39	The nature of their work does not require a high standard of education	1	2	3	4	5
Q.40	Their appearance is always neat	1	2	3	4	5
Q.41	They are not an example to other motorists concerning the way in which they obey traffic rules	1	2	3	4	5
Q.42	When prosecuting motorists, traffic officers do not advise drivers on how to prevent the commission of similar offences	1	2	3	4	5
Q.43	Tourists are more likely to be prosecuted than Transkeian citizens or people living in Transkei	1	2	3	4	5
Q.44	Traffic officers prosecute male rather than female drivers	1	2	3	4	5
Q.45	"Skin colour" or race has a definite influence on the way in which traffic officers treat motorists	1	2	3	4	5
Q.46	Traffic officers are not easily bribed by drivers who have committed traffic offences	1	2	3	4	5
Q.47	Traffic officers treat Black motorists more sympathetically than they do with White motorists	1	2	3	4	5

* Please indicate below HOW EFFICIENT, in your opinion, traffic officers are in fulfilling the following traffic functions -

	Very good	Good	Undecided	Poor	Very poor
Q.48	1	2	3	4	5
Q.49	1	2	3	4	5
Q.50	1	2	3	4	5
Q.51	1	2	3	4	5
Q.52	1	2	3	4	5
Q.53	1	2	3	4	5
Q.54	1	2	3	4	5
Q.55	1	2	3	4	5
Q.56	1	2	3	4	5
Q.57	1	2	3	4	5
Q.58	1	2	3	4	5
Q.59	1	2	3	4	5
Q.60	1	2	3	4	5

* In your opinion, to WHAT EXTENT do the following characterise the conduct of traffic officers when they deal with the motoring public in Transkei

	Always	Often	Undecided	Sometimes	Never
Q.61	1	2	3	4	5
Q.62	1	2	3	4	5
Q.63	1	2	3	4	5
Q.64	1	2	3	4	5

Continued

Q.65	Abuse of their power and authority	1	2	3	4	5
Q.66	Competence in performing their duties	1	2	3	4	5
Q.67	Cheek	1	2	3	4	5
Q.68	Impartiality	1	2	3	4	5
Q.69	Aggressiveness	1	2	3	4	5
Q.70	Justness	1	2	3	4	5
Q.71	Sarcasm	1	2	3	4	5
Q.72	Ignoring human dignity	1	2	3	4	5
Q.73	Use of insulting language	1	2	3	4	5
Q.74	Reasonableness	1	2	3	4	5
Q.75	Uninterestedness	1	2	3	4	5
Q.76	Courteousness	1	2	3	4	5

* To what extent do you AGREE or DISAGREE with the following statements?

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Dissagree	Strongly disagree
Q.77	The public have little appreciation of the traffic officer's duties	1	2	3	4	5
Q.78	The public is antagonistic towards traffic officers	1	2	3	4	5
Q.79	The public do not co-operate with traffic officers to ensure road safety	1	2	3	4	5
Q.80	The public often attempt to bribe traffic officers if they (public) can benefit from it	1	2	3	4	5
Q.81	The public do show understanding of the problems encountered by traffic officers	1	2	3	4	5

* How IMPORTANT or UNIMPORTANT would you rate the following suggestions for IMPROVING THE IMAGE of traffic officers in Transkei?

	Most important	Important	Undecided	Less Important	Not important at all	
Q.82	Educating the public with regard to traffic related issues	1	2	3	4	5
Q.83	Better communication with the public	1	2	3	4	5
Q.84	Educating the youth in respect traffic-related issues and problems	1	2	3	4	5
Q.85	A more professional rendering of service by regulating the traffic and advising the public	1	2	3	4	5
Q.86	Prevention of road accidents by means of regular street patrols	1	2	3	4	5
Q.87	Eliminating hazards on streets (e.g. vehicles obstructing traffic flow)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.88	Sympathetic treatment of everybody (drivers/pedestrians with whom they come into contact with)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.89	More publicity (TV, radio, newspapers) regarding traffic problems	1	2	3	4	5
Q.90	Academic training of traffic officers (i.e. obtaining a University degree	1	2	3	4	5
Q.91	Training traffic officer in sound human relations	1	2	3	4	5
Q.92	Intensive departmental training of traffic officers	1	2	3	4	5
Q.93	Improving the social status of traffic officers	1	2	3	4	5
Q.94	The just execution of power and authority	1	2	3	4	5

Continued...

Q.95	Intensive selection of traffic officers on enrolment	1	2	3	4	5
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* Please indicate below HOW DANGEROUS do you rate EACH of the following possible hazards on our streets/roads -

N.B.

DON'T FORGET TO TICK EACH ONE PLEASE!

		Very dangerous	Dangerous	Undecided	Less dangerous	Not dangerous at all
Q.96	Inadequate road signs	1	2	3	4	5
Q.97	Overloaded vehicles	1	2	3	4	5
Q.98	Stray animals	1	2	3	4	5
Q.99	Unroadworthy vehicles	1	2	3	4	5
Q.100	Motorists (drivers) driving under the influence of liquor	1	2	3	4	5
Q.101	Selfishness of drivers towards other road users	1	2	3	4	5
Q.102	Indistinct (unclear) road signs	1	2	3	4	5
Q.103	Excessive speeding of motorists	1	2	3	4	5
Q.104	Inability of drivers to drive their vehicles properly	1	2	3	4	5
Q.105	Bad road conditions (pot-holes, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.106	Ineffective enforcement of the traffic laws	1	2	3	4	5
Q.107	Recklessness of drivers	1	2	3	4	5
Q.108	Travelling too slowly	1	2	3	4	5
Q.109	Overtaking of vehicles on solid lines	1	2	3	4	5
Q.110	Double parking of vehicles	1	2	3	4	5

Continued...

Q.111	Poor pedestrian behaviour (i.e. crossing of streets except at pedestrian crossings)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.112	Cut into in front of other vehicles without giving proper indication	1	2	3	4	5
Q.113	Vehicles that follow too closely	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION E

* Have you ever been charged for ANYONE of the following traffic offences during the past TWO (2) YEARS?

		Never	Only once	Two times	Three times	Four times and more
Q.114	Illegal parking	1	2	3	4	5
Q.115	Exceeding the prescribed speed limit (i.e. 60 kph in towns and 100 kph on national roads)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.116	Driving a motor vehicle whilst under the influence of liquor	1	2	3	4	5
Q.117	Driving a motor vehicle, without a valid drivers' licence	1	2	3	4	5
Q.118	Fail to wear a seatbelt	1	2	3	4	5
Q.119	Driving a motor vehicle without a valid licence and/or third party insurance	1	2	3	4	5
Q.120	Ignoring road signs (i.e stopsigns, red robot lights, overtaking on a solid line)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.121	Driving an unroadworthy vehicle (poor tyres, defective lights, brakes etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.122	Reckless and/or negligent driving of a motor vehicle	1	2	3	4	5
Q.123	Following other vehicles too closely	1	2	3	4	5

Q.124

Which ONE of the following contributes MOST in the forming of your opinion of traffic officers in the Transkei?

N.B.

TICK ONLY ONE (1) PLEASE!

- * Direct contact with traffic officers as a result of a traffic offence
- * That what you see when they prosecute other motorists
- * That what other people say about the behaviour of traffic officers
- * That what you see when they regulate the traffic flow
- * Newspaper reports about the activities of traffic officers

1

2

3

4

5

Q.125

Does your image of traffic officers in Transkei refer to -

N.B.

TICK ONLY ONE (1) PLEASE!

- * Municipality traffic officers (e.g. City of Umtata Police wearing green uniforms)
- * Provincial traffic inspectors (i.e. those wearing blue uniforms - XPT's)
- * Both Municipality and Provincial traffic officers

1

2

3

<p>I WOULD LIKE TO THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND CO- OPERATION IN THIS RE- SEARCH PROJECT</p>

ANNEXURE B

RESULTS OF INDIVIDUAL ALPHA ITEM ANALYSIS

VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	ALPHA CO-EFFICIENT	VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	ALPHA CO-EFFICIENT
7	2,54	1,31	0,8612	46	3,48	1,26	0,8597
8	1,63	0,94	0,8599	47	3,45	1,27	0,8616
9	1,49	0,92	0,8603	48	3,25	1,33	0,8580
10	1,44	1,06	0,8605	49	3,13	1,25	0,8586
11	1,49	0,94	0,8597	50	2,99	1,32	0,8595
12	1,76	0,97	0,8599	51	3,48	1,30	0,8580
13	2,32	1,24	0,8584	52	2,83	1,27	0,8589
14	1,50	0,92	0,8592	53	3,62	1,31	0,8581
15	1,91	0,98	0,8585	54	3,64	2,67	0,8623
16	1,62	0,96	0,8594	55	3,43	1,38	0,8580
17	1,64	0,95	0,8590	56	3,78	2,58	0,8636
18	1,80	0,93	0,8594	57	3,20	1,22	0,8577
19	1,53	0,86	0,8597	58	3,49	1,36	0,8574
20	1,79	0,99	0,8595	59	3,39	1,27	0,8579
21	2,68	1,40	0,8610	60	3,38	1,29	0,8580
22	2,61	1,22	0,8595	61	3,10	1,30	0,8599
23	3,32	1,32	0,8610	62	2,98	1,32	0,8625
24	2,58	1,36	0,8614	63	3,06	1,31	0,8594
25	2,96	1,31	0,8601	64	3,09	1,12	0,8610
26	1,91	0,96	0,8610	65	3,01	1,32	0,8622
27	3,70	1,26	0,8617	66	3,04	1,25	0,8589
28	1,84	0,93	0,8606	67	3,28	1,27	0,8612
29	2,98	1,32	0,8595	68	3,21	1,21	0,8601
30	1,76	0,81	0,8616	69	3,29	1,24	0,8613
31	2,33	1,27	0,8646	70	3,13	1,17	0,8596
32	3,07	1,34	0,8626	71	3,29	1,16	0,8611
33	1,57	0,78	0,8625	72	3,23	1,32	0,8622
34	2,76	1,30	0,8606	73	3,78	1,28	0,8617
35	2,66	1,29	0,8609	74	3,06	1,26	0,8599
36	2,22	1,20	0,8605	75	3,36	1,24	0,8600
37	3,47	1,21	0,8617	76	3,07	1,24	0,8000
38	3,06	1,17	0,8593	77	2,37	1,18	0,8623
39	3,68	1,14	0,8628	78	2,64	1,14	0,8613
40	2,35	1,15	0,8605	79	2,48	1,21	0,8626
41	2,69	1,36	0,8642	80	2,32	1,16	0,8624
42	2,60	1,18	0,8640	81	2,87	1,14	0,8612
43	3,10	1,36	0,8636	82	1,44	0,72	0,8612
44	2,87	1,24	0,8632	83	1,49	0,65	0,8610
45	2,91	1,36	0,8635	84	1,45	0,73	0,8606

Continued...

VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	ALPHA CO- EFFICIENT
85	1,58	0,70	0,8612
86	1,56	0,77	0,8601
87	1,58	0,83	0,8609
88	2,08	1,15	0,8603
89	1,78	0,98	0,8616
90	2,56	1,34	0,8614
91	1,67	0,81	0,8609
92	1,59	0,73	0,8613
93	2,03	1,02	0,8604
94	1,94	1,31	0,8623
95	1,84	0,94	0,8615
96	1,47	0,77	0,8610
97	1,38	0,63	0,8612
98	1,27	0,59	0,8616
99	1,41	0,65	0,8617
100	1,17	0,53	0,8618
101	1,52	0,76	0,8610
102	1,57	0,78	0,8609
103	1,32	0,63	0,8614
104	1,60	0,79	0,8610
105	1,65	0,80	0,8608
106	1,92	0,87	0,8612
107	1,37	0,66	0,8616
108	2,71	1,29	0,8618
109	1,49	0,71	0,8615
110	2,07	0,99	0,8608
111	1,74	0,84	0,8609
112	1,43	0,64	0,8614
113	1,60	0,75	0,8615

Alpha Coefficient = 0,8619

Standardized Alpha = 0,8756

ANNEXURE C

NUMBER OF COLLISIONS AND INJURIES ON SOUTH AFRICAN ROADS BETWEEN 1983 AND 1993

DIRECTORATE TRAFFIC SAFETY

NUMBER OF COLLISIONS ACCORDING TO GRADE:

YEAR	FATAL	SERIOUS	SLIGHT	DAMAGE ONLY	TOTAL
1983	7941	18653	49017	312988	388599
1984	8376	18623	50538	334560	412097
1985	7692	17034	46572	297887	369185
1986	8075	17985	50855	295752	372667
1987	8431	19168	53235	306314	387148
1988	9016	20411	58058	330999	418484
1989	9061	20815	59383	345504	434763
1990	9174	20446	59393	344274	433287
1991	9222	21711	60495	353113	444541
1992	8378	20205	55221	345681	429485
1993	7911	20312	56145	348659	433027

NUMBER OF INJURIES ACCORDING TO GRADE:

YEAR	FATAL	SERIOUS	SLIGHT	TOTAL
1983	9121	27627	69744	106492
1984	9621	27795	72917	110333
1985	8972	25998	67715	102685
1986	9343	27302	75565	112210
1987	9905	29282	78506	117693
1988	10691	31135	85157	126983
1989	10877	32227	84281	127385
1990	11157	32343	87273	130773
1991	11069	34765	90612	136446
1992	10142	32792	83470	126404
1993	9443	33383	84914	127740

ANNEXURE D

NUMBER OF ROAD ACCIDENTS BETWEEN JANUARY 1991 AND JANUARY 1994

BOTSINGSYFERS - MAANDELIKS

DATUM	NOODLOTTIG	ERNSTIG	GERING	NET SKADE	TOTAAL
1/91	587	1366	4519	25831	32303
2/91	622	1634	4596	27061	33913
3/91	839	1937	5428	31433	39637
4/91	694	1794	4841	27052	34381
5/91	808	1907	5346	30318	38379
6/91	782	1934	5516	31021	39253
7/91	843	1903	5352	30743	38841
8/91	821	1908	4984	30595	38308
9/91	769	1793	4733	28800	36095
10/91	750	1769	4942	30926	38387
11/91	840	1845	5023	30231	37939
12/91	867	1921	5215	29102	37105
1/92	631	1460	4188	26263	32542
2/92	666	1622	4805	27628	34721
3/92	673	1763	4856	28863	36155
4/92	772	1762	4405	27673	34612
5/92	778	1828	4850	29555	37011
6/92	667	1656	4747	31408	38478
7/92	699	1676	4549	29254	36178
8/92	754	1720	4669	29465	36608
9/92	655	1623	4401	27854	34533
10/92	698	1607	4370	29349	36024
11/92	642	1632	4601	28746	35621
12/92	675	1628	4465	27808	34576
1/93	534	1264	3763	24219	29780
2/93	543	1526	4365	26475	32909
3/93	649	1706	4904	30973	38232
4/93	611	1537	4196	26718	33062
5/93	727	1745	4738	29785	36995
6/93	659	1735	4812	31085	38291
7/93	742	1751	4874	30370	37737
8/93	696	1795	4728	30410	37629
9/93	662	1865	4825	28315	35667
10/93	725	1675	4842	30999	38241
11/93	604	1722	4898	30079	37303
12/93	759	1991	5200	29231	37181
1/94	506	1544	4298	26410	32758

BOTSINGSYFERS - MAANDELIKS

DATUM	NOODLOTTIG	ERNSTIG	GERING	TOTAAL
1/91	735	2232	6813	9780
2/91	724	2512	6543	9779
3/91	1062	3236	8215	12513
4/91	799	2791	7036	10626
5/91	983	3075	7941	11999
6/91	931	3052	8111	12094
7/91	996	2989	7793	11778
8/91	980	2983	7468	11431
9/91	924	2913	7130	10967
10/91	891	2796	7371	11058
11/91	954	2877	7463	11294
12/91	1090	3309	8728	13127
1/92	729	2462	6636	9827
2/92	788	2541	7240	10569
3/92	858	2724	7310	10892
4/92	942	2866	6853	10661
5/92	932	2962	7241	11135
6/92	793	2745	7020	10558
7/92	830	2699	6747	10276
8/92	927	2749	6940	10616
9/92	804	2666	6604	10074
10/92	830	2604	6448	9882
11/92	767	2698	6808	10273
12/92	859	2757	7137	10753
1/93	648	2165	5830	8643
2/93	638	2430	6574	9642
3/93	749	2768	7111	10628
4/93	762	2694	6341	9797
5/93	879	2999	7326	11204
6/93	779	2646	7185	10610
7/93	874	2916	7351	11141
8/93	805	2847	7121	10773
9/93	795	2921	7193	10909
10/93	839	2791	7171	10801
11/93	718	2679	7369	10766
12/93	957	3527	8342	12826
1/94	624	2406	6740	9770

ANNEXURE E

CHI-SQUARE TABLES

PREVENTION OF ROAD ACCIDENTS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	42	13,50	22	11,64	64	12,80
Good	71	22,83	44	23,28	115	23,00
Undecided	27	8,69	15	7,94	42	8,40
Poor	112	36,01	78	41,27	190	38,00
Very poor	59	18,97	30	15,87	89	17,80
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 1,896$; 4df $p = 0,755$ (Not significant)

REGULATION OF TRAFFIC FLOW

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	34	10,93	13	6,88	47	9,40
Good	95	30,55	64	33,86	159	31,80
Undecided	21	6,75	15	7,94	36	7,20
Poor	123	39,55	73	38,62	196	39,20
Very poor	38	12,22	24	12,70	62	12,40
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 2,738$; 4df $p = 0,603$ (Not significant)

ANNEXURE E

CONTROL OVER PARKING IN TOWN

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	35	11,25	21	11,11	56	11,20
Good	117	37,62	75	39,68	192	38,40
Undecided	19	6,11	9	4,76	28	5,60
Poor	88	28,30	61	32,28	149	29,80
Very poor	52	16,72	23	12,17	75	15,00
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 2,761$; 4df $p = 0,599$ (Not significant)

EDUCATING MOTORISTS BY GIVING THEM ADVICE

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	27	8,68	14	7,41	41	8,20
Good	67	21,54	39	20,63	106	21,20
Undecided	38	12,22	15	7,94	53	10,60
Poor	103	33,12	69	36,51	172	34,40
Very poor	76	24,44	52	27,51	128	25,60
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 3,139$; 4df $p = 0,535$ (Not significant)

ANNEXURE E

SPEED CONTROL

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	44	14,15	26	13,76	70	14,00
Good	116	37,30	77	40,76	193	38,60
Undecided	23	7,40	13	6,86	36	7,20
Poor	97	31,18	55	29,10	152	30,40
Very poor	31	9,97	18	9,52	49	9,80
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 0,610$; 4df $p = 0,962$ (Not significant)

EDUCATING PEDESTRIANS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	29	9,32	12	6,36	41	8,20
Good	49	15,76	41	21,69	90	18,00
Undecided	28	9,00	17	8,99	45	9,00
Poor	102	32,80	63	33,33	165	33,00
Very poor	103	33,12	56	29,63	159	31,80
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 4,032$; 4df $p = 0,402$ (Not significant)

ANNEXURE E

TRACKING DOWN DRUNKEN DRIVERS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	36	11,58	20	10,58	56	11,20
Good	46	14,79	41	21,69	87	17,40
Undecided	40	12,86	17	8,99	57	11,40
Poor	90	28,94	68	35,98	158	31,60
Very poor	99	31,83	43	22,76	142	28,40
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$X^2 = 10,122$; 4df $p = 0,038$ (Significant)

SUPERVISION OF THE TRAFFIC SITUATION BY MEANS OF REGULAR STREET PATROLLING

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	27	8,68	17	8,99	44	8,80
Good	75	24,12	38	20,11	113	22,60
Undecided	26	8,36	20	10,58	46	9,20
Poor	115	36,98	82	43,39	197	39,40
Very poor	68	21,86	32	16,93	100	20,00
TOTAL	311	100	189	100	500	100

$X^2 = 4,137$; 4df $p = 0,388$ (Not significant)

ANNEXURE E

HELPFULNESS

IMAGE DETERMINANT	AFRICAN LANGUAGES		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES		FOREIGN LANGUAGES		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Always	72	19,00	3	3,85	7	16,28	82	16,40
Often	91	24,01	14	17,95	11	25,58	116	23,20
Undecided	25	6,60	15	19,23	4	9,30	44	8,80
Sometimes	148	39,05	40	51,28	17	39,54	205	41,00
Never	43	11,34	6	7,69	4	9,30	53	10,60
TOTAL	379	100	78	100	43	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 25,217$; 4df $p = 0,001$ (Significant)

COMPETENCE IN PERFORMING THEIR DUTIES

IMAGE DETERMINANT	AFRICAN LANGUAGES		SOUTH AFRICAN LANGUAGES		FOREIGN LANGUAGES		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Always	62	16,36	2	2,56	7	16,28	71	14,20
Often	94	24,80	10	12,82	14	32,56	118	23,60
Undecided	53	13,98	22	28,21	6	13,95	81	16,20
Sometimes	129	34,04	41	52,56	12	27,91	182	36,40
Never	41	10,82	3	3,85	4	9,30	48	9,60
TOTAL	379	100	78	100	43	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 32,880$; 4df $p = 0,000$ (Significant)

PREVENTION OF ROAD ACCIDENTS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	18	26,87	31	13,19	12	8,82	2	4,88	1	4,76	64	12,80
Good	15	22,39	63	26,81	26	19,12	6	14,63	5	23,81	115	23,00
Undecided	4	5,97	18	7,66	9	6,62	5	12,20	6	28,57	42	8,40
Poor	26	38,81	85	36,17	57	41,91	16	39,02	6	28,57	190	38,00
Very poor	4	5,97	38	16,17	32	23,53	12	29,27	3	14,29	89	17,80
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 43,356$ 4df p = 0,000 (Significant)

REGULATION OF TRAFFIC FLOW

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	13	19,40	25	10,64	7	5,15	1	2,44	1	4,76	47	9,40
Good	30	44,78	82	34,89	34	25,00	6	14,63	7	33,33	159	31,80
Undecided	5	7,46	16	6,81	10	7,35	4	9,76	1	4,76	36	7,20
Poor	17	25,37	84	35,74	65	47,79	20	48,78	10	47,62	196	39,20
Very poor	2	2,99	28	11,91	20	14,71	10	24,39	2	9,52	62	12,40
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 41,576$ 4df p = 0,000 (Significant)

CONTROL OVER PARKING IN TOWN

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	14	20,90	29	12,34	10	7,35	0	0,00	3	14,29	56	11,20
Good	30	44,78	93	39,57	46	33,82	12	29,27	11	52,38	192	38,40
Undecided	4	5,97	11	4,68	9	6,62	3	7,32	1	4,76	28	5,60
Poor	12	17,91	70	29,79	48	35,29	16	39,02	3	14,29	149	29,80
Very poor	7	10,45	32	13,62	23	16,91	10	24,39	3	14,29	75	15,00
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 28,220$ 4df $p = 0,030$ (Significant)

SPEED CONTROL

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	20	29,85	34	14,47	13	9,56	2	4,88	1	4,76	70	14,00
Good	20	29,85	90	38,30	59	43,38	17	41,46	7	33,33	193	38,60
Undecided	6	8,96	14	5,96	10	7,35	5	12,20	1	4,76	36	7,20
Poor	16	23,88	77	32,77	39	28,68	10	24,39	10	47,62	152	30,40
Very poor	5	7,46	20	8,51	15	11,03	7	17,07	2	9,52	49	9,80
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 29,695$ 4df $p = 0,020$ (Significant)

EDUCATING PEDESTRIANS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	9	13,43	22	9,36	8	5,88	1	2,44	1	4,76	41	8,20
Good	17	25,37	45	19,15	21	15,44	3	7,32	4	19,05	90	18,00
Undecided	5	7,46	24	10,21	10	7,35	3	7,32	3	14,29	45	9,00
Poor	24	35,82	83	35,32	40	29,41	12	29,27	6	28,57	165	33,00
Very poor	12	17,91	61	25,96	57	41,91	22	53,66	7	33,33	159	31,80
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 31,040$ 4df p = 0,013 (Significant)

CONTROL OVER RECKLESS AND NEGLIGENT DRIVING

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	15	22,39	23	9,79	9	6,62	2	4,88	1	4,76	50	10,00
Good	16	23,88	54	22,98	22	16,18	4	9,76	2	9,52	98	19,60
Undecided	3	4,48	16	6,81	9	6,62	4	9,76	4	19,05	36	7,20
Poor	21	31,34	79	33,62	43	31,62	17	41,46	6	28,57	166	33,20
Very poor	12	17,91	63	26,81	53	38,97	14	34,15	8	38,10	150	30,00
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 45,309$ 4df $p = 0,001$ (Significant)

TRACING DANGEROUS DRIVERS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	9	13,43	21	8,94	5	3,68	2	4,88	2	9,52	39	7,80
Good	11	16,42	36	15,32	19	13,97	1	2,44	1	4,76	68	13,60
Undecided	8	11,94	30	12,77	16	11,76	5	12,20	8	38,10	67	13,40
Poor	21	31,34	82	34,89	42	30,88	15	36,59	4	19,05	164	32,80
Very poor	18	26,87	66	28,09	54	39,71	18	43,90	6	28,57	162	32,40
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 41,016$ 4df $p = 0,004$ (Significant)

THE OVERALL ENFORCEMENT OF TRAFFIC LAWS AND REGULATIONS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	7	10,45	22	9,36	7	5,15	1	2,44	2	9,52	39	7,80
Good	19	28,36	73	31,06	36	26,47	7	17,07	4	19,05	139	27,80
Undecided	16	23,88	32	13,62	20	14,71	6	14,63	6	28,57	80	16,00
Poor	21	31,34	81	34,47	43	31,62	16	39,02	5	23,81	166	33,20
Very poor	4	5,97	27	11,49	30	22,06	11	26,83	4	19,05	76	15,20
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 28,332$ 4df p = 0,029 (Significant)

TRACKING DOWN DRUNKEN DRIVERS

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	18	26,87	26	11,06	9	6,62	1	2,44	2	9,52	56	11,20
Good	9	13,43	53	22,55	20	14,71	3	7,32	2	9,52	87	17,40
Undecided	8	11,94	22	9,36	13	9,56	8	19,51	6	28,57	57	11,40
Poor	21	31,34	76	32,34	43	31,62	14	34,15	4	19,05	158	31,60
Very poor	11	16,42	58	24,68	51	37,50	15	36,59	7	33,33	142	28,40
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 47,895$ 4df $p = 0,000$ (Significant)

SUPERVISION OF THE TRAFFIC SITUATION BY MEANS OF REGULAR STREET PATROLLING

LEVEL OF EFFICIENCY	18 - 25 Years		26 - 35 Years		36 - 45 Years		46 - 55 Years		56 + Years		TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	8	11,94	28	11,91	5	3,68	1	2,44	2	9,52	44	8,80
Good	22	32,84	50	21,28	29	21,32	8	19,51	4	19,05	113	22,60
Undecided	6	8,96	20	8,51	10	7,35	4	9,76	6	28,57	46	9,20
Poor	23	34,33	94	40,00	62	45,59	16	39,02	2	9,52	197	39,40
Very poor	8	11,94	43	18,30	30	22,06	12	29,27	7	33,33	100	20,00
TOTAL	67	100	235	100	136	100	41	100	21	100	500	100

$\chi^2 = 35,154$ 4df $p = 0,004$ (Significant)