

EXPLORATORY-DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE PUBLIC IMAGE OF THE POLICE

BY

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, **Phillippus Johannes Potgieter** (ID 4302105005082), hereby declare that the dissertation: *Perceptions of the police image* is my own work, both in conception and design. All the sources of information that I have used or quoted from, have been acknowledged by means of complete chapter references according the APA referencing system.

P.J. POTGIETER

DATE: _____

DEDICATION

The researcher dedicates this research project to all those police officers of the South African Police Service (SAPS) who have elected to serve the rainbow nation with dedication, integrity and honesty. Keep it up!

PROFESSOR (EMERITUS) PHILLIP J. POTGIETER

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No research study, whether at Master's or Doctoral level, can be undertaken without the support and assistance of other people and/or institutions. Space forbids the casting of a word of thanks to all those who have assisted the researcher in one or another way in making the completion of this dissertation more bearable. I would, however, like to thank the following persons and/or instances:

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Professor Phillip Potgieter

OPSOMMING

Titel: *Persepsies van die polisiebeeld.*

Deur: P.J. Potgieter

Suid-Afrika is voor 1994 regeer deur 'n outoritêre regering bekend vir sy onderdrukkende polisiëeringsmetodes, maar is vervang deur 'n demokratiese, nie-paramilitêre polisie-sisteem, die Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens (SAPD). Beide na-kommunistiese (Pole, Lithuanië, Hongarye, ens.) en na-apartheid samelewings het suksesvol daarin geslaag om uit chaotiese oorgangsomgewings te ontsnap maar verduur nog steeds organisatoriese terugslae soos onder andere legitimitetsprobleme, gebruik van dodelike mag, aanspreeklikheid, ens. Die polisie het gedurende die laaste twintig jaar hewige kritiek verduur as gevolg van die polisie se betrokkenheid by ernstige misdaad soos: moord, aanranding, korrupsie, gewapende roof, ens. Ondoeltreffendheid in die hantering van die ernstige misdaadvraagstuk en 'n gebrek aan afskrikkingsmaatstawwe om misdaad en die vrees vir misdaad te besweer, is net sekere van die gereelde kritiek teen die polisie. Televisie, persoonlike waarneming betreffende hoe die polisie hul amptelike pligte uitvoer en koerante, is die mees gesogte beeldvormende bronne.

Ofskoon polisie-legitimiteit gunstig geëvalueer word, blyk dit dat die respondente se persepsies van die ware regverdigingsgrond misplaas is ten gunste van die juridiese basis en 'n oorbeklemtoning van reaktiewe polisiëring. 'n Diepgesete verpligting om misdaad te voorkom is waarneembaar by respondente. Hulle beskou die polisie *nie* as 'n bedreiging vir hul persoonlike vryheid en privaatheid nie en is onvoorwaardelik bereid om die polisie by te staan met misdaadvoorkoming.

Korttermyn polisiëeringsfunksies word as meer belangrik geëvalueer in vergelyke met langtermyn polisiëeringsfunksies. Polisie-eienskappe tydens kontak-situasies met die publiek toon: arrogansie, aggressiwiteit, misbruik van mag en gesag, bruuskheid en korrupsie. Die nie-aanmelding van misdaad word toegeskryf aan negatiewe en apatiese houdings van polisiebeamptes. Publieke verwagtinge betreffende verbeterde dienslewering is nodig om kommunikasie tussen die polisie en publiek te verbeter. Polisiebeamptes behoort aangemoedig te word om sosiale verandering en waardes van demokratiese polisiëring na te streef.

SLEUTELWOORDE: polisie, polisiëring, polisiebeeld, opinies, persepsies, houdings.

SUMMARY

Title: *Perceptions of the police image*

by P.J. Potgieter

Prior to 1994, South Africa was ruled by an authoritarian government known for its repressive policing methods which was replaced by a democratic, non-paramilitary police system, the South African Police Service (SAPS). Policing in both post-communist (Poland, Lithuania, Hungary, etc.) and post-apartheid societies managed to successfully 'escape' from chaotic transitional environments but still suffer similar concerns in terms of police legitimacy, police use of deadly force, accountability, etc. Over the past twenty years, the police image suffered severe criticism because of police involvement in serious crimes like murder, assault, corruption, armed robbery, etc. Inefficiency in dealing with crime and a lack of deterrent measures to prevent crime and the fear of crime are some of regular accusations against the police. Television watching, personal observation or experience about the manner in which the police perform their duty and newspapers are the most important image-forming sources.

Although rated favourably, respondents' perceptions of the true justification of the police appears to be misplaced in favour of the juridical basis and an over-emphasis of reactive policing. A deep-seated obligation to prevent crime is observable among respondents: they *do not* view policing as a threat to their personal freedom and privacy, and are willing to assist the police in preventing crime.

Short-term police functions are rated more important than long-term police functions. Police characteristics during contact sessions with the public indicate arrogance, aggressiveness, abuse of power and authority, brutality and corruption. Non-reporting of crime emanates from negative attitudes and apathy of police officers. Public expectations of improved service delivery are necessary to enhance communication and improving their image. Police officers should be encouraged to change and accept the values of democratic policing

KEYWORDS: Police, policing, police image, opinions, perceptions, attitudes.

DISCLAIMER¹⁾ BY THE RESEARCHER

Academic writing, whether it be a textbook or a research report, faces important and often difficult decisions that needs to be taken in terms of proper grammar and terminology. Wherever the masculine pronouns: *he*, *his* and *him* have been used, women should not feel that they have been deliberately ignored or discriminated against. Where necessary, the researcher also tried to stay as neutral as possible by using the alternative third person *it*. Although the researcher's language is Afrikaans, every caution was taken to write in understandable English terms.

Second, the researcher had to come to terms with the use of the correct terminology relating to the identity of the respondents of four distinctive population groups. Due to an unsatisfactory response by *Indian* and *Coloured* respondents during the data distribution and collection phases, the researcher decided to amalgamate the responses of these populations groups with *African* into the collective term: *black* (as opposed to white respondents). This decision does not negate the true identity of Indian and Coloured respondents in terms of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996); it was done only for practical and statistical reasons. Further, this decision has been based upon a recommendation by Professor P.T. Sibaya of the Faculty of Education and former Vice-Rector (Academic) at the University of Zululand.

PROFESSOR P.J. POTGIETER

¹⁾ With recognition to: R. Trojanowicz and B. Bucqueroux. *Community policing: A contemporary perspective*. Cincinnati, Ohio: Anderson Publishing (1990).

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CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Carl Klockars (1985:13) of the University of Delaware, United States of America asks the following question: “Why do we have police at all? Why should it be necessary in a democratic society that the state should create an entity equipped with the general right to use force, even deadly force?” Klockars (1985:17) responds to his own question by saying: “We must have them to deal with all those [social] problems in which coercive force may have to be used”. Unfortunately, this viewpoint does not take into account that *law enforcement* should not come to be viewed one-sidedly as the primary and only function of democratic policing. *Proactive (or deterrent) policing measures* by means of police presence and police visibility when performing their role still remain the primary function of any police institution since the use of coercive force is not necessarily compatible with the values of democratic policing.

Traditionally, the police mandate to ensure order and peaceful coexistence in democratic societies are based on two important ‘pillars’. Firstly, *proactive policing* is primarily achieved through crime deterrent measures and/or activities, almost all of which are or should be ‘community service’ driven. Examples are: sound police-community relations, police omnipresence by means of role visibility in the form of foot or mobile patrol, adjuration of citizens’ fear of crime by means of educating people about their own safety and security measures, etc. Secondly, when some or all the preventative measures have failed or are neglected to the extent that crime gets out of hand, *reactive policing* becomes inevitable (only as a last resort). The restoration of the social order is usually undertaken by means of *repressive policing* (law enforcement) techniques and tactics, e.g. crime detection, arrest, detention, interrogation, etc. in which the remaining two components of the criminal justice system – the courts and corrections – are playing a vital role (Van Heerden, 1982:8-10; cf. Lyman, 1999). However, Bayley (1994:10) argues that it is a *myth* to believe that contemporary police are capable of

preventing crime successfully. Lancaster (2013:15) is convinced that the South African criminal justice system currently finds itself in a *crisis*, especially when it transpires that, since the ‘financial injection’ of R60 milliard in 2001 into this system, it is doubtful whether it has by any means become more accessible, more efficient and justified to honour its functional obligations. Annual research by the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) of South Africa into the criminal justice system has shown that since the year 2000, only 37% South Africans confirmed their trust in the ‘system’. In 2007, public trust reached a somewhat higher level of 49% before it eventually peaked at 57% in 2009. A seven-point plan was then proposed to improve public trust in the court-system (Lancaster, 2013:15).

Social factors or circumstances over which the police have no control, such as: government’s promises to create thousands of jobs, but eventually an incapability to honour such empty promises continue to culminate into greater poverty, unemployment, low or no income for thousands of families, poor housing conditions, and an inefficient criminal justice system, etc., making it difficult if not impossible to root out crime as typical social pathological behaviour. Another important aspect that appears to be indicative of police incapability to successfully contend with crime in South Africa is the rapid growth of the private security industry over the past two decades. While the police maintain the legal jurisdiction in the areas where they are stationed, it appears that private security guards are constantly visible (especially in large shopping malls), protecting life and private property and although restricted to act within their appointed domains, they have not only “...become the first line of defense against crime in much of modern life” (Bayley, 1994:11), but are exceptionally important in the social well-being of South Africans as the largest crime prevention entity (Potgieter 2008, in Cordner, Cordner & Das, 2010:404; defenceWeb, 2013).

Apart from its functional orientation, policing largely depends on formal social control which entails all the processes by which members of a given society are motivated, persuaded or obliged to regulate their behaviour in such a way that it promotes peaceful and harmonious functioning according prevailing norms and values. The maintenance of law and order is usually achieved by means of measures such as *formal* (coercive or restricting) and *informal* (persuasive or conditioning) control. *Formal control* entails a system of laws which prohibits and deters

deviant human behaviour on pain of punishment, as well as the execution of such laws by the police through law enforcement. The mere presence of laws does not guarantee conformity simply because some laws are not acceptable to all members of a multicultural society, like for instance, the proposed Information Protection Bill. Disobedience to the laws places social order in jeopardy (Van Heerden, 1982:10-11).

Informal social control appears to be more effective in homogenous societies. However, it is also established through the inculcation of cultural values and norms (laws) in the minds of the young and other people through the *socialisation* or the *upbringing process* and the concomitant processes of *internalisation* and ultimate *institutionalisation* that normally take place at home (family), school, church or among the peer group. Formal control becomes necessary to the extent that informal control has failed (Van Heerden, 1982:11).

It follows that the normative nature of the police role (instituted by the South African Police Service Act No 68 of 1995) may cause the public to foster certain expectations of the police: in the case of the commission of crime, to apprehend the perpetrator(s) according democratic prescriptions so that he or she could ultimately be removed from society and taken to a correctional institution after having been convicted in a court of law. Ironically, crime captivates the minds of people but also frightens them off. Countless stories, novels, movies and television programs are based on criminal actions/behaviour or contain information about crime, whether it represents true reflections from the past or include present fabrications. Policing is a thought-provoking and controversial activity, dynamic in nature and extent (Lyman, 1999:4-5). However, what seems to be missing in contemporary democratic policing is the true, proactive orientation of the police role subscribing to the notion that ‘prevention is better than cure’ – the first and most important bedrock in any society. It is also important for members of the public to be aware about the extent of crime, know the degree of their fear of crime as well as the role of the police in suppressing it while, at the same time, observing the constitutional rights of citizens (Lyman, 1999:6). However, this author warns that while it is important to afford the police legal authority and, therefore, legitimacy to pursue their task of preventing and/or detecting criminal activities, the public must also be cautious about having a too powerful police system. In any democratic country people are supposed to live “ ...in a free society, that is, a democracy carefully designed

to afford its people the right to be free from both the fear of crime and criminals but also from the horrors of an oppressive police state” (Lyman, 1999:28). The police are often accused of abusing their power and authority. Perceptions in this regard may be the result of inaccurate stereotypes, media hype, personal bias or even the truth. If true, however, it may become a serious concern relating to the impairment of personal freedom and dignity.

In summary, it could be said that *social order* prevails “...whenever a system of people, relationships and customs function smoothly to promote the realisation of the task or objective of society, namely orderly and peaceful co-existence” (Van Heerden, 1982:8). This would mean that when a country has *no crime*, it could be said it enjoys peace and order. However, it should be borne in mind that as soon as police role visibility disappears, disorder may become imminent. As will be seen later in this research report, crime and disorder should be given due consideration and spread at all organisational levels of the police institution; it should not be left to the functional (or frontline) patrol units only.

1.2 BRIEF HISTORICAL PROFILE OF POLICING IN GENERAL

The development of policing during the so-called *primitive period* up to the introduction of the Code of Hammurabi (2100 B.C.), the first criminal code which not only specified criminal offences but also prescribed the relevant punishments, had been introduced by rulers like Lipitishar and Eshnunna (Van Heerden, 1982:20). Policing was also theoretically researched in Egypt (cf. Eldefonso, Coffey & Grace, 1968) and even the role of the Roman Emperor, Caesar Augustus (27 B.C.) in establishing some form of policing which was known during the reign of the Roman Empire, had also been well-documented. In Britain, for instance, Critchley (cf. 1967) provides an historical overview of ‘police’ in England and Wales since 900-1966, Folley (cf. 1973) and Fosdick (cf. 1969) discussed the history of American law enforcement as well as European police systems. The development of policing in England which proceeded through three important stages of history (cf. Reith, 1956; Critchley, 1967; Van Heerden, 1982:19-25) also had a profound influence on the historical development of policing in South Africa like:

- The communal nature of police work (cooperation between the police and the community in some sort of partnership-fashion);
- The influence of common law (police officers were simply regarded as ordinary citizens who were paid to perform a task which every citizen was required to perform voluntarily, implying that policing was never meant to relieve ordinary citizens from their responsibility to police themselves. One important principle of policing, namely that the police are the public and the public are the police enunciated by Sir Robert Peel, remained constant to this day; and
- Recognising that police officers occupy the same legal position as other members of society.

Policing in countries like England, the United States of America, Australia, Namibia and South Africa, for instance, is based on customs and principles with a long historical development; especially those which eventually culminated into the British system of policing which eventually left South Africa in a state of colonialism. The *Metropolitan Police Act* of 1829 actually paved the way for what is known today as *policed societies* through organised policing. However, until such time that Sir Robert Peel introduced his first system of organised policing in England in 1829, safety and security remained the responsibility of each and every individual person. This state of affairs would have actually rendered organised policing superfluous simply because it was linked to the *military function* – perhaps the reason why present-day policing still reflects a paramilitary character and why the SAPS was changed from a service to a *force* and given military ranks. In other words, it would appear that the SAPS decided to change its organisational culture of ‘democratic policing’ to that of a military model (cf. Crank, 1998), projecting a ‘crime fighter image’ and the use of force – in some cases deadly force (cf. Beyer, 1996). The re-militarisation of the SAPS took place on 1 April 2010.

Although much have been written about police and policing following the beginning of organised policing in England during the Peelian era of 1829, Wiatrowski (2004:7) opines that the “...theory of policing has not kept pace with the problem of crime and the fear of crime in post-authoritarian societies (like South Africa). Only with a few exceptions there has been insignificant fundamental theorising about the police role and functions in post-conflict societies,

but none of these are addressing the level of a theory about policing in emerging democracies as a new paradigm shift. Theories that do impact on democratic policing were mostly written by academics and not by police officers or other related professionals. These writings attempt to develop *strategic directions* for policing. In the USA, for instance, Egon Bittner's work: *The Functions of Police in Modern Society* (1979), Herman Goldstein's: *Policing in a Free Society* (1979) and his *Problem-Oriented Policing* (1990), David Bayley's: *Police for the Future* (1994), Robert Trojanowicz and Bonnie Bucqueroux: *Community Policing* (1990) and: *Community Policing: how to get started* (1993), George and Catherine Coles: *Fixing Broken Windows: Restoring Order and Reducing Crime in Our Communities* (1996), etc. are some examples.

1.3 THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS)

Generally speaking, policing is virtually old as mankind itself. For example, the *Praetorian Guard* which existed during the time of the Roman Empire as the first large city police force, the *Gendarmerie Nationale* of France which comprised about 90 000 personnel, was divided into two divisions: the *Provincial Gendarmerie* and the *Mobile Gendarmerie*. However, the first organised police unit, known as the Bow Street Runners, came into being in 1750 and were the predecessor to a more organised and centralised police system, known as the London Metropolitan Police of which Patrick Colquhoun had been regarded the 'architect'. His well-known principles of modern policing are still observable in a contemporary South African context. Sir Robert Peel, however, is widely known as the 'father' and builder of modern policing. The nickname *Bobby* derived from his surname is still a generic term for a policeman. It was under Peel's leadership that Britain got its real, organised police force in 1829 in terms of the *Metropolitan Police Act* (Van Heerden, 1982:24-25; Lyman, 1999:67-68; cf. Steenkamp, 2002). Like in England round about 1760 when the Industrial Revolution broke out, history in South Africa also proceeded at a fast tempo. Colonialism got the upper hand to the extent that the first organised colonial police organisation, the *South African Police (SAP)* was established on 1 April 1913. It underwent many transformations and finally became a repressive police force on 4 June 1948 when the National Party (NP) took charge of the South African government (cf. National Party, 2012). After 46 years or so, the SAP had been replaced by what is believed to be a democratic *police service*, known as the South African Police Service (SAPS). This 'police

service’ was introduced early in 1995 with the objective of providing the following services at a national level (stipulated in the Preamble to the S.A. Police Service Act no 68 of 1995), namely to:

- “ensure the safety and security of all persons and property in the national territory [of South Africa];
- uphold and safeguard the fundamental rights of every person as guaranteed in Chapter 3 of the Constitution;
- ensure cooperation between the Service and the communities it serves in the combating of crime;
- reflect respect for victims of crime and an understanding of their needs; and
- ensure effective civilian supervision over the Service” (South African Police Service Act, 68 of 1995:6).

Unlike most police organisations across the world, the current SAPS has a relatively short history of almost two decades and as such finds itself still in its ‘infant stage’. Actually, the erstwhile SAP has been phased out and replaced by the SAPS in terms of section 214(1) of the *Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, (Act no 200 of 1993) and finally formalised in terms of the S.A. Police Service Act no.68 of 1995, which also included the amalgamated police organisations of the pre-democratic existing TBVC-entities as well as several other ‘homeland’ police institutions, among other, the Gazankulu Police, Qwaqwa Police, KwaZulu Police, etc. The newly introduced police service retained its centralised command posture with bureaucratic tendencies (military-type rank structure, hierarchical management levels with top-down communication, and the like) with only one ‘chief’ or ‘general’ occupying the apex of the ‘pyramidal’ structure (cf. Potgieter, 1982; Burger, 2007:95; SAPS Profile, 2012).

Former and first President of the newly found South African democratic dispensation, Mr. Nelson Mandela, remnant of the ‘apartheid’ era appointed a white member and commissioned officer of the erstwhile S.A. Police (SAP), General George Fivaz (and commissioned police officer with extensive previous policing experience and academic qualifications) to lead the newly established S.A. Police Service (Figure 1.1).

FIGURE 1.1(Photo)

FOUR COMMISSIONERS

(Fivaz, Selebi, Cele & Phiyega)

General Fivaz honoured his official call to such an extent that he was the first *successful police commissioner* tasked “...to handle a proper transition in those stormy days” (SAPS Profile, 2012; Potgieter, 2012:5). After his five-year contract expired, General Fivaz was succeeded by General Jackie Selebi (an ANC-comrade) with no previous policing experience and who has been also appointed Chief of INTERPOL. Selebi unfortunately got involved in corruption practices and eventually ended up in gaol after a fifteen year sentence was handed down to him. He was succeeded by General Bheki Cele (also an ANC-comrade from KwaZulu-Natal). He also had no previous policing experience. Unfortunately, Cele got entangled in mismanagement and related fraudulent-type misconduct, etc. and was ultimately removed from office. Cele was replaced by the fourth, but first woman commissioner with no previous policing experience, General Riah Phiyega (appointed by Pres. Zuma) – Figure 1.1.

FIGURE 1.2 COMPARISON OF POLICE RANKS IN THREE STAGES: SAP (APARTHEID), SAPS (DEMOCRATIC ERA) AND “NEW” RANKS (DEMOCRATIC ERA): SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

S.A.P. RANKS (1948-1994 - Traditional or Apartheid Era)	S.A.P.S. RANKS (1995-2010 - Emergent Democratic Era)	“NEW RANKS” (2010 - Present, ‘Democratic Era)
General (Commissioner)	Commissioner	General (Commissioner)
-	Deputy National Commissioner	-
Lieutenant-General	Deputy Commissioner	Lieutenant-General
Major-General	Assistant-Commissioner	Major-General
Brigadier	Director	Brigadier
Colonel	Senior Superintendent	Colonel
Lieutenant-Colonel	Superintendent	Lieutenant-Colonel
Major	Superintendent – 2 nd Leg	Major
Captain	Captain	Captain
Lieutenant	(Merged with Captain)	Lieutenant
Warrant-Officer	Inspector	Warrant-Officer
Sergeant/Lance Sergeant	-	Sergeant
Constable	Constable	Constable

(Source: <http://www.defenceweb.co.za/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=...> (Retrieved on 2010/06/17).

Democratic Alliance spokeswoman, Dianne Kohler-Barnard (Defenceweb, 2010:2), argued that the adoption of ‘apartheid’ police ranks (Figure 1.2, last column) which aimed at re-militarising the police is only intended to divert the public’s attention from the (un)successful handling of the real crime problem by the police and to create an illusion of ‘getting tough’ on crime. It appears unfathomable how the police are throwing dust in the public’s eyes by pretending to contend crime and thus maintain social order while a new forensic laboratory to “... get rid of the 23 000 sample backlogs” [in 2010] (Defenceweb, 2010:2), upgrading police officer training in solving crime scientifically, has not yet been finalised.

How did it all happen? On 1 April 2010 at the Voortrekker Monument in Pretoria, President Jacob Zuma announced a name-change for the SAPS, similar to that of the police force of the ‘apartheid-era’ at a special meeting with approximately 1 800 police leaders and managers (Keppler, 2009:1) – see Figure 1.2 for the different rank structures before and after the advent of democracy: Since 1 April 2010, the SAPS are apparently following in the footsteps of the erstwhile SAP, remnant of the previous authoritarian political dispensation, known for having constantly exceeded its legal ‘boundaries’ during interaction with members of the public such as human rights violations, disregard for personal integrity, etc. (cf. Govender, 2013). The similarities between the erstwhile SAP and the present SAPS briefly are: most members of the SAPS are carrying 9mm pistols on their person; have the same military ranks and wear similar blue uniforms as the erstwhile SAP, the name of the Secretariat for ‘Safety and Security’ has been changed to ‘Secretariat of Police’, an increase in police brutality as well as a rise in civilian deaths at the hands of the police have been observed, etc. (Defenceweb, 2010:1-2).

It has been reported by the press that members of the SAPS were involved in criminal actions of a serious nature since the establishment of democracy in South Africa on 27 April 1994. In a hot-from-the-oven announcement by Transparency International and local media revealed the SAPS to be the most corrupt government department compared to all the other departments of the South African Civil Services (Sapa & Beeld, 2013:4). It has also been confirmed that 1148 police officers with criminal records who are still in the service of the police have fraudulently pretended they had no previous convictions at the time of the completion of their application forms by means of submitting wrong sets of fingerprints (Obabalo Ndenze, 2013:5) and/or asked

a colleague to undergo psychometric test on their behalf, etc., SAPS-members with criminal records are still working in the police (Philda Essop, 2013:2; Beeld, 2013:16). The following breakdown by rank and crimes committed has been reported by the written media (newspapers): Major-General: 1, Brigadier: 10, Colonel: 21, Major: 10, Lieutenant-Colonel: 43, Captain: 163, Warrant-Officer: 706 and Constable: 129. The shock disclosures of police officers who are working for the SAPS while having criminal records revealed the following different crimes apparently committed by those police officers: murder, culpable homicide, rape, assault, aiding an escape from lawful custody, theft, house breaking (burglary), drug trafficking, kidnapping, robbery, the malicious damage to property and domestic violence (Obabalo Ndenze, 2013: 5).

Subsequently, it is important to state the research rationale (problem statement) and the methodological issues implemented, mostly to provide a more *theoretical* or *philosophical background* which contributed to the eventual research outcomes. Real *practical issues* relating to the application of research methodology will be discussed in Chapter 3, for example: aims and objectives of the study, hypotheses, mixed-methods approach, research techniques, documentary review, sampling, scales of measurement, reliability (Chronbach) and validity (Factor analysis) tests, etc.

1.4 RESEARCH RATIONALE

The topicality of the police role in a democratic society, dwindling public confidence and trust in and respect for policing, apparently as a result of insufficient or even inefficient service delivery by the police as well as everyday media reports about the unacceptability of police performance and behaviour when executing their official duties, are all colluding factors in forming the primary reason for an explorative study into the image of the police. Based on the null-hypothesis, it could be assumed that the image of the South African Police Service (SAPS) is not on par with public perceptions and expectations about police service delivery which, subsequently, result in negative relationships between these two entities. It cannot be denied that the recent suspension of two national commissioners, viz. Bheki Cele, former (third) national commissioner of the South African Police Service (SAPS) for mismanagement and the conviction and the fifteen year sentence of Jackie Selebi for corruption, and the previous Chief of

INTERPOL and predecessor to Bheki Cele, dealt a tremendous blow to the image of the police. Likewise, the withdrawal of alleged criminal charges by the National Prosecution Authority (NPA) such as murder and corruption which were brought against another top police figure, Lieutenant-General Richard Mdluli some time ago, apparently because of ‘influence from above’ or the internal web of intrigue (Sally Evans, 2013:2), also caused much furore among the public of South Africa (Kitshoff & Steenkamp, 2012:9). And while the NPA withdrew all criminal charges against Mdluli, this very important pillar of justice has been ordered by the North-Gauteng High Court to reinstate the criminal charges against Mdluli (Editor, Rapport Weekly, 2013:2). Andrew Faull of the Institute of Security Studies (ISS) (Meyer, 2012:2) suggests that crime and policing have been politicised in South Africa and described the constant changes in strategies in crime prevention during the past five years as ‘institutional schizophrenia’.

Apart from some police officers allegedly becoming increasingly involved in the commission of serious crimes and using lethal force is causing more pain and confusion than any hope of being protected by the protectors and a guarantee of less or no fear in a crime-free society. Issuing ‘shoot-to-kill’ or ‘answer-fire-with-fire’-statements by the erstwhile Deputy Minister of Police, Me. Susan Shabangu, and apparently supported by suspended Commissioner, General Bheki Cele, etc. (Jika & Ntsaluba 2011:4; The Mercury 2009:1; The Star 2009:1; Rapport 2009:6), in an effort to get even with crime syndicates may have facilitated a perception among the public that ‘war has broken out’ (creating a *crime fighting image*), especially against the background of 568 people killed by the police during the 2008-09 financial year, including 32 innocent bystanders (Rapport 2009:4). All these events over-emphasised the use of reactive policing measures at the expense of proactive police initiatives in an attempt to deter the presence of genuine serious crime precipitants in South Africa (see par. 1.1).

Political parties from the ranks of the Opposition are sceptical about improved police abilities to keep crime under control because improvements to revamping the whole criminal justice system promised by government still remains ‘lip talk’ (The Witness, 2010:3). All these and similar factors not mentioned or highlighted here, apparently contributed to adopting negative perceptions of the police by the public as an institution legitimised to protect and serve the very same public who ‘voted for them’, perhaps better described as: ‘trigger-happy’, ‘criminal’ and

‘reckless’ (Rapport, 2009:1). Public perceptions and opinions of police behaviour, performance and circumstances surrounding the apparent ineffective execution of the police mandate relating to the upholding of law and order and reassuring public safety within the framework of a democratic society have not yet been subjected to empirical verification since 1994. The nature of the public’s image of the police in a post-authoritarian era as legitimate protectors of law-abiding citizens’ constitutional rights to peaceful co-existence has therefore become an absolute necessity in view of the fact that policing is being regarded a ‘public property’.

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Apart from being an introductory chapter to studying the public image of the police, Chapter one also contains theoretical-descriptive information about the working (research) method followed by the researcher to gather analytical data and related qualitative information about the topic, in other words, a typical mixed-methods approach. For instance, being the dominant research method, quantitative applications allowed the researcher to ‘measure’ a selected group’s (sample) perceptions, opinions and/or attitudes pertaining to the public image of the police, and for that reason, the researcher regarded it appropriate to highlight ‘theoretical undertones’ relating to this approach. Chapter 3 is reserved for the interpretation of the *technical side* of the quantitative approach followed, e.g. statistical techniques used, reliability and validity test applied, factor analysis, and the like. The question, however, remains: Exactly what is regarded to be a *research design*?

Referring to Selltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (cf. 1965), Mouton and Marais (1993:32) went along to define *research design* as the “...arrangement of conditions for collecting and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure”. Unlike anti-positivistic (qualitative) research, and favouring *emergent designs*, positivists believe in the existence of a research design (or plan) that is clearly set-out before the remainder of data collection phases take off and which subscribes to the natural-scientific approach (Welman et al, 2005:6,192). For Selltiz et al, (1965:50), research design is built on two pillars: *designing* and *planning*. ‘Designing’ should be thought of as the vital decisions researchers have to take when ‘planning’ a research project (or when architects have to design

and plan their buildings – especially as far as the kind of building material, quantity and quality of each item is concerned). Designing and planning is of special importance to quantitative researchers who have to negotiate a large enough sample from a population and moreover, to ensure reliability and validity (Mouton & Marais, 1993:32-33). What most researchers would argue should be regarded as the *phases* or *steps* of the research process, other writers of methodology textbooks regard them as the *research design process* (Simon & Burstein, 1969:87-95).

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Before a researcher could set the sails for putting together the ‘building blocks’ of the *research planning* and *design* of a scientific inquiry, Van der Westhuizen (1982:2-3) insists that researchers should seriously consider the *objectives* of criminological/criminal justice research as real guidelines when undertaking empirical research. Briefly, these objectives are:

- To *describe* the social phenomenon to be studied based on theoretical or statistical facts through one or other fact finding mission in an attempt to establish whatever is known about the referent object. In the present study the *public image of the police* is being measured and described in terms of a variety of operationalised (dependent) variables.
- *Explanation* of trends and patterns emanating from the data pertaining to the referent object being studied based on cross-correlation of data.
- *Prediction* of group or individual [police] behaviour, using prediction techniques such as: *categorisation* and *extrapolation*.
- Exercising *symbolic control* over the referent object, such as determining the increases or decreases in the illegal police killing of civilians. Researchers usually attempt to control such individual police behaviour by means of uncovering and eradicating factors contributing towards such deviant behaviour by means of recommendations (Welman et al, 2005:23-24).

Descriptive techniques are used or implemented to describe a social phenomenon (or problem) by means of different techniques such as verbal-scientific, categorical and numerical descriptive techniques. Apart from *verbal-scientific* and *typological* description, *statistical* description is the most common objective in quantitative (empirical) research projects. Explanatory techniques are used to *explain* the observed characteristics or trends of the social phenomenon under study. *Tabular analysis* is used in such cases, based on frequency distributions. *Correlation analysis* entails the plotting of two variables – usually an independent and a dependent variable – against each other in a logical-statistical way to reveal: (a) the presence/absence of any association - and if it exists, (b) the direction of such association and (c) estimation of the nature and strength of it (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:11-13).

1.7 RESEARCH METHODS

Welman et al, (2005:2) clearly indicate that *research* involves a process through which knowledge about a social phenomenon is obtained in an objective way. While it is true that the term *objective* is associated with research methods that do not rely on personal feelings or opinions, *specific methods* [and *techniques*] are used at each stage of the research process to ensure reliability and validity of procedure and data. Research methods have a wider application and impact than research techniques. Historically, criminal justice researchers have three major research methods to choose from when they embark on positivistic research: case analysis, mass observation and *analytical* methods. The first two are indicated as being *particular*, i.e. having the quality of being individual or unique in their own right. In scientific research, *case analysis* is applied on the individual-human level only, while the method of *mass observation* (such as *statistical figures*) become operative at the group level (e.g. implementing social surveys to measure a social phenomenon from the viewpoint of a large amount or quantity of respondents). The *analytical method*, on the contrary, is regarded a neutral ‘tool’ because it is capable of operating at both case and mass observation levels simultaneously. For instance, experienced researchers often implement the mass observation method as a *technique* to the analytical research method (cf. Van der Westhuizen, 1982; Potgieter & Mersham, 2002:5-7). A qualitative

orientation allows the researcher to revert to valuable information forthcoming from the printed media reporting on aspects that may exert either a positive or negative image of the South African Police Service (SAPS). For instance, in his doctoral study: *Body guarding in a private security context*, Ras (2006:79-82) made extensive use of qualitative research in his approach to gathering information on a topic that was never explored in South Africa before and provided valid reasons for his decision. While it may be correct to assume that there is much ‘ill will’ among the subscribers or followers of each style of research, viz. qualitative versus quantitative, it stands to reason that a search for the truth could be imminent in both approaches. Personal choice or taste should never dominate whatever is needed to understand and unveil social reality. Rather, a mixed-methodology should be the answer in specific cases, like the present study, which is predominantly dependent upon attitude measurement. The only choice should reside in which one of the two approaches would be the dominant and which the less-dominant, in supplementing each other. This ‘dual’ methodological approach is best known as a *mixed methodology*, proffered by Tashakkori and Teddlie, (cf. 1998) and entails a dominant-less-dominant inclination: the quantitative approach is the dominant and the qualitative approach the less-dominant approach. Both methods have a place in social research.

1.8 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Research techniques are *aids* in the research process (cf. Van der Westhuizen 1982:10-11). Following are some of the research techniques that will be implemented in the present study: literature study, unstructured interviewing, measuring instrument (questionnaire), scaling procedures, sampling and statistical techniques.

1.8.1 Measuring instrument

The main statistical technique implemented in the present study entails the development and construction of a pre-coded, structured questionnaire containing 59 variables (Annexure A) to effect attitude measurement. Section A contains the *independent variables*, while the remainder of the sections, B to E, contains the variables which operationalise the social phenomenon being

investigated, viz. *the public image of the police* (scales of factor analysis: 1, 2 and 3 are also indicated – see par. 1.8.1.1 below):

1.8.1.1 Questionnaire (survey)

The questionnaire which has been constructed for the purpose of collecting data for this study entails a closed-structured document requesting respondents to carefully read the statements presented under the various sections (see below) of the measuring instrument and insert a cross (X) in the appropriate block next to each question/statement/dependent variable that best reflects their opinion, perception or attitude regarding the SAPS. While these questions or statement are referred to as dependents variables, together they all represent operationalised variations of the dependent variable: *the image of the police*. The various sections of the survey are (Annexure A):

- Section A: Demographic information of the respondents who participated in the study (Variables 1-5).
- Section B: Right (justification) of the existence (legitimacy) of the South African Police Service/Force (Variables 6-10, 21-22).
- Section C: Importance of selected police functions (Variables 11-20. **Scale 1**=Selected police functions (Variables 23-31).
- Section D: Police characteristics when executing their official duties (Variables 32-43. **Scale 2**=Police characteristics).
- Section E: Promoting/improving the image of the police (Variables 44-59. **Scale 3**=Improving the police image).

For the purpose of data loading a *coding sheet* has been created to assist in transferring (importing) the data onto the SPSS-program (Annexure B). All scientific and ethical requirements pertaining to questionnaire construction and development proffered by Kenneth D. Bailey (cf. 1982) as well as other researchers have, as far as possible, been followed and adhered to. Unfortunately, *space* does not allow for an in-depth discussion of all those scientific requirements.

1.8.1.2 Scaling procedure: Likert-type scale

Scaling refers to the “...process of attempting to develop a composite measurement of ranked or unit measurement of [social] phenomena” (Hagan, 2000:323). Three prominent types of attitude scales are available to social researchers: *Thurstone scales*, which require a series of ‘judges’ to decide on relevant scale items, *Guttman scales* which strive towards measuring unidimensionality to ensure that such scale measures only one dimension or one social phenomenon at a time. Semantic differential scales containing a bipolar rating system, factor analysis, crime seriousness scales, prediction scales, etc., all belong to Q-sort methodologies, i.e. variations of the Thurstone scale procedure in which statements (variables) are written on cards into assigned scale categories (Hagan, 2000:322-324). The third, and most important scale implemented in the present study, is the *Likert-type scale* developed in 1932 by Rensis Likert. Also known as a summated-rating scale, the Likert-summated rating scaling procedure (Welman et al, 2005:156) contains items (usually in matrix or single format) that could be measured by different response categories, e.g. 5-point (or 7-point) response categories, ranging from one extreme (e.g. positive) to another extreme (e.g. negative) calibrated responses: (1) definitely (2) to a large extent (3) undecided (4) to a lesser extent (5) not at all (see variable 8). Other variations could be: (1) always (2) often (3) undecided (4) sometimes (5) never (see variable 10) or (1) absolutely necessary (2) necessary (3) undecided (4) unnecessary (5) absolutely unnecessary (see variable 6). The mere fact that respondents are confronted or placed in a position to make the correct choice among five possible response categories is what makes a typical Likert-scale such a *unique attitude measuring scale*. For instance, what is ‘right’ for one respondent regarding a specific statement relating to an aspect of police behaviour may be ‘wrong’ to another respondent. Apart from *rank-order* scaling or *ordinal measurement*, the researcher is also poised to implement *nominal rating scales* that contain two mutually exclusive attributes (1 or 2 / yes or no) (De Vos et al, 2005:138-139). Paul Spector (cf. 1992) provides a complete introduction to *summated rating scale construction*. Three latitude-properties (i.e. commitment, non-commitment and rejection) belonging to Likert-type scaling procedures are discussed below.

Advantages of using attitude measuring scales, like the Likert-type scale procedure, are that: (1) they provide more composite and accurate measuring, (2) are more suitable to undertake longitudinal assessments, and (3) they precipitate more thorough thinking and scale application on the part of a researcher. Scale measurement may create the idea of artificiality in regard to the variable language used (Hagan, 2000:324).

1.8.1.2.1. Response calibrations

After the data collection phase of an empirical research project has been concluded, a researcher is encouraged to *condense* or *collapse* the five response categories of a Likert-type scale with inherent or similar measuring properties (Neuman & Wiegand, 2000:152) into combined and more composite latitudes. This ‘cramming process’ of the five categories into smaller and less categories enables a researcher to present data and express statistical outcomes in more manageable format, especially in the case of bivariate analyses. Authors like Sherif, Sherif & Nebergal (1965:233-234) came to the rescue of social science researchers when they developed a structure according to which the latitudes of response freedom could be accommodated, and more than a decade later, Warren & Jahoda (1979:396-397) not only confirmed a workable structure for response calibration, but also emphasised the necessity of building a *neutral response* into a 5 or 7-point Likert-type measuring scale, which would mean ‘democratising’ responses by not ‘forcing’ respondents to respond in either of the positive or negative categories. The latitudes referred to here, are:

Strongly Agree / Agree	}	Latitude of <i>acceptance</i> . (favourable/positive response/attitude).
Undecided / Not sure	}	Latitude of <i>non-commitment</i> . (neutral response/opinion/attitude).
Disagree / Strongly Disagree	}	Latitude of <i>rejection</i> . (unfavourable/negative response/opinion).

The above-mentioned authors regard the method of response calibration of a typical 5 or 7-point Likert-type scale to be of special importance in the operational measurement of attitudes, primarily to determine the degree (latitudes or variations) of *acceptance, neutrality and rejection* of a referent object (e.g. any dependent variable responsive to *the public image of the police*). Degrees or latitudes of variation constitute the *essence* or the *fundamental structure* of perceptions, opinions or attitudes (cf. Sherif et al, 1965).

1.8.2 Sampling procedure

Social research is based on two mainstream approaches to sampling: *probability sampling* which entails randomisation, versus *non-probability sampling* which does not implement randomisation. Goddard and Melville (2001:52) confirm that quantitative data has numerical values, while qualitative data has values that fall into different categories such as: animal, vegetable, buildings, etc. In the first case, random sampling becomes important when a researcher wants to generalise from the sample to the larger population and, by doing so, to allow him/her to draw conclusions or inferences about the population from which the sample was collected. This approach is also known as probability sampling, i.e. where every individual in that population has an equal chance of being selected and included in the final sample (De Vos et al, 2005:196-197). In non-probability sampling the odds (sampling estimates) of selecting specific individuals are not known simply because the size of the population is unknown or blurred due to *imperfect sampling conditions* (cf. Maxfield & Babbie, 1998). The present study implements a *non-probability* approach and, more specifically, a *purposive (judgmental) sampling* technique, blended with *accidental* or *convenient* sampling. Purposive or judgmental sampling has been chosen for three practical reasons: (1) because of the widespread location of the different areas of sampling across the country (see Table 1.1), (2) the researcher has a specific *purpose* in mind with the present scientific inquiry and it was unknown whether the sampling units would be representative of the entire South African population prior to selecting an area due to unknown sampling estimates and (3) in essence, the present study remains exploratory in nature and extent. Accidental sampling provided room for the convenient selection of sampling units (i.e. units of analysis) that can be reached relative easily and at a reasonable cost (Karademir, 2012:132) and which are available for research purposes whenever

the opportunity presented itself (Neuman & Wiegand, 2000:197; Hagan, 2000:143; Welman et al, 2005:68-69). Therefore, the sampling procedure does not entirely rest on the accidental sampling technique *per se*. Although the researcher is aware of the shortcomings imputed to accidental sampling, the following considerations nevertheless compelled the researcher to revert to non-probability sampling (De Vos *et al.* 2005:194):

- *Feasibility.* For the purpose of the present study, a complete coverage of the total sample of individuals in the Republic of South Africa was totally out of the question. Without getting into a real geographical breakdown of the country, it suffices to state that it was highly improbable that each and every South African citizen of approximately 52,8 million inhabitants could have been reached.
- *Time and cost.* These considerations collectively played a crucial role in the decision to rather implement non-probability sampling to secure more accurate information than might have been obtained if each and everyone in the selected provinces would have been involved. The time dimension, for instance, dictated quick action to sporadic reports about police misbehaviour as well as exemplary police conduct by both the electronic and written media during police performance, stretching from 1994 till 2013.

1.8.2.1 Data collection

Table 1.1 reveals the three provinces in South Africa which have been involved in the sampling process: Limpopo, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. These provinces were arbitrarily selected and most of the people who could act as reliable field workers have been known to the researcher (e.g. his twin daughters residing in Belville, Cape Town). In KwaZulu-Natal, for instance, school principals, a council member of the Uthungulu District Council, lecturers and a professor at the University of Zululand, a business executive, etc. could, among other, be recruited as field workers. In the North Province two professors of Criminology at the University Limpopo (UL), close to Polokwane, as well as a senior lecturer of the Department of Criminal Justice at the University of Venda in Thohoyandou could be involved as field workers.

An expected frequency (f_e) estimated at N=750 sampling units across the three provinces has been collectively accepted as constituting a large enough sample from which valid interpretations and descriptions of the data could be made (see Table 1.1). This table also indicates that an observed frequency (f_o) of N=572 completed questionnaires have been collected from participating respondents, leaving a workable return rate of 76,3%. It should be noted that the observed frequencies reflected in Table 1.1 are by no means representative of the populations of the three selected provinces. As a result, no generalisations will be effected from the specific (sample) to the three selected provinces or South Africa in general, and subsequent pronunciations will therefore be based only on the observed frequency (N=572) only.

Table 1.1: Questionnaire distribution among respondents, implementing purposive (judgmental) sampling procedures (N=572)

AREA/PROVINCE	EXPECTED FREQUENCY (f_e)		OBSERVED FREQUENCY (f_o)	
	n	%	n	%
<u>Limpopo Province</u>				
Venda University	150	20.0	104	18.2
Polokwane	100	13.4	88	15.3
<u>KwaZulu-Natal</u>				
Richards Bay/ Empangeni	100	13.3	50	8.7
University of Zululand	100	13.3	65	11.4
Durban/Plessislaer, Pietermaritzburg area	150	20.0	141	24.7
<u>Western Cape</u>				
Cape Town /Bellville and surroundings	150	20.0	124	21.7
COLUMN TOTALS:	750	100.0	572 ¹⁾	100.0

¹⁾ Return rate = 76,3%

1.9 CONCEPTUALISATION

The following concepts will be briefly highlighted, purely to explain their meaning and relevance to the study:

1.9.1 Police and policing

The term *police* derives from the Greek words *polis* (city), *polites* (citizen of the state), the Latin word *politea* (state authority and the French word *policer* (power of the people). The word *police* officially received recognition in Ireland round about 1787, but it was only in 1829 that Sir Robert Peel established his first organised police unit, better known as the *Bow Street Runners* in London. In modern terms *police* refer to individuals appointed by law (statute) to maintain law and order and to ensure the protection of individual human rights in term of the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). *Policing* has more of a functional meaning, and points to “...the personification of [social] order and a guarantee that the constitutional rights of every individual ... will be protected ...” (Van Heerden, 1982:15). The South African Police Service (SAPS) has been established in terms of the S.A. Police Service Act No 68 of 1995.

1.9.2 Police service versus police force

Police *service* implies the implementation and execution of the protective aspects relating to the social well-being of people within a democratic framework. This mandate is usually achieved by means of *deterrence*, i.e. the elimination of latent threats of harm to citizens and identifying and resolving conflict in partnership with members of their respective communities (Van Heerden, 1982). Quoting from Reiner (1994) and Bennett (1994), Burger (cf. 2007) informs that the British police underwent an operational change from ‘police force’ to ‘police service’ in the early 1990s, following the findings of *The Scarman Report*, already published in 1982, as well as the adoption of a vision of ‘crime prevention’ being the primary function of policing envisaged by Sir Robert Peel in 1829. Ironically, the SAPS who subscribes to the Peelian principle of proactive policing (or the so-called ‘caring function’ as part of the community policing machinery), also underwent an operational change, allegedly the other way round, by reverting from police *service* to police *force* on 1 April 2010. Police force is more aligned with the police function of ‘crime control through law enforcement (reactive policing) – a policing tactic and technique that requires little or no public assistance, except for providing information (intelligence) about crime and criminal behaviour. Van Heerden, (1982:49-50) compares police

service with the execution of the preservative aspects of social control; the elimination or minimising any possible latent threats to social order where the absence of crime dictates police efficiency. The term *police force* signals an analogous relationship with *military force* (both these services were at one stage in history linked together!). However, these two concepts, *force* versus *service* are not irreconcilable terms; they represent the two extreme factors on the aim-realisation continuum. *However, a sensible balance between the two terms is the obvious, desirable result* (Van Heerden, 1982:51).

The idea of *police force* (like in the time of the ‘apartheid-era’), was strengthened by the adoption of a paramilitary rank structure. With the addition of the two new ranks as part of the rank structure of the SAPS (lieutenant and major), a typical ‘SAP rank structure’ emerged for the SAPS. During the apartheid-era, police officers were subjected to strict institutional discipline, sanctioned by a ‘barbed-wire section’ (set of police regulations). The rationale for the return of the SAPS to military ranks is apparently to be found in the regeneration of police discipline, command and control (defenceWeb, 2010). The Police and Prisons Civil Rights Union (POPCRU) rejected the new SAPS rank structure, first, as a return to the ‘apartheid-era’ and, second, it would create confusion among police officers: ‘apartheid-era’ policing mainly rested on reactive measures and could be counter-productive to proactive policing (or crime prevention) (Prince, 2010:6) – which appears to be an incorrect observation! The police are not destined to fulfill a military function. Mimicking military practices without fully understanding the real differences between the nature and extent of the functions of each of these entities closely resembles a pseudo-intellectual form of sophistry (Wiatrowski: Internet Interview, 2013). The maintenance of institutional discipline and respect for seniority is not dependent on a specific rank, but rather subordination. Respect for fellow citizens is dependent on positive socialisation and upbringing by a father and a mother and the fostering of personal integrity. Burger (2007) provides valid reasons for this viewpoint.

1.9.3 Perception

Man becomes aware of his or her surrounding world by means of *perception* or *sensory awareness*. Perception of a specific referent object may not always be a true reflection or image

of that object (or physical environment) simply because perceptions differ from person to person, leading to different accounts being given of the same object. People may first-hand observe police behaviour in the public domain and form a personal opinion or they may hear about other people's experiences with the police. They may also read what has been reported in the daily printed media (newspapers), or observe it electronically (T.V.) or heard about it over the radio, etc., or they may have experienced personal contact with the police as either a suspect or accused in a criminal case, or as a witness or complainant (see Table 1.2). Observation through any of these categories may trigger public reaction towards the behaviour of the police, i.e. an evaluation or rating of the police role/behaviour in terms of a set of expectations based on knowledge of what they have seen, heard, read or personally experienced (e.g. the brutal kicking and assaulting of a 16 year old boy at Vaalwater, North Province that has been widely reported in daily newspapers (Beeld, 2012:6). The public's reaction to the way in which the police fulfill their role, may reflect their image of the police as either positive (or favourable) or as negative (or unfavourable). If such evaluation is positive, the public will in all probability work together with the police. On the other hand, if the evaluation turns out to be negative, public confidence in and respect for policing in general may, on a cynical note, suffer cooperation and support (Van Heerden, 1982:137; 194) or may, in extra-ordinary cases, be supported.

1.9.4 Police image

The origin of the image the public have of the police rests on two pillars: *direct* and *indirect knowledge* elicited by way of sensory stimulation. Direct knowledge may be formed as a result of *juridical contact* with the police (e.g. as a witness or complainant in a criminal case), or *juridical contact* as a result of having been detained in a police cell or otherwise, as a suspect or accused or the presence of the police, i.e. what the respondents have observed or personally experienced about the police in the execution of their official duties (Annexure A). Indirect knowledge could be elicited by means of what the respondents may have heard from other people about the police, reading daily newspapers, heard over the radio or what they have observed on television – Table 1.2. Van Heerden (1982:137) suggests that a favourable (positive) image of the police is likely to promote voluntary compliance with the laws of the country, while

an unfavourable image may precipitate the opposite effect. Police involvement in serious crime – especially by senior members in the higher echelons of the hierarchy, like two consecutive police commissioners who have been accused of alleged fraud and mismanagement respectively – may even cause public disrespect for those who are supposed to lead by example. Moreover, an unfavourable image of the police may even reflect negatively on the formal control structure (government). Image determinants such as: friendliness, helpfulness, brutality, neatness of personal appearance as well as their offices, arrogance, corruptive inclination, aggressiveness, abuse of power and authority, lack of knowledge and insight, indiscipline, etc., are some of the most popular functional characteristics of the police role.

Examining the results of a bivariate analysis (Table 1.2), the data clearly show that *television-watching* (N=85,1%) has been singled out by the respondents as the most popular source of information about police performances during the execution of their duties. The observed *presence* of the police (N=82,8%) when conducting their official duties has been rated the second important, followed by the *printed media* (N=81,8%) like daily newspapers at national level as third important source. The *radio* (N=79,2%) also had a major impact on the public perceptions of the police because less fortunate people cannot afford television sets. According to Plaut and Holden (2012:183), the *print media* (e.g. newspapers) has a remarkable record in exposing abuses of power, like “...major corruption scandals that have surfaced over the last 15 years [which] have been investigated and broken by the print media ... [with] continued attention to the topics, and dedication to uncovering as much of each sordid story as possible ... for South Africans [to] gaining a modicum of insight into each situation”.

A breakdown in terms of *gender* clearly indicates that *television-watching* has been singled out by both male (40,7%) and female (44,4%) respondents as the most popular source of information about police role performance in society ($p \geq .05$). The observed *presence* of the police when conducting their official duties has been rated more or less equally important by both male (40,0%) and female (42,8%) respondents, followed by the *printed media* (male 39,0% and female respondents 42,8%) respectively ($p \geq .05$). Both female (41,1%) and male respondents (38,1%) believe that the *radio* is also an important means of judging police performance. In conclusion, it could be suggested that observing through the eyes (TV watching), personal

experiencing of how the police act when performing their duties (presence), reading newspapers (reporting in the written media) and listening (radio) are the most popular sources that appear to be the most effective sources through which the respondents could have formed their image of the police.

1.9.5 Mass and Social media

Van Heerden (1982:86) is adamant that the powerful role of the mass media should never be underestimated when it comes to everyday issues affecting the lives of members of the public. The press is responsible for conveying events of public interest to every citizen of society (Table 1.2).

Television watching, when it comes to reporting on crime (especially corruption), police and policing issues, was rated the most influential source of information (85,1%). Following in the second place, is the presence of the police when performing their official duties and apparently the way in which they treat members of the public scored second highest as a source of information to the respondents. The radio (79,2%) also played an important role as an image-forming source – especially for those respondents who do not own a TV set or are financially not in a position to buy and read newspapers. Lyman (1999:26), however, strongly recommend that citizens should ask themselves whether any kind of perceptions of the police by the public or the public by the police are accurate or based on stereotypes, media hype (and perhaps exaggerated), or personal bias, etc.

It should not be lost out of sight that nowadays the influence of the *social media* (e.g. the Internet, Face Book, Twitter, and the like) are even more powerful than, for instance, newspapers or television broadcasts, that are restricted to their countries of origin. WikiLeaks, founded by Julian Assange (cf. Social Media 2012¹), an Australian computer programmer, political/internet activist, publisher and journalist published, among other, material about extra-judicial killings in Kenya, toxic waste dumping in Côte d'Ivoire and who also published Iraq war documents dealing with American involvement in those wars, as well as documents on the war in

Table 1.2: Evaluation of selected sources which played a role in forming opinions / perceptions of the police image, by gender (N=572)

V A R	SOURCES	YES				NO				TOTAL			
		Male		Female		Male		Female		Yes		No	
		n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
53	Juridical contact with the police (complainant/witness) in a criminal case	152	26,6	161	28,2	122	21,4	136	23,8	313	54,7	258	45,1
54	Juridical contact (detained as a suspect or accused person in a criminal case)	32	5,6	28	4,9	242	43,3	270	47,2	60	10,5	512	89,5
55	What other people have told me about police performance when executing their official duties	155	27,2	183	31,9	119	20,8	115	20,1	338	59,1	234	40,9
56	What I have read about police performance in the daily <i>newspapers</i>	223	39,0	245	42,8	51	8,9	53	9,3	468	81,8	104	18,2
57	What I have heard about the police on the <i>radio</i> (discussions, news, etc.)	218	38,1	235	41,1	56	9,8	63	11,0	453	79,2	119	20,8
58	What I saw about the police when watching <i>television</i> (discussions, news, etc.)	233	40,7	254	44,4	41	7,2	44	7,7	487	85,1	85	14,9
59	The <i>presence</i> of the police when executing their official duties in public	229	40,0	245	42,8	45	7,9	53	9,3	474	82,8	98	17,1

$p \geq .05$.

Afghanistan in 2010 (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Julian_Assange). Mark Zuckerberg (cf. Social Media 2012²), one of four co-founders of the social networking site, Facebook, of which he is the chairman and chief executive is another example of an extremely popular source of communication. In 2010, the Facebook internet site had an estimated 500 million users worldwide (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mark_Zucherberg).

The term *media* represents the plural of ‘medium’. A general reference to the media basically entails “...a diverse collection of industries and practices, each with their own methods of communication, specific business interests, constraints and audiences” (Briggs & Cobley 1998:1). Surette (1992:67) defines the *mass media* “...as any communication medium which reaches a large number of people, simultaneously, at little cost to the receiver”. Both these definitions do not distinguish between the different forms of media or mass media. The *print*

media refers to newspapers, magazines, books, journals, pamphlets, etc.; the term *electronic media* refers to the radio, television, videos, movies, and the like, while the *social media* refers to the internet, etc. Data in Table 1.2 discloses a fairly high ‘vote’ in favour of daily newspaper information which contributed to facilitating respondents’ image of the police (81,8%). Jody Nel of Beeld (2013:5) informs us that Media Tenor, a local Media Research Institute rated the following newspapers the first three most influential newspapers in South Africa: (1) City Press (the English version of Rapport), (2) Sunday Times, (3) Beeld followed by (4) Mail & Guardian. This rating for the year 2012 has been based on a total 2 422 quotations (reports) from all possible South African newspapers.

In an empirical research project on: *The role of the media in community policing* by Potgieter and Mersham (cf. 2002), respondents in *three arbitrarily selected police areas*, viz. Durban, Umfolozi and Ulundi strongly agreed that the mass media tend to sensationalise criminal events (average: 90 percent) and are, likewise, too critical of police actions (average: 79 percent). Lyman (1999:26) concurs that perceptions flowing from media reports about police illegal actions may sometimes be skewed. Police statistics about crime are notably skewed, just to soften the impact of serious crimes on social life by politicians and police officers in the higher bureaucratic echelons out of fear of being discharged from their positions.

1.9.6 Exploration: a social scientific view

Maxfield and Babbie (1998:69-70) inform us that *exploration* in criminal justice research is undertaken, for instance, to investigate a type of policy or to explore the nature (or frequency) of an existing social problem or issue, like in the present study, to gauge a group of respondents’ perception of the image of the police. Exploratory investigations aim at collecting data about such problem to establish a baseline with which future studies and changes could be studied or compared with. An exploratory study in criminal justice usually follows a scientific research procedure such as scientific methods and techniques.

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The following ethical issues, among other, have been given due consideration during the execution of the present study:

- *Anonymity.* Protection of the name and personal particulars of each respondent is guaranteed on the front page of each questionnaire. Immediately after questionnaires have been edited and coded on a coding sheet, they were destroyed to avoid any possible identification of a respondent (which would be nevertheless totally impossible). Coding sheets, like the questionnaires, have not been allocated official serial numbers.
- *Confidentiality* of responses as well as other statistical outcomes will be treated as *secret information*, i.e. in the strictest confidence, and would be withheld from public identification and/or scrutiny. Respondents have also been given this guarantee on the front page of the questionnaire.
- *Freedom of speech.* Although responses were given by means of crosses (X's) of their choice in appropriate blocks (or boxes) next to each of the questions or statements, questionnaires have been protected against public scrutiny in an attempt to honour respondents' democratic right to 'freedom of speech', dignity and privacy. Respondents were at no stage forced to respond in specific blocks. An *uncertain-category* has been built into the Likert-type scale representing each statement. This category normally takes the *neutral* position on a 5-point scale. Freedom of conscience, religion, beliefs and opinions have also been respected and upheld throughout the study, as these aspects are made compulsory in the Constitution.
- *Truth.* The primary ethical issue of the present study is to seek and report the truth surrounding the public image of the police which is the main reason for undertaking a quantitative study supported by qualitative properties. Sources that were consulted will be accurately studied and any portions quoted from textbooks, newspapers, etc., have been fully acknowledged according the APA-format, following the adoption of this reference

technique by the Criminological Society of Southern Africa (CRIMSA) in its SAPSE-accredited journal *Acta Criminologica* and listed accordingly in the final research report under the headings: Chapter References.

- *Voluntary participation.* Field workers were specifically trained not to force any respondent to fill in a questionnaire as participation in the present study is *not compulsory*. They were also urged not to assist or influence respondents by suggesting answers to specific statements to be ticked off. The *observed frequency* in Table 1 (see par. 1.8.2.1) gives a clear indication of how many questionnaires were indeed not received back from respondents – most probably from those who forgot to complete and return it, as well as those respondents who have elected not to participate in the present study.
- *Human Rights.* Respondents were informed about their human right to withdraw from this research project at any stage during their participation, should they decide to do so.

1.11 VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The mere fact that the present study is based on non-parametric statistics obtained from a variety of respondents, should not distract from the valuable information to be recorded on a topical area, currently touching the lives of every law-abiding citizen in South Africa. The police are apparently under constant criticism of the public and the mass media, firstly, for apparently not performing their duties according public expectations and, secondly, according the provisions of the Constitution. Further, ‘police bosses’ (apparently senior members of the police) are also ‘under fire’ for allegedly not having testified truthfully at the Farlam Commission of Inquiry into police shootings that took place at the Lonmin Mine, Marikana in the North-West province on Thursday, 16 August 2012 when 34 striking miners were shot dead by police officers. The police are also being perceived for being involved in various categories of serious crimes, like hardened criminals and likewise, for acting extremely brutal and without the necessary respect for human dignity and freedom when treating members of the public during police raids and searches –

especially during the searching of taverns, bars, police stops, etc. during late midnight when the abuse of power and authority by some police officers almost every time ends up in assaulting innocent people and, in certain cases, in illegal shootings. The present study is poised to identify the factors impacting negatively on sound police-public relations, especially in a community-policing context, sound delivery of police services and high-level partnership-building between the public and the police, necessary to prevent crime and eradicate the fear of crime. Furthermore, some or all the chapters provide important information to criminal justice, criminology and sociology students about the first component of the criminal justice system – the police. The statistical outcomes contribute towards providing excellent material for research articles to be published in a SAPSE-accredited journal like: *Acta Criminologica*, the official mouthpiece of the Criminological and Victimological Society of Southern Africa (CRIMSA). The following two research articles have been submitted to an accredited journal, *Acta Criminologica*, for possible publication.

1.12 FURTHER CHAPTER DIVISION

The *further* chapter division is as follows:

- Chapter 2: Democratic policing in post-conflict South Africa
- Chapter 3: Research methodology: practical implications
- Chapter 4: Operational characteristics of police officers.
- Chapter 5: Findings, conclusions and recommendations.

1.13 SUMMARY

Briefly, the proposed study into the *public image of the police* follows a positivistic research approach based on a mixed-methods inclination consisting of both quantitative and qualitative research methods and techniques; the quantitative being the dominant approach. Three of nine provinces in South Africa have been arbitrarily selected and, as such, a non-probability sampling

procedure has been implemented to secure a large enough observed frequency consisting of N=572 respondents. Scaling procedures implement a 5-point Likert-type, summated-rating measuring scale to analyse and describe the data that have been collected via the survey research method. It is hoped that the proposed study will assist in identifying those factors exerting a negative influence on an expected favourable public image of the South African Police Service but, moreover, that police management will take the necessary corrective steps.

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CHAPTER 2

DEMOCRATIC POLICING IN POST-CONFLICT SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Prior to 1994 South Africa was ruled by an ‘authoritarian government’ who practiced a policy of separate development. Dismantling that style of government (‘apartheid’) in which South Africa got caught-up for almost 46 years, offered the country the opportunity to develop the first democratic police system. Unlike the authoritarian era with its centralised ‘repressive police force’ of the previous era, the South African Police Service (SAPS) promised to be a non-paramilitary, non-repressive police *service* in a post-apartheid era. Although policing in both post-communist societies, like Poland, Lithuania, Hungary, Georgia and Belarus on the one hand and post-apartheid South Africa on the other hand enjoyed the privilege of escaping chaotic transitional environments, they still suffer similar concerns in terms of policing such as: *police legitimacy and public trust*, *police use of illegal force* and *police accountability* – factors which could be indicative of transformation that has not yet come full circle (Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003:1-5;39;196). The public image of the police service in South Africa suffered tremendous criticism over the past few years as a result of police officers’ involvement in serious crimes, like: murder, rape, armed robbery, assault to inflict grievous bodily harm, corruption and bribery, etc. Adding to this list, are charges of alleged mismanagement (the latter which led to the discharge of a national commissioner).

Alleged police inefficiency when dealing with the crime problem together with a lack of visible deterrence of crime precipitants are some of the regular accusations from the side of the public against the police. And in almost all such cases, the complainants promise to withdraw their assistance and goodwill from the police. There are, however, also other ‘sources’ which could have played a role in becoming aware of negative issues surrounding policing in South Africa – see Table 1.2, Chapter 1.

2.2 FUNCTIONAL SETBACKS: UNDEMOCRATIC POLICING

The public image of the police remains constantly in the limelight and is usually based on perceptions or opinions of *how* and *how well* public safety is being discharged in accordance with public expectations, police knowledge, experience or other influences. What really seems to be a pressing issue at present is the question whether the police can still claim to be a *legitimate entity* within the context of police involvement in serious crimes. Hardly a day passes without members of the SAPS are *not* being exposed by the written and electronic media as having been involved in the one or other criminal incident. Within the space of seven to eight months or so, the following few examples of *image damaging* police misconduct have surfaced in abundance in the written media (especially daily newspapers). The following *caveat* prevails: it is neither the aim of the present study to establish guilt or innocence in cases of police involvement in criminal actions (or otherwise) referred to in this research report, nor is it the objective to report on the final outcomes of such cases or incidents, whether departmentally, criminally or in terms of civil litigation. In no specific order, some of these ‘undemocratic’ incidents are:

- Recently (in March 2013), Mido Macia, a Mozambican taxi driver from Daveyton died in police custody. Earlier that day, he had been dragged behind a police van with his hands tied above his head to a steel bench mounted at the back of the vehicle, a illegal police action that reverberated throughout the world (Figure 4.1). Amnesty International (AI) reacted by stating that the unfortunate and shocking event is the latest in a series of police actions ‘breeding’ on extraordinary police brutality. It has been reported that even President Zuma reacted with dismay towards this occurrence, and so did the South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) (Zwecker, 2013:4) – Annexure D.
- A male brigadier employed at the Central Firearms Registry until February 2011 and who was since been moved to Roodepoort as acting station commissioner, is allegedly still issuing temporary firearm licences to a Johannesburg businessman in exchange for cash. Mr. Paul O’Sullivan, Forensic Investigator called for: “ ...a high-level investigation into the patently corrupt relationship between Brigadier Steven Choshi and the criminals he

has unlawfully armed, in order that they might continue to commit crime, such as murder and robbery” (Serrao, 2013:1).

- The commander of the Central Firearms Registry in Pretoria has been accused of accepting bribes from an employee of a firearm business in Johannesburg. An African (female) Brigadier allegedly received R5 000 and R10 000 twice a month in cash for four years, mainly to fast-track the issuing of gun licences for clients at the gun shop. Brigadier Bothma was the previous head of the CFR (Serrao, 2013:1).
- Gibson and Sapa (Beeld, 2013:1) also listed the name of an African (male) Brigadier, head in charge of the firearm licences issuing unit, who has also been suspended without pay. Meanwhile, the co-owner of a gun shop and a friend has been arrested at O.R. Tambo International Airport by Military Police and members of the Hawks, a special investigative unit.
- Two police officers, a warrant-officer and a sergeant of the presidential protective unit (VIP) have been formally charged with attempted murder, reckless and negligent driving and pointing of a firearm after they have shot at a private motor vehicle from their official vehicle on the N12 just outside Potchefstroom in the North-West province (Philda Essop, 2013:16).
- “About 27 000 SAPS members are allegedly active directors of companies, while 70 police employees have a direct interest in 73 companies that did business worth R31 million with the SAPS [their employer] ...” (Merton, 2013:12). None of the 70 employee police officers had disclosed their business interests. The probe into allegations of possible ‘moonlighting activities’ started in 2009 after an alarm was raised by the police watchdog, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID), over improper or unlawful conduct and conflict of interests in SAPS officers’ business dealings. Those outside business involvement earned them significant income (Merton, 2013:12) – see below.

- While it has been alleged that some police officers of the SAPS had been involved in ‘moonlighting’, the Report Team of Rapport Newspaper (2013:4) uncovered that police officers perform ‘after-hours security jobs’, like the recent traffic and security assistance given by police officers to the private Gupta-family wedding at Sun City (North West province). According a six-month interim investigation report for April to September 2012 of the Special Investigative Unit (SIU), 27 000 members of the SAPS are allegedly active company directors (see above). It would appear that no money has been allocated for police national festive days. However, in 2010 altogether R29 million was spent on this entity and in 2011 the amount shrunk to R80 million. The SIU regard all these expenses as unauthorised (Philda Essop, 2013:5).
- The erroneous appointment of the new provincial commissioner for Gauteng, an African (male), Major-General Zuma (no relation to President Jacob Zuma) backfired in the face of the National Commissioner, General Riah Phiyega. She discovered (informed by the opposition party, the Democratic Alliance) the ‘suspect’ is allegedly facing a ‘plethora of criminal charges’, including driving under the influence of liquor, escaping from lawful custody and defeating the ends of justice (Nathi Olifant, 2013:1). A journalist of Beeld-newspaper, Hanti Otto (2013:2) informs us that the Gauteng province’s new commissioner for only five hours after which the major-general appointment had to be withdrawn by commissioner Phiyega. He is also facing disciplinary steps.
- Covering-up and impunity are apparently the answers as to why some 1 448 police officers with previous criminal convictions are still in the service of the SAPS. Of this total, 306 apparently had previous convictions *before* they have joined the police. The balance of 1142 got criminal records *after* they were employed by the SAPS. A Parliamentary police oversight committee has been informed that 1 Major-General, 10 Brigadiers, 21 Colonels, 43 Lieutenant-Colonel, down to lowest rank (Constable), etc. were criminally convicted for crimes ranging from murder, attempted murder, culpable homicide, rape, aiding escape from lawful custody, theft, housebreaking, drug trafficking, kidnapping, armed robbery, etc.. According to the Acting Head of Human Resources, departmental disciplinary hearings did not always yield the desired results (Obabalo

Ndenze, 15 August:5; Philda Essop, 2013:2), suggesting that stricter institutional discipline and mutual respect for rank and calling of duty have become inevitable.

- In the presence of his two children, a White male of Germiston has been severely assaulted by two Black police officers of the Dog Unit after he and his bride-to-be and two kids left their friends after a visit. They were stopped by the two police officers close to the Northvilla security complex where they stay; the father was pulled out of the vehicle and thrown onto the sidewalk. Both policemen were very aggressive and arrogant and demanded his drivers's licence (which he thought was in his wallet in the vehicle's cubbyhole). The driver then asked to be allowed to return to his friend's house in search for his wallet – which the policemen agreed to. Unfortunately, the driver (white man) was assaulted again by the same policemen before they reached his friend's abode. His head was repeatedly bumped against the street kerbing and hit with knees in the back. The eldest son started screaming hysterically because he thought the police were about to kill his father. All the passengers were traumatised and the driver was detained in a police cell at the Benoni police station on a charge of reckless and/or negligent driving. He was released the following day after he was told all charges were withdrawn against him. He never appeared in a criminal court (Eckard, 2013:1). – see Annexure E.
- A dangerous crime syndicate had been allegedly operating in Gauteng and KwaZulu-Natal gang after hiring police paraphernalia like guns, bulletproof vests, blue lights and sirens (Yogas Nair, 2013:1). Two members of the gang were arrested in Durban while six men of another gang carried out an armed robbery in Ladysmith, KZN, were also confronted but escaped arrest. A stolen Golf GTI with markings, similar to a Gauteng Flying Squad vehicle, was recovered. It had identical blue lights, an original emblem Crime Stop call number printed on the body and false number plates. The suspects were armed with assault rifles and pistols. The gang allegedly only robbed off-duty wealthy businessmen on the way to their homes. They posed as police officers and the man who hires the police gear (including reflector jackets and two-way radios) is believed to be from Soweto and a hunt was on for the man from Soweto, who was believed to be hiring

police equipment and gear to criminals. Once a job has been completed, the criminals return the stuff to him (Yogas Nair, 2013:1) – Annexure F.

2.3 TRANSITIONAL CONCERNS

Like police organisations in most post-communist societies (e.g. Ukraine, Poland, Lithuania, Hungary, Georgia and Belarus) which had to face serious transformation problems and concerns but eventually managed to emerge from a chaotic (suppressing) socio-political environment, policing in a post-apartheid transitional era appear to have been confronted with almost similar problems, among other, the following: (1) *police legitimacy* and *public trust*, (2) *police use of deadly force*, and (3) *police accountability*. Some of these issues are apparently still present and alive as unsolved matters in a post-apartheid context (cf. Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003:1-5; 39; 53; 196).

2.3.1 Police legitimacy

Wiatrowski & Karatay (cf. 2012) suggest the police should understand that *unreported crimes* could place the legitimacy of the police as a legally-instituted entity in jeopardy. Crimes that are never brought to the attention of the police, like those not officially reported by the victims, may be indicative of a lack of police legitimacy (no trust) among the people they serve. These authors suggest the police should further understand that sustainable *legitimacy* is earned slowly when in *contact* with members of the public and when service delivery takes place in partnership and in consultation with the public. Therefore, patience on the part of the police will be an add-on democratic value. Data generated through a Victim of Crime Survey compiled by Statistics SA, based on 31 000 households across all nine provinces and released by the South African Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), reveals that altogether 1,7 million (52,0%) crimes committed in South Africa in 2011 went unreported, of which 82 000 are house robberies and 8 000 are vehicle hijackings. Allegedly 1 000 murder cases went also unreported, while most rape victims also kept quiet about their ordeals (Brendan Roane, 2013:1). Many reasons can play a role in crime victims' decisions *not to report* crime to the police, apparently because of distrust in the police which may point to a denial of their legitimacy. In Table 2.1 presents some of the possible

reasons for not reporting crime to the police or withholding information about criminal activities from the police.

Table 2.1: Frequency distribution of reasons for not reporting crime to the police, by gender (N=572)

Reasons for <i>not reporting crime</i>	Male (n=274)				Female (n=298)				Total (N=572)			
	Yes n	%	No n	%	Yes n	%	No n	%	Yes n	%	No n	%
Negative attitudes of police officers	195	34,1	79	13,8	237	41,4 ¹⁾	61	10,7	432	75,5	140	24,5
The police are acting apathetically	195	34,1	79	13,8	229	40,0	69	12,1	424	74,1	148	25,9
Police inefficiency in solving criminal cases	205	35,8	69	12,1	211	36,9	87	15,2	416	72,7	156	27,3
Case would in all probability not receive the proper attention of the police	181	31,6	93	16,3	214	37,4	84	14,7	395	69,1	177	30,9
Police tend to discriminate against culture groups other than their own	185	32,3	91	15,9	195	34,1	101	17,7	380	66,4	190	33,2
One is treated like the 'guilty party' when reporting crime	178	31,1	96	16,8	193	33,7	105	18,4	371	64,9	201	35,1
Don't want to get involved in court cases	99	17,3	175	30,6	122	21,3	176	30,8	221	46,4	351	61,4
Court cases are too time consuming	121	21,2	153	26,7	131	22,9	167	29,9	174	30,4	320	55,9
Did not want to bother police with trivial matters	154	26,9	120	21,0	141	24,7	157	27,4	295	51,6	277	48,4

1) Significant: F-test =.013.

The analysis of the data contained in Table 2.1 confirms perceptions of a negative or 'don't care'- nature (N=75,5%) on the part of the police as the most important reason for not reporting crime to the police; apparently observable through their body language conveying a 'message' of

no real interested in cases being reported to them. Females (41,4%) are significantly more concerned than the males (34,1%) about the apparent negative attitudes of the police when crime is being reported, presumably because of the sexual nature of crimes committed against women ($F=.013$). This observation is supported by the fact that the police are acting apathetically, i.e. displaying a low work ethics because of a lack of enthusiasm when dealing with the public ($N=74,1\%$), perhaps more so when women who report crimes of a sexual nature needs more symphathetic treatment from the police. Respondents have also indicated that *inefficiency of the police*, apparently as a result of ineptness and the absence of the *know-how* due to a lack of proper basic and/or in-service training ($N=72,7\%$), also negatively impacting on the police image. However, when asked to rate police efficiency in terms of their performance of selected police functions in society, just over half of the respondents of the total sample ($N=54,5\%$) indicated that the police rated in terms of their performance of selected *police functions*, are highly inefficient to inefficient (see Table 2.13).

Further analysis relating to the possible *reasons* for not reporting crime to the police, cross-correlated by *culture group* in Table 2.2 reveals that White respondents (37,1%), compared to their Black counterparts (32,0%), significantly ($F=.049$) indicated that if they had to report criminal cases to the police, such cases would not receive proper police attention. Apparently, a ‘don’t care approach’ on the part of the protectors could be linked to:

- A *negative attitude* on the part of the police. Unfavourable perceptions by White respondents (41,4%) show they are significantly ($F=.002$) convinced that this could be a prominent reason why respondents feel that there would be no interest in their cases when they report it to the police, compared to Black respondents’ perceptions – 34,1%.
- *Apathy* on the part of the police is rated second highest by White respondents (42,3%) who are significantly ($F=.000$) more convinced than their Black counterparts (31,8%) that the police are apathetical when crime is reported to them.

- Administrative *inefficiency* on the part of the police relating to the handling of crime reported to them (i.e. accepting and registering first information of crime). Although no significant difference in perceptions between the two culture groups is observed, Black respondents (34,3%) are somewhat less convinced than the White respondents (38,5%) that police inefficiency plays an important role in this regard - $p \geq .05$.

Table 2.2 Frequency distribution of *reasons* for not reporting crime to the police, by *culture group* (N=572)

Reasons for not <i>Reporting crime</i>	Black				White				Total (N=572)			
	Yes		No		Yes		No		Yes		No	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Negative attitudes of police officers	195	34,1	84	14,7	237 ¹⁾	41,4	56	9,8	432	75,5	140	24,5
The police are acting Apathetically	182	31,8	97	17,0	242 ²⁾	42,3	51	8,9	424	74,1	148	25,9
Police inefficiency in solving crimes	196	34,3	83	14,5	220	38,5	73	12,8	416	72,7	156	27,3
Case would in all probability not receive the proper attention of police	183	32,0	96	16,8	212 ³⁾	37,1	81	14,2	395	69,1	177	30,9
Police tend to discriminate against culture groups other than their own	143	25,0	134	23,4	237 ⁴⁾	41,4	56	9,8	380	66,4	190	33,2
One is treated like the 'guilty party'	153	26,7	126	22,0	218 ⁵⁾	38,1	75	13,1	371	64,9	201	35,1
Don't want to be involved in court cases	114	19,9	165	28,8	107	18,7	186	32,5	221	38,6	351	61,4
Court cases are too time consuming	111	19,4	168	29,4	141	24,7	152	26,6	252	44,1	320	55,9
Don't want to bother police with trivial matters	125	21,9	154 ⁶⁾	26,9	170	29,7	123	21,5	295	51,6	277	48,4

Scale: 1=Yes; 2=No /

Significance: (1) $F=.002$; (2) $F=.000$; (3) $F=.049$; (4) $F=.000$; (5) $F=.000$; (6) $F=.001$.

- *Discrimination.* White respondents (41,4%) significantly maintain a negative perception of discrimination as being a major reason why crime is not always reported to the police, especially when the complainant or victim of a criminal case does not belong to the same culture group as police officers are. Black respondents are far less opposed (25,0%) to this reason than the White respondents ($F=.000$).
- When crime is reported to the police, it transpires that the reporter of the crime is treated like the ‘guilty party’ by the police. White respondents (38,1%) are significantly more convinced than Black respondents (26,7%) that this might be the case ($F=.000$).

Under-reporting of crime constitutes the so-called *iceberg effect*, because annual police crime statistics roughly represents only 20 percent of crimes that is above the surface, while the other 80 percent is below the surface but dormant (i.e. it does exist but not reported and not calculated as part of the total statistical equation). Consequently, SAIRR researchers simultaneously indicated that expenditure on *private security measures* rose from R2 billion in the 1990’s to an estimated R50 billion in 2011. Vigilantism also flourished in less affluent areas (occupied by the middle-lower class as well as the poor living in or near squatter camps) (Brendan Roane, 2013:1).

Unlike the communist ideology where ‘legitimacy’ of the state and its organs, such as the Soviet Secret Police (KGB), was not dependent upon public approval of citizens, *legitimacy* of the police and its role in a post-apartheid South Africa is based on public recognition and practiced by ‘consent’. The question of *police legitimacy* through public acceptance of and consent to executing the police role by a legal, institutionalised police system like the SAPS, is an important aspect of social life based on democratic values that require specific *responsibilities* to be met by the police (Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003:1-2), example:

- A redefinition of their *relationship* with the public and the confidence in policing to foster a firmly-based, working partnership;
- Police officers should be taught *new skills*, especially during basic training which could, for instance, translate into practical applications such as *how to work in close partnership*

with the public, the theoretical and practical dynamics underlying the the implementation of both community and sector as democratic styles of policing; and

- Constantly convincing the public of their *changed character* (from a ‘force’ to a ‘service’) and the need to rid them of deep-rooted distrust in police operations and previously suppressive policing methods and techniques.

The American Bar Foundation identified quite a number of responsibilities of police institutions in general. These aspects do not only depict as crime detectors or crime controllers, but also as *service providers* which clearly support the notion of *legitimacy* of the police in societal context. The non-repressive nature of police services are believed to influence both crime control (which the police cannot undertake on their own) and the deterrence of crime opportunities in a positive way, in that the police and the public are set to work more closely together, earning the police the much sought-after assistance and respect from the public (Lyman, 1999:44-46).

As indicated above, the *legitimacy* of the police role, like that of the South African Police Service, is first and foremost to be found in a *social service* to be rendered to citizens. The public are regarded the co-owners of harmonious and peaceful coexistence of people, a condition that is disturb whenever a crime is committed. The police role requires a legal, rather than a political disposition and for that reason they need to adhere to the *rule of law* and not to partisan politics. Police legitimacy is further entrenched in actions that support human rights standards and with the emphasis on being democratically and legally accountable. In this regard, four conditions are decisive (Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003:33-34):

- presence of a democratic political system capable of providing a constitutional and legal framework;
- police subordination to the law and accountability to an independent judiciary as well as the public;
- separation of police and political responsibilities; and
- police openness and responsiveness to the diverse needs of society and the general receptiveness to public opinion when providing a *service* to their respective communities.

In the present study, selected dependent variables have been introduced to measure the respondents' perceptions in regard to whether or not the existence and justification of the police, like the South African Police Service (SAPS), do succeed in making it a worthwhile 'undertaking', necessary to uphold the law and order in a democratic society and to ensure peace and happiness among citizens. The under-mentioned dependent variables are cross-correlated with two independent variables: *gender* and *cultural group*:

- *Necessity* for the existence of the police in society, by gender and culture group - Table 2.2 (var. 6);
- Right of existence of the police in a society, by *type of contact* and *sources of information* - Tables 2.3 and 2.4 (var. 7); and
- Existence of the police as a *threat* to individual freedom and privacy, *obligation* and *willingness* to assist the police in their task, Tables 4.4. and 4.5 (vars. 8, 9 and 10).

2.3.1.1 Necessity for the existence of the police

A frequency distribution of respondents' perceptions with reference to the *necessity* or *legitimacy* of the SAPS in South African democratic society is presented in Table 2.3

A typical bivariate analysis of variable 6, cross-correlated with *gender* and *cultural group* clearly confirms the necessity for the SAPS within the context of a democratic dispensation in South Africa. Female respondents (49,0%) are significantly ($p=.003$) more in favour of the existence and/or presence of an *organised* police system like the SAPS, compared to their male counterparts (46,3%). Females are more than often the victims of sexual crimes and thus more fearful – a reality previously confirmed by social researchers (cf. Clemente & Kleiman, 1977; Garofalo, 1979; Van Velzen, 1998, etc.), which obviously necessitates a formal institution of protection like the SAPS. Police in uniform (usually on patrol) are, therefore, viewed as the only *visible bastion* against possible attacks or similar physical harm because of their 'closeness' and readiness to act against law violators. When cross-correlated with culture group, it appears that White respondents (49,3%) are significantly ($p=.001$) more in favour of the existence (and necessity) of an organised police service than their Black counterparts (46,0%).

Table 2.3 Necessity of the existence of a police service in society, by *gender* and *culture group* (N=572)

STATEMENTS ¹⁾ (var. 6)	Male		Female		Black		White	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Necessary	265	46,3	280 ²⁾	49,0	263	46,0	282 ³⁾	49,3
Unnecessary	4	0,7	11	1,9	9	1,6	6	1,0
TOTAL	269	47,0	291	50,9	272	47,6	288	50,3

1) Scale: (1) Absolutely necessary (2) Necessary (3) Undecided (4) Unnecessary (5) Absolutely unnecessary. Latitude of non-commitment not calculated.

2) Significant: Chi-square = 16,263; 4df; $p=.003$; 3) Significant: Chi-square = 18,986; 4df; $p=.001$.

Recent violent protests by residents at Sasolburg and surroundings following the proposed merging of the Metsimaholo and Ngwathe Municipalities in the Northern Free State province also witnessed a violent attack on the Zamdela police station. On-duty police officers were under siege of protesters for approximately five hours including the whole police station, police vehicles were damaged, windows smashed and stones were thrown at police officers while some tried to force their way into the police station (Annexure G). This kind of human behaviour clearly indicates an open disparagement for the legitimacy of the Zamdela-police as the legal upholders of law and order (Daily News Correspondent & Sapa, 2013:1), in spite of the fact that the police are not responsible for the provisioning of running water, proper sanitation and affordable housing! Beeld Editorial (2013:8) maintains that it has become common practice for South African communities who engage in marches protesting against poor service delivery at local authority level (e.g. at Bekkersdal and Simunye at the West Rand in Gauteng-south), to take the law into their own hands, burn down buildings, looting and damage shops and private property, etc. just to draw the attention of provincial and national governments to their plight for better living conditions. However, violent behaviour and pyromaniac actions should be condemned rather than expecting the police to handle and solve such incidents – it does not fall within the ambit of the police role, unless the law requires police action to address criminal behaviour.

Table 2.4 represents a cross-correlation of the right of existence for a police service (like the SAPS) in a democratic society in terms of four grounds of justification for such a service and the

types of contact with the police and sources of information. The respondents overwhelmingly reacted favourably in respect of two types of contact with the police and five types of sources of information (variables 53 – 59) which may have influenced the forming of their image of the police especially regarding the *justification of their existence* as a police institution in an emergent democratic society like South Africa (Annexure A). The only exception points to the rejection of the police as a legitimate institution on the grounds of *involuntary contact* (variable 53), i.e. either as a complainant or a witness in a criminal case (72,0%). As could be expected, television broadcasts about police performance and behaviour (68,9%), the role of daily newspapers reporting on police actions, positive as well as negative (66,8%), observing the presence of the police when they executed their official duties (66,8%) and even reports over the radio (63,6%), are all sources or ‘types of contacts’ which impacted favourably on the respondents’ perceptions of the right of existence of the SAPS as a ‘democratic’ policing institution.

Table 2.4 Right (justification) of existence of the police in a democratic society, by type of contact and sources of information¹⁾ (N=572)

VAR	TYPE OF CONTACT ²⁾ (V6)	JURIDICAL		POLITICAL		RELIGION		SOCIAL SERVICE	
		F %	O %	F %	O %	F %	O %	F %	O %
53	Voluntary contact	<u>44,2</u>	35,5	8,2	7,3	1,4	0,7	0,3	0,3
54	Involuntary contact	7,7	<u>72,0</u>	2,1	13,5	0,5	1,6	0,2	1,7
55	Told by other	<u>47,4</u>	32,3	8,7	6,8	1,0	1,0	1,2	0,7
56	Daily newspapers	<u>66,8</u>	12,9	11,5	4,0	1,4	0,7	1,4	0,5
57	The radio	<u>63,6</u>	16,1	12,6	3,0	1,6	0,5	1,0	0,9
58	Television	<u>68,9</u>	10,8	12,2	3,3	1,6	0,5	1,7	0,2
59	Police presence	<u>66,8</u>	12,9	12,4	3,1	1,6	0,5	1,6	0,3

(1) Scale: F=Favour : (1) Absolutely necessary (2) Necessary; O=Oppose : (1) Unnecessary (2) Absolutely unnecessary. ‘Unknown’-category not calculated. ⁽²⁾ $p \geq .05$.

2.3.1.2 Justification for the existence of the SAPS

The *police* are part of the executive power system and form one of the main components of the rule of law, i.e. being the servants of the law and not of any specific elected local or central government (Devenish, 1988:281). Justification for the presence of the SAPS in South Africa is, according to Du Preez (1991:31-32), a subtle reminder that although *individual freedom* is guaranteed by the law, the presence of legal rules prescribing human conduct as well as coercive measures necessary to curtail behaviour that opposes the legal prescriptions, are also in place. The latest *Freedom Index* released by the Fraser Institute of Canada and Germany shows that out of 123 countries, South Africa occupies 69th place in terms of *human freedom* (New Zealand takes first place), which is made up of classical civilian freedom (e.g. speech, religiousness, individual economic choice, indicators of crime, violence, freedom of movement, discrimination against gay and women rights) (Nel, 2013:7; RSG, 2013: 12h00, 11 January).

The South African society is infected with a reactive or law enforcement (retributive) posture on the part of the police which may be partly reminiscent of the ‘shoot-to-kill’ statement made by the erstwhile Deputy Minister of Police, Me. S. Shabangu and followed-up by the erstwhile commissioner, Bheki Cele. Although no relationship should be derived from such negative remarks by those politicians and the 556 people shot and killed by the police during the financial year 2008-2009 (Fourie, 2010:2), the high arrest-figure of 67 707 citizens during the 2012-2013 festive season for murder, rape, armed robbery, theft, assault, driving under the influence of liquor, etc. provides a clear indication of the continuation of the reactive nature of police service delivery being disposed (RSG, 2013:14h00; Matipa, 2013:4). The 2010-2011 Annual Report of the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) indicated that electric shocks, suffocation and severe beatings inflicted on suspects detained in police cells were apparently still taking place and concluded “...incidents of police violence have increased five-fold over the past 10 years” (Editorial, The Witness, 2011:8).

Table 2.5 provides a ‘window’ on four aspects which could be listed as the *reasons* or *justifications* for the existence of the police, in other words, the bases on which the establishment of a democratic police system (like the SAPS) rest: juridical, political, religion or social service

provision. This table confirms a continuation of retributive justice, following the juridical posture of the past policing era (from pre- to post-apartheid era) as the prominent *justification* and basis for the *existence* of the SAPS (N=53.3%) Both male (26,0%) and female respondents (27,3%) show convergence on the issue of the police being part of the criminal justice system (juridical basis) and is *not* so much a social service as was expected ($p>05$). The latter perception is confirmed by the low rating (N=35,0%) of the social service function by both male (17,3%) and female (17,7%) respondents ($p\geq.05$).

Table 2.5 Possible bases (justifications) for the existence of the police in a democratic society, by *gender* (N=572)

STATEMENTS ¹⁾ (var. 7)	Male		Female		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Juridical (as part of the criminal justice system)	149	26,0	156	27,3	305	53,3
Political (part of the ruling party)	9	1,6	16	2,8	25	4,4
Religious grounds	10	1,7	8	1,4	18	3,1
Service delivery to society-basis	<u>99</u>	17,3	<u>101</u>	17,7	200	35,0
TOTAL	267	46,6	281	49,2	548	95,8

1) Respondents were requested to mark only one of four options. Unknown-category not calculated.

Table 2.6 Justification for the existence of the police in a democratic society, by *culture group* (N=572)

STATEMENTS ¹⁾ (var. 7)	Black		White		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Juridical (as part of the criminal justice system)	139	24,3	166²⁾	29,0	305	53,3
Political (part of the ruling party)	20	3,5	5	0,9	25	4,4
Religious grounds	10	1,7	8	1,4	18	3,1
Service delivery to society-basis	96	16,8	104	18,2	200	35,0
TOTAL	265	46,3	283	49,5	548	95,8

1) Respondents were requested to mark only one of four options. Unknown-category not calculated.

2) Significant: Chi-square=12,264; 4df; $p=.015$.

A correlation with *culture group* (Table 2.6) reveals a similar trend, except for an observed significant difference between White (29,0%) and Black (24,3%) respondents, both who are in support of the idea of the juridical basis being the predominant justification for the existence of the police (Chi-square = 12,264; 4df; $p=.015$). Under influence of dominant reactive police practices, the *juridical* justification for the existence of organised policing is actually over-emphasised at the cost of the historical-philosophical and real *raison d'être* of the police, i.e. to *deliver a service of safety and security* to all people in society. Apart from supporting the juridical grounds for the existence of the SAPS, White respondents (18,2%) attach greater value to the *social service delivery*-function than the Black respondents (16,8%). This difference is not significant ($p\geq.05$).

Table 2.7 Justification for the existence of the police in a democratic society as a threat to freedom and privacy (variable 8), by type of contact and sources of information¹⁾ (N=572)

VAR	TYPE OF CONTACT ²⁾ (var. 8)	JURIDICAL		POLITICAL		RELIGION		SOCIAL SERVICE	
		F %	O %	F %	O %	F %	O %	F %	O %
53	Voluntary contact	<u>31,5</u>	21,7	2,4	1,9	1,9	1,2	16,6	18,4
54	Involuntary contact	5,6	<u>47,4</u>	0,7	3,7	0,5	2,6	3,0	32,0
55	Told by other	<u>30,8</u>	22,4	2,4	1,9	2,1	1,0	21,3	1,7
56	Daily newspapers	<u>44,2</u>	9,1	3,1	1,2	2,4	0,7	28,5	6,5
57	The radio	<u>42,1</u>	11,2	3,0	1,4	2,4	0,7	28,8	6,2
58	Television	<u>44,6</u>	8,7	3,5	0,9	2,8	0,3	30,8	4,2
59	Police presence	<u>44,8</u>	8,6	4,0	0,3	2,6	0,3	28,0	7,0

1) Nominal measurement: (1) Yes (Favour), (2) No (Oppose); Unknown-category not calculated.

2) $p\geq.05$.

The *type of contact* and *sources of information* in forming a typical public image of the police are presented in Table 2.7. The data in this table underscore the statement that the police role could be evaluated from a certain field of knowledge and experience (cf. Du Preez, 1991) example juridical, political, religion and a social service. In this regard, the data clearly show that the *presence* of the police when executing their official duties appears to be a *threat to personal*

freedom and privacy (44,8%) as it takes on a ‘pure juridical’ character which still appears to be the option for policing according the respondents (31,5%). The juridical justification ground of organised policing also overshadows the other three ‘shades of existence’, especially the rendering of a social service (16,6%). Adding to this finding, the data in Table 2.7 by far outweighs all the other sources of information about policing, like the role of the *mass media*: daily newspapers (44,2%), the radio (42,1%) and more specifically, *television watching* (44,6%), which incessantly honour the principle of ‘public interest’ by reporting on police behaviour and police deviancy and, by doing so, simultaneously inform the public about the wellbeing or otherwise of the police. No significant differences are observed. A breakdown of perceptions in respect of these sources of information, correlated by *gender* (male and female respondents), has already been accounted for in Chapter 1, Table 1.2. For the sake of refreshing the mind, female respondents (44,4%) outnumbered their male counterparts (40,7%) in respect of *television watching* as a popular source of information about the police, most certainly because of the *qualitative value* of pictures, mental images, illustrations within a policing context, etc. The three elements of the mass media (newspapers, radio and TV watching) yielded a mean average of $N=82,0\%$ (male = 39,2% and female = 42,8%) - $p \geq .05$.

Involuntary contact with the police (e.g. as a detained suspect or accused in a criminal case – 47,7%), and what respondents were told (30,8%) by other people about police actions or behaviour while executing their official duties, favourably and favourably respectively, influenced the respondents into believing that the *juridical aspect* of the police role emphasises the importance of law enforcement as being fundamental to peace and prosperity in society. Stone and DeLuca (1994:22-23) are, however, adamant that the *police have no right or authority to interfere with the freedom of anyone (for instance by means of arrest) unless a violation of a specific formal prescription (law) occurred; in other words, the police have no authority to ‘maintain and restore the social order’ except when a criminal act has been committed. The subsequent use of police power to curtail obnoxious or criminal behaviour is thus allowed only under certain circumstances*. Respondents who involuntarily got entangled with the police (either as suspect or accused), therefore, rejected the juridical aspect as a justification for the existence of the police.

2.3.1.3 Further aspects linked to the existence of policing in a democratic society

The perceptions of the research group (sample) as far as the following three dependent variables, cross-correlated with the independent variables *gender* and *culture group* are concerned, will be *collectively* analysed and discussed in the following Tables:

- Policing is a *threat* to personal freedom and privacy - Tables 2.8 (gender) and 2.9 (culture group) (var. 8);
- Obligation to prevent crime – Tables 2.8 (gender) and 2.9 (culture group) (var. 9); and
- Willingness to assist the police crime prevention – Tables 2.8 (gender) and 2.9 (culture group) (var. 10).

2.3.1.3.1 Policing is a threat to personal freedom and privacy

Notwithstanding an almost complete and extreme *reactive disposition* (law enforcement) of the SAPS, well over half of the sample (N=65,9%) believes that the police are not a *threat* to their public freedom and privacy (Table 2.8). It may well be the reactive policing methods and techniques applied by police officers by means of brutal or deadly force, assaulting suspects/victims, and the like, that may have caused the somewhat lower score in regard to the rejection of the statement contained in variable 8 (Annexure A). Female respondents (34,3%) are slightly more inclined to reject the statement (variable 8), compared to their male counterparts (31,6%). On the other hand, male respondents (12,5%) are slightly more convinced than the females (12,2%) that the police are indeed a threat to their constitutional rights to freedom and privacy ($p>.05$).

2.3.1.3.2 Obligation to prevent crime as a member of society

According (Table 2.8) quite a large number of the sample (N=77,1%) declared themselves unconditionally in favour of their *obligation* to also take it upon themselves to eliminate or rather deter prospective criminals (variable 9). Usually, home owners are quick to revert to private security protective measures through alarm systems when the police are unable and inefficient to address such public concerns. Private Security adjuce the fear of crime of law abiding citizen by

providing a 24/7-patrol service with their own vehicles and security guards who are visible in distinctive uniforms and patrol cars which serves as the ideal deterrence to prospective criminals (cf. Steenkamp, 2002). Further analysis reveals that both male (38,6%) and female respondents (38,5%) acknowledge this obligation – $p>.05$ (see Table 2.7)..

2.3.1.3.3 Respondents' willingness to assist the police in their task of preventing crime

Considering the research group's reaction to variable 10 (Annexure A), it transpires that 74 percent of all respondents have indicated their willingness to assist the police in their task to prevent/deter crime. Although not significant, both female (39,0%) and male (35,0%) respondents converged on this statement by declaring themselves *willing* to work in partnership with the police in this regard ($p>.05$) – Table 2.8.

Table 2.8 **Existence of the police (SAPS): (a) as a *threat* to individual freedom and privacy (b) *obligation* on the part of respondents to deter (prevent) crime, and (c) *willingness* to assist the police in crime prevention, by gender (N=572)**

STATEMENTS (vars. 8, 9 & 10)	Male				Female				Total			
	Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Existence of police a <i>threat</i> to freedom, etc. ¹⁾	72	12,5	181	31,6	70	12,2	196	34,3	142	24,8	377	65,9
<i>Obligation</i> : deter crime as member of society ¹⁾	221	38,6	42	7,3	220	38,5	62	10,8	441	77,1	104	18,2
<i>Willingness</i> assist police in crime prevention ²⁾	200	35,0	62	10,8	223	39,0	64	11,2	423	74,0	126	22,0

1) Scale: Favour = (1) Definitely (2) To a great extent; Oppose = (4) To a lesser extent (5) Not at all. / $p\geq.05$.

2) Scale: Favour = (1) Always (2) Often; Oppose = (4) Sometimes, (5) Never. / $p\geq.05$.

Table 2.9 presents the results of bivariate analysis relating to the existence of the police being a *threat* to individual freedom and privacy, cross-correlated with *culture group*. The majority of Black respondents (33,2%) respondents opposed (or denied) the statement that the presence of

the police in society creates a *threat* to individuals' sense of freedom and privacy significantly more than their White (32,5%) counterparts ($p=.010$).

Altogether 77,1% of the research group reacted favourably to their *obligation* as members of society to eliminate (as far as possible) or deter criminal activities in an effort to prevent crime. Scoring also high (74,0%) on the statement in respect of showing their *willingness* to assist the police, the research group 'set the table' to cooperate and assist the police to prevent crime in one or other way. Table 4.8 reveals a significant difference ($p=.021$) between White (40,2%) and Black (33,7%) respondents regarding their willingness to assist their local police to prevent crime.

Table 2.9 **Existence of the police (SAPS) : (a) as a *threat* to personal freedom and privacy (b) *obligation* on the part of respondents to deter (prevent) crime, and (c) *willingness* to assist the police in crime prevention, by *culture or race group* (N=572)**

STATEMENTS (vars. 8, 9& 10)	Black				White				Total			
	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %
Existence of police a threat to freedom, etc. ¹⁾	65	11,4	190	33,2 ³⁾	77	13,5	187	32,5	142	24,8	377	65,9
Obligation: deter crime as member of society ¹⁾	207	36,2	54	9,4	234	40,9	50	8,7	441	77,1	104	18,2
Willingness assist police in crime prevention ²⁾	193	33,7	75	13,1	230	40,2 ⁴⁾	51	8,9	423	74,0	126	22,0

1) Scale: Favour = (1) Definitely (2) To a great extent (3) Unknown, Oppose = (4) To a lesser extent (5) Not at all.

2) Scale: Favour = (1) Always (2) Often (3); Oppose = (4) Sometimes (5) Never. Latitude of non-commitment not calculated.

3) Significant: Chi-square = 13,361; 4df; $p=.010$ / 4) Significant: Chi-square = 11,520, 4df; $p=.021$.

2.3.1.4 Summary

The reasons why the respondents would not report crime to the police are presented in Table 2.1, identifying quite a number of such reasons, among other, the negative attitude of police officers when performing their duties, police officers acting apathetical and the apparent inability of the police to solve criminal cases. Tables 2.3 to 2.9 are dealing with issues such as the legitimacy of the SAPS (var. 6), the justification basis for the existence of the police (var. 7). This perception is strengthened by the rejection of the statement (var. 8) that the presence of the SAPS poses a threat to the individual rights to freedom and privacy, and the acceptance of the obligation by the respondents to deter (prevent) crime (var. 9), and lastly, to willingly assist the police in their task of preventing crime (var. 10) – in terms of both gender and culture group perceptions/ratings.

Both male and female, as well as Black and White respondents, support the juridical aspect as the *right of the police* to exist and be present in a South African democratic context. Females are especially alerted to their dependency relating to their safety and security the police can offer. Even Black respondents are convinced that the police pose no threat to their private lives. Together with the responses of White respondents, it transpires that the functional performance of the police, how meager or shabby it may be, *are being tolerated*, apparently because not every member of society has the financial means to fulfill and satisfy their own basic needs to physical protection, such as implkementing private security. The mere *obligation* of the respondents to deter crime and deviant behaviour and their *willingness* to assist the police in that task should be appreciated by the police and actually nurtured and transformed into a live partnership against criminal behaviour according a community policing tactic.

2.3.2 Police use of force

Police use of force is seen as the cornerstone of control of power which, in essence, entails monopolising public compliance to the laws of the country. Having been in the firing line of the mass and social media in recent months, it seems that the SAPS are continuing firing on one cylinder only: reactive (or repressive) policing, which is being elevated to the primary goal of policing, for example the recent shooting incident in which music star Khuli Chana was shot in

the hand by police in what seems to have been a case of mistaken identity, i.e. for being a kidnapper. Seven bullets hit his car. A charge of attempted murder is being investigated (Leané Meiring, 2013:5; Shain Germaner, 2013:1) – see Annexure H. Reactive policing, often accompanied by an add-on ingredient of *police brutality* is conveniently showcased as an indication that the police are still in control and are functioning optimally in ‘fighting crime’ in an effort to restore order in society. Unlike legitimacy which is likely to optimise compliance with formal prescriptions (laws), the use of [illegal] force by the police may serve as a negative deterrent and is capable of generating prominent disadvantages such as (Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003:3-4):

- Relationships between citizens and the government may turn sour and ultimately prove unstable.
- Regular, excessive use of force by police officers may certainly *damage the public image of the police* and the power structure’s legitimacy which is necessary to maintain a democratic policing style built on mutual trust.
- Police use of force may only be regarded ‘useful’ as an instrument of power for a limited number of activities, example controlling violent protests and the protection of human life and property.
- Personal initiatives, creativity and elements of trust are discouraged in social systems where obedience to formal prescriptions (laws) are based on the use of police force and other forms of police suppression.
- Violent infringements of people’s human rights may result in enormous amounts of civil litigation against police institutions.

2.3.3 Accountability in democratic policing

Apart from existing principles of democratic policing, four additional conditions for the democratic legitimacy and ultimate accountability of the police are to be met (cf. Uildriks & Van Reenen, 2003):

- The presence of a democratic, constitutional political system, based on a clear separation of the legislative, judicial and executive functions of governance. The rule of law clearly *defines* and sets the *limits* of police powers and responsibilities, thereby strengthening the *legitimacy* of legal police actions.
- Police subordination to the law and accountability to an *independent judiciary* are two important guiding principles that govern the use of police force: (1) proportionality (coercive police action should not be more severe than is necessary), and (2) subsidiarity (the police should not use force if alternative actions are available).
- Separation of policing and political responsibility: the police must be operationally independent, non-political and non-partisan (the SAPS often receive instructions from higher echelons in regard to certain ‘criminal cases’ that should rather be investigated by the Intelligence Service the Independent Police Investigation Directorate (IPID), instead of the Hawks or ordinary detectives; the Hawks are apparently not functioning independently from the SAPS (Joubert, 2012:2).
- Open, involved and self-critical management that is responsive to fragmentary public needs. The police must be receptive to public criticism and democratic opinion when providing a service to the community.

Efficient control over the use of force by the police during their operational function constitutes a central issue for both post-communist and post-authoritarian societies who have to adhere to democratic principles that satisfy the needs and expectations of all citizens. In this way *legitimacy*, next to *accountability* constitute important cornerstones on which police democracy is founded. Any police organisation which is guided by democratic principles is expected to adhere to the legal prescriptions restricting the use of police force in certain circumstances, the rule of law and human rights standards. Sometimes the police may feel obliged to use force when they are required to protect themselves or innocent citizens and their human rights against a criminal onslaught. However, the use of excessive force may constitute an infringement of law violator’s human rights and a breach of the democratic principles of *fairness* and *proportionality*,

like for instance, the Marikana/Lonmin Mine massacre where 34 miners were killed by the police (cf. Alexander, Lekgowa, Mmope, Sinwell & Xeswi, 2012). Police officers acting with dignity and empathy towards the needs of citizens when executing their official duties, serve as a deterrent to human rights abuses.

2.4 PUBLIC EXPECTATIONS OF THE POLICE ROLE

The public expect from the police to prevent or totally eradicate crime in society. Bayley (1994:35) informs us that American police spend very little time dealing with real crime and when this happens, their attention and time is mostly devoted to crimes that have already occurred. This author also stresses that any effective influence the police may have on the prevention of crime must evolve from the principle of *deterrence* but then, only a portion of police resources and energy is spent on this function. Goldstein (1990:11) admits that the police actually also deal with many forms of human behaviour that does not necessarily satisfy the definition of crime or criminal. What researchers often lose sight of is the fact that the police also have to deal with crime and victims' fear of criminal harm. The latter term does not always form part of police diaries and is slowly becoming a forgotten issue of proactive policing. Caldwell 1972 (Van Heerden, 1982:153) has indicated that crime is the result of the constant interaction between predisposing and precipitating factors, i.e. the simultaneous *desire* to commit a crime and the belief that the *opportunity* to commit crime exists. The *desire* to commit crime creates a condition of *readiness* in the minds of prospective criminals which is then precipitated by the opportunities that may exist at the time when the commission of crime is planned or executed. The prevention of crime (*inter alia* through police deterrence) is both short-term and long-term oriented and for this reason, the following nine dependent variables have been arbitrarily selected for statistical measurement: 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18 and 19 (Tables 2.10 and 2.11). Apart from cross-correlating these variables with two independent variables: *gender* and *culture group*, they have also been consolidated into *sub-scale 1* (see Chapter 3, par. 3.6.4.1.1).

2.4.1 Short-term and long-term police functions

The role of the police revolves around the maintenance and restoration of the social order (only when criminal behaviour occurs) and encapsulates a number of short-term and long-term functional operations and expectations held by members of society (cf. Van Heerden, 1982). Given the supposition that policing as a social service is delegated by society to the police according constitutional principles, it stands to reason that society may expect a peculiar relationship to exist between their expectations and the service rendered by the police.

Table 2.10 shows the results obtained from a Likert-type measuring scale portraying perceptions of nine variables relating to everyday *police functions* (variables 11-19), in terms of *gender* indicating the degree of importance attached to these ‘expectations’ by the research group. This scale varies from: (1) most important and (2) important, indicating respondents’ favourable perceptions of those functions operationalised into statements, to (4) less important and (5) not important at all, indicating opposition to or rejection of those variables or functions. Notably, the total research group favour the statement dealing with *crime prevention* efforts by the police, more specifically those actions or gestures calculable to deter and eventually eliminate crime (97,9%). Actually, elimination of the opportunities that may precipitate crime commission is being viewed by the research group as the most important function within a democratic policing context. Proactive policing by means of mobile or foot patrol which is destined to facilitate and emphasise police role visibility and the illusion of police omnipresence in an attempt to *deter* crime, has been rated the second most important police function (97,4%). Reactive policing (law enforcement) or the investigation of crimes that have already been committed and through which the *retributive process* is being activated in the hope that justice will be served (96,2%), has been rated third most important function of the police. Protecting and guiding the youth against crime and criminal behaviour has been rated a fourth important (94,4%) function associated with public expectations. Drug dealing and related offences, pornography, rape and related sexual offences involving the youth as well as assaulting and harassing school teachers are only a few examples where police officers in cooperation with the public could play an important role in getting the youth ‘back on track’. Educating citizens in personal safety and security (92,3%) has been rated the fifth important function (of those listed in the table) expected to be attended to by the police

in terms of close cooperation with their communities (CPFs), Neighbourhood Watch Systems, monthly release of crime figures, etc.

Table 2.10 Bivariate analysis of respondents' perceptions of selected police functions, cross-correlated with gender (N=572)

STATEMENTS ¹⁾	Male				Female				Total			
	Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Patrolling the neighbourhoods	267	46,7	4	0,7	290	50,7	5	0,9	557	97,4	9	1,6
Protecting/guiding youth against crime	254	44,4	12	2,1	286	50,0	8	1,4	540	94,4	20	3,5
Educating people in safety and security	247	43,2	17	3,0	281	49,1	11	1,9	528	92,3	28	4,9
Crime investigation (reactive policing)	271	47,4	2	0,3	279 ²⁾	48,8	2	0,3	550	96,2	4	0,7
Crime prevention (proactive policing)	270	47,2	1	0,2	290	50,7	3	0,5	560	97,9	4	0,7
Suppress terrorist/subversive acts	170	30,0	76	13,3	211 ³⁾	36,9	61	10,7	381	66,6	137	24,0
Investigate: traffic offences/accidents	112	19,6	141	24,7	178 ⁴⁾	31,1	98	17,1	290	50,1	239	41,8
Meting out punishment	70	12,2	181 ⁵⁾	31,6	107	18,7	168	29,4	177	30,9	349	61,0
Escort dignitaries with flashing blue lights/sirens	18	3,1	245 ⁶⁾	42,8	46	8,0	241	42,1	64	11,2	486	85,0

1) Scale: Favour: (1) Most important (2) Important; Oppose: (4) Less important (5) Not important at all.

Significant: (2) Chi-square: 13,432; 4df; $p=.009$; (3) Chi-square: 10,226; 4df; $p=.037$; (4) Significant: Chi-square: 24,290; 4df; $p=.012$; (5) Approaching: Chi-square: 8,417; 4df; $p=.07$; (6) Chi-square: 12,767; 4df; $p=.012$.

Proactive police efforts through short-term deterrence of crime is being evaluated slightly more important by female respondents (50,7%) than is the case with their male counterparts (47,2%). This difference is not significant ($p>.05$). Female respondents (50,7%) also outnumbered the male respondents (46,7%) in regard to the importance of *police patrol* through which the physical presence of police officers by means of patrolling neighbourhoods could become evident; a difference that is not significant ($p>.05$). The higher but positive rating of the foregoing two functions is based upon clearly illustrates females' reliance on protection because

they apparently need to overcome their fears of sexual attacks (of which rape is by far the type of crime that is capable of destroying their lives and leave them destitute and surrounded by indescribable emotional and psychological scars, their only hope being the all-round visibility of a close-by police officer in uniform or one that “...is only as far away as one’s telephone” [or cell phone] (Goldstein, 1990:19). In this regard, the recruitment of more police officers had been budget for by the erstwhile Minister of Finance, Mr. Trevor Manuel, when he allocated an additional R1 039bn to allow for the increase of police manpower from 173 000 to 200 000 officers (De Lange & Ngalwa, 2008:1). But sad as it sounds, Bayley (1994:9) suggests “...that police actions cannot be shown to reduce the amount of crime ... the damning conclusion is that the police are not preventing crime ...researchers were unable ... to show that the *number of police* , the *amount of money spent on police* ... or the methods police use had any effect on crime”.

According to Gareth Newham of the Institute of Security Studies (ISS), the SAPS made use of only two techniques in an effort to deter crime: (1) putting up roadblocks and (2) cordoning off a specific area allowing for the search of people. During the financial year 2012-13, more than 20 million people were searched at roadblocks or otherwise – most of which *were not executed* under proper supervision. Apart from allocating 22,9% more of the recent police budget (of R68 milliard) to the VIP-security unit, the ‘visible police unit’ has been allocated 28,2% more money from that police budget. Newham, 2013 (Jody Nel, 2013:4) also indicates that over the past 10 years, police manpower was expanded by 51 percent and in spite of an additional 67 000 posts that have been created, bringing the total visible policing unit’s manpower to 160 000 members, crime did not decreased to an overall acceptable level. The conclusion is that more police officer appointments do not necessarily contribute to lesser crime. National Commissioner Riah Phiyega declared South Africa a safe country when she addressed the Western Cape’s Standing Committee on Community Safety while Western Cape Premier, Helen Zille apparently distanced herself from Phiyega’s viewpoint by emphasising that gang violence at Manenberg is still out of control – which necessitated the appointment of extra Metro Police officers at a cost of R6million (Jan Gerber, 2013:16).

2.4.2 Perceptions of selected police functions according *culture group*

The public expect from the police to prevent or totally eradicate crime in society. Bayley (1994:35) informs us that the police usually spend little time with real crime and when this happens, their attention and time is mostly devoted to crimes that already have occurred. This author also stresses that any effective influence the police may have on the prevention of crime must evolve from *deterrence* but, even then, only a portion of police resources and energy is spent on this function. Goldstein (1990:11) admits that the police have also to deal with many forms of human deviancy that do not satisfy the definition of *crime* or *criminal*. What researchers often lose sight of is the fact that the police also have to deal with victims' fear of criminal harm. Caldwell, 1972 (cf. Van Heerden, 1982) has indicated that crime is the result of the interaction between predisposing and precipitating factors, i.e. the simultaneous *desire* to commit a crime and the *belief* that the opportunity exist to do so. The desire creates a condition of *readiness* in the minds of prospective criminals which is *precipitated* by the opportunity that may exist at the time when the commission of crime is being planned or executed.

While a democratic power structure aims to ensure the prosperity and well-being of its citizens through the application of a Constitution, one of the significant issues of the democratic model of policing is to articulate the activities of the police in emergent democracies, like South Africa which however, after two decades, still 'battle' to get to the 'shift' from an authoritarian to a democratic-type of policing and even the work done by Community Police Forums (CPFs) are not properly understood by both the police and the public. Aside from *visible presence of the police, the arrest and detention of offenders, there appears to be little relationship between levels of police activity, the expectations of community members and the level of crime in the country. Apart from various forms of mostly patrol, a visible but random police presence, retrospective ways of dealing with crime, etc., police tactics and techniques fail to show significant effects on a lower crime rate*. Roughly, since 1994 (change of governments), the inner cities of South Africa were in effect 'infested' by the 'not-so-fortunate' citizens from rural areas in search for employment and a better life; to such an extent that *squatter camps* arose in and around cities or even large towns where not only poverty, but also lack of sustenance prevailed. The issue of unemployment also grew bigger and bigger. Crime, and especially street crimes, became

rampant and the response was to ‘declare war on crime’. The police arrested (even killed) law violators, prosecutors prosecuted, magistrates and judges sentenced and correctional institutions incarcerated – but the crime rate still remains at unacceptable high levels to this day. Apparently, the police do not make any efforts to critically examine what they do, i.e. whether their activities are still in line with public expectations. Perhaps the police would like to be evaluated in terms of *outputs* rather than *outcomes* because a large body of American research during the 1970s, failed “...to show that the number of police, the amount of money spent on police, or other methods police use had any effect on crime” (Bayley, 1994:9-10). As the police became more and more entangled in serious crime (like armed robbery, assault, murder, embezzlement, corruption, etc.), the public are likely to lose confidence in the capabilities, honesty and integrity of the police as the ‘protectors’ of citizens against crime. Recent rumours of the newly appointed national commissioner, General Riah Phiyega allegedly being involved in *defeating the ends of justice* (The Mercury, 2013:1; The Star, 2013:1; Beeld, 2013:1) may just be one of those issues that could exert further negative influence public confidence in the police. Apparently, the police do not make any efforts to critically examine what they do, i.e. whether their activities are still in line with public expectations (and of course of that of the law).

Table 2.11 provides statistical information in matrix form about the respondents’ rating of the nine selected police functions according *culture group*. Analysis of the data reported in this table show that, most importantly:

- *Crime prevention* through deterrent (proactive) police measures is a short-term function that has been rated the *most important* police function and, in fact, tops the respondents’ list of expectations; White respondents (50,1%) outnumbered their Black counterparts (47,2%) in giving this function the highest priority in the ‘police arsenal’ ($p \geq .05$).
- *Patrolling neighbourhoods* by the police which represents real proactive policing as a short-term function and tactic of the police, is what the public expects the police to do: to prevent (deter) crime from being committed because such policing measures may just succeed in adjuring the respondents’ fear of crime too; Whites are slightly but

significantly more in favour of this police tactic than the Black respondents (47,7%) – $p=.000$.

Table 2.11 Bivariate analysis of respondents' perceptions of selected police function, cross-correlated with *culture group* (N=572)

STATEMENTS ¹⁾	Black				White				Total			
	Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Patrolling the Neighbourhoods	273	47,7	3	0,5	284 ²⁾	49,7	6	1,0	557	97,4	21	3,7
Protecting/guiding youth against crime	269	47,0	3	0,5	271 ³⁾	47,4	17	3,0	540	94,4	18	3,1
Educating people in safety and security	271 ⁴⁾	47,4	4	0,7	257	44,9	4	0,7	528	92,3	8	1,4
Crime investigation (Reactive policing)	270	47,2	2	0,3	280	49,0	2	0,3	550	96,2	4	0,7
Crime prevention (proactive policing)	270	47,2	3	0,5	290	50,1	1	0,2	560	97,9	4	0,7
Suppress terrorist/subversive acts	162	28,3	81	14,2	219 ⁵⁾	38,3	56	9,8	381	66,6	137	24,0
Investigate: traffic offences/accidents	141	24,7	110	19,2	149	26,0	129	22,6	290	50,7	239	41,8
Meting out Punishment	61	10,7	195 ⁶⁾	34,1	116	20,3	154	26,9	177	30,9	349	61,0
dignitaries with flashing blue lights/sirens	36	6,3	228	39,0	28	4,9	258 ⁷⁾	45,1	64	11,1	486	85,0

1) Scale: Favour: (1) Most important, (2) Important, Oppose: (4) Less important, (5) Not important at all.

2) Sig: Chi-square: 27,209; 4df; $p=.000$. / 3) Sig: Chi-square: 34,062; 4df; $p=.000$. / 4) Sig: Chi-square: 73,349; 4df; $p=.000$. / 5) Sig: Chi-square: 23,616; 4df; $p=.000$. / 6) Sig: Chi-square: 23,255; 4df; $p=.000$. / 7) Sig: Chi-square: 17,718; 4df; $p=.001$.

- *Crime investigation* (or law enforcement) is what is necessary to restore the social order, only after a criminal act took place. Usually, the respondents' expectation that 'justice should be done' would be satisfied if the police are capable of ensuring the presence of suspects in criminal courts and the mass media inform the public accordingly; Whites

attach a slightly higher value (49,0%) to this reactive police function, compared to Black respondents (47,2%) - $p \geq .05$.

- *Protecting and guiding the youth against crime* is a very important long-term function of the police irrespective of the positive role played by the family, the church, the school and/or peers. Police are said to be in a unique position to take the lead in consulting with community leaders – usually at Community Police Forums; both Black (47,0%) and White respondents (47,4%) converged on this function. However, White respondents are significantly more in favour of this function, apparently because of their closeness to their kids ($p = .000$).
- Lastly, *educating people in personal safety and security* as a long-term police function requires positive communication between the police and residents by means of monthly newsletters or leaflets containing information about the prevailing status of crime by means of monthly statistics, as well as any dangers present in certain neighbourhoods, how to secure themselves their property (especially in cases of house robberies which usually occur just before or after midnight, etc.). Black respondents (47,7%) are significantly more in favour ($p = .000$) of people being educated in methods and techniques to protect themselves against criminal attacks.

Apart from two somewhat low-rated *remote* police functions: (1) suppression of terrorist activities (White respondents – 38,3% are significantly ($p = .000$) more in favour of this function compared to Blacks – 28,3%) and (2) investigating traffic offences and accidents (White 26,0% and Black respondents 24,7%) - $p \geq .05$, the research group vehemently rejected the following two functions: (1) the meting out of punishment (61,0%) as being a court *and not a police* function (although it is sometimes hinted that newspapers and their readers already have tried somebody who got in trouble, e.g. the recent shooting incident involving blade runner and Olympic champion, Oscar Pistorius, and (2) escorting dignitaries with flashing blue lights and/or sirens (85,0%), which is believed to be rather a ‘traffic police’ function and responsibility at provincial and local authority management levels, than a police function: Whites significantly outnumbered ($p = .001$) the Black respondents.

As far as the prevention of crime through deterrence is concerned, it would, however, appear that both government and the private sector have immense responsibilities in this regard, especially as far as job creation is concerned. Quoting from the latest Quarterly Labour Force Survey provided by Statistics SA, Mngoma, Mbanjwa and Nyanda (2013:1) reported that 3,484 million youth could still not find jobs, yielding to an *unemployment rate* of, roughly speaking, 25,2 million. It stands to reason the police cannot be expected to act as ‘shock absorbers’ between dissatisfied citizens and incompetence at provincial or local government level as far as the provisioning of human livelihood in terms of clean, running water, proper housing and sanitation, etc. are concerned.

Being part of the retributive system, the whole idea behind the principle of: ‘justice served’, in most cases appears to be a last resort for victims of crime, despite problems encountered in criminal courts like ‘case overloads’, insufficient staff and even internal undercurrents between staff members of the National Prosecution Authority (NPA). Both Black (47,2%) and White (49,0%) respondents are strongly in favour of the *law enforcement* or crime investigation function of the police ($p>.05$). Since 1994, the SAPS have become more attuned to being a ‘force’ rather than being ‘nice’ through rendering a *service* to the public, irrespective of whether the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) very clearly protects individual human rights to freedom and safety. The *crime fighter image* of the new ‘democratic police service’ quickly took on the *apartheid posture* of being a ‘police force’. On 16 November 2009, Hilda Fourie of Beeld-newspaper brought the following series of police killings to the attention of the broader public: in December 2007, 11 armed robbers were instantly shot and killed and one seriously wounded by the police. Those robbers hijacked a Coin Security van with semi-automatic rifles near the Carousel Casino north of Pretoria, Gauteng North (Hoskens, 2007:1) (Annexure I), in 2010, 2 armed robbers were shot by the police and 4 others wounded at Drie Riviere, Vereeniging (Beeld, 2010:1) – Annexure J, during November 2011, police and armed robbers were involved in a shoot-out in Mayfair, Johannesburg. One robber was fatally wounded (while a cop and a bystander were also hurt). The van in which the armed robbers were travelling, eventually crashed into a robot after a high-speed chase (Annexure K), at a Coin Depot in Robertsville, an armed robbery of R100m was foiled by the Special Task Force, Crime Intelligence, a Hi-Tech Unit as well as the Hawks. Seven armed robbers lost their lives in a shoot-out with the police and

nine other in hospital They were armed with AK47s, R5-rifles, semi-automatic pistols and police-issued 9mm firearms (Pather & Hosken, 2012:1) – Annexure L. A foiled heist in Meadowlands, Soweto witnessed the arrest of seven armed robbers and the seizure of four pistols and two stolen vehicles (Annexure M).

The *protection and guidance of the youth* against criminal behaviour, especially drug-related offences, rape, abduction, murder, etc., elicited an almost similar favourable difference in perception between female (50,0%) and male (44,4%) in re regard to this dependent variable ($p>.05$). Nowadays, young child victims are being targeted by criminals. White respondents (47,4%) maintain a slightly more favourable perception of this police function, compared to their Black counterparts (47,0%) which is significant in nature ($p=.000$). Jody Nel of Beeld (2013:2) provides the following Diepsloot, Soweto crime statistics, following the discovery of the bodies of a 2 and 3 year-old female girls who have been apparently raped, murdered and dumped in an outside toilet. Recently, a 5 year-old girl of the same township was also raped and murdered, while the bodies of two other girls, raped and murdered, were found on a rubbish dump. At Ntambanana, northern Zululand, an infant has been discovered in the contents of a long drop. She was still alive (Dave Savides, 2013:1). Table 2.12 reveals a comparison of selected crime statistics for Diepsloot during 2011-12 and 2012-13. The events and statistics highlighted here underscore the need for greater police visibility.

Table 2.12 Selected crime statistics: Diepsloot, Soweto over a two year-period

CRIME TYPE	2011-2012	2012-2013	% INCREASE	% DECREASE
Murder	52	69	32,17	-
Sexual crimes (rape, etc.)	141	138	-	2,1
Abduction	12	11	-	8,3
Child neglect / Maltreatment	3	7	133,3	-
Housebreaking	436	418	-	4,1

Source: Beeld, 16 October 2013, p.2.

An interesting tendency unfolds when *educating the public in self-protection* becomes an issue. Black respondents (47,4%) are significantly ($p=.000$) more satisfied with this task being done by the police compared to White respondents (44,9%) who would rather opt for installing private security measures in their homes, trusting that an alarm-systems would detect illegal intruders. Considering gender, the data reveal that female respondents (49,1%) by far outnumber their male 'colleagues' (34,2%) in respect of this aspect – $p>05$.

The foregoing analysis of data show that, while policing entails a *service to society* in terms of constitutional conditions and democratic values, it does appear that a reasonable relationship exists between the expectations citizens attach to the services rendered by the police in terms of the selected functions contained in Tables 2.10 and 2.11 (discussed above). The most important police functions listed in these tables are more or less representative of the two most important pillars underling the concept of order in society: proactive and reactive police actions (cf. Van Heerden, 1982; Du Preez, 1991).

Although the suppression of terrorist (or subversive) activities could be classified as a long-term function of the police these activities have, since the change of government on 27 April 1994, not been a prominent problem, except for the Boeremag-trial which took more than ten years to be concluded in the Pretoria High Court (Zelda Venter & Sapa, 2013:1). For this reason, it has been categorised as a *remote function* of the police. Although realising the seriousness (or not?) of this police function, the sample actually attached a somewhat lower value to this function (66,6%) compared to the proactive and reactive functions of the police *per se*. Currently, the investigation of motor vehicle accidents and the investigation of traffic offences remains a local as well as a provincial responsibility, irrespective of whether this function has been made part of the policing function in terms of the Police Act No 68 of 1995.

The relatively low rating of this function may be the result of confusion: should it be a police function in the true sense of the word or should it be implemented as an income-generating enterprise for local authorities to keep them financially viable, given the annual fatal accident figure on the main roads of the country?

2.5 RATING POLICE EFFICIENCY (N=572)

Having evaluated the nine police functions (Tables 2.5 and 2.11) associated with the execution of the police role on a daily basis, the question of whether the police are capable of performing those functions *efficiently* (variable 20), and in accordance with the expectations of the research group (sample), the independent variable *gender* has been cross-correlated with the dependent variable *efficiency*. The data in Table 2.13 unveils that just over half of the research group rated the police as *highly inefficient* to *inefficient* (54,5%), compared to those respondents (33,6%) who believe that the police are indeed highly efficient to efficient. According *gender*, male respondents (28,5%) outnumbered their female (26,0%) counterparts in respect of their evaluation of police inefficiency ($p \geq .05$). As far as *efficiency* is concerned, female respondents are slightly more convinced (18,5%) than their male counterparts (15,0%) that this is indeed the case.

Table 2.13 Statistical rating of *police efficiency* based on the evaluation of selected police functions, by *gender* (N=572)

RATING ¹⁾	MALE		FEMALE		TOTAL	
	n	%	n	%	N	%
Highly efficient / Efficient	86	15.0	106	18,5	192	33,6
Highly inefficient / Inefficient	163	28,5	149	26,0	312	54,5

Scale: (1) Highly efficient (2) Efficient (3) Undecided (4) Inefficient (5) Highly inefficient.
 $p \geq .05$.

2.6 SUMMARY

The *need for the existence* of a police institution, like the SAPS, in a democratic society has been confirmed by the research group: South Africa needs a police institution to attend to the expectations of its citizenry in terms of the functional performance of such police service. Based on the historical ideal of service delivery (*Servamus et Servimus* - to serve and protect) since the

time of Sir Robert Peel of England in 1829, makes the South African Police Service (SAPS) an ideal social institution in this regard. However, the one-sided change of the *police service* legitimised by law in 1995 into a *police force* on 1 April 2010 by the State President at Pretoria, has not only placed the police in an unenviable but also undemocratic situation if only the incidents of the past few months (not to speak of the past few *years*) are taken into consideration. Policing appears to be in a crisis. The Mail & Guardian newspaper for 1-7 November 2013 allocates no less than four pages to what is called: *infighting before crime fighting* and *cop vs cop*, emphasising that *law enforcement* as a police function "...is a mess of tit-for-tat actions and allegations as leaders (most senior police staff of the highest echelons) battle each other instead of the criminals" (Mail & Guardian, 2013:1; 30). Perhaps cartoonist Zapiro illustrates this police intrigue in policing (Annexure N).

The Mail & Guardian's *comment and analysis* (2013:30) believes that the most senior police officer of the SAPS occupying the apex of the police bureaucratic structure "...has been drawn into the epidemic of infighting and Machiavellian intrigue that is consuming the leadership of our crime-fighting services". The 'disclosure' of South Africa's third Commissioner's involvement in a deviant action(s) (after the termination of the first successful commissioner's stint), already caused much damage to the image of the police simply because the settlement of personal, professional and political battles within an institutional context has already reached critical proportions in the face of escalating criminal activities e.g. murder and rape (especially of infants), murdering of policemen, farmers and the like, house robberies, shoot-outs between the police and armed robbers, etc., that needs all the energy of these police leaders to be successfully addressed. And apparently, it has become fashion to involve the police, intelligence services and the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) to 'fight and settle' such 'battles' which clearly lead to functional displacement: personal, but secondary battles (institutional disorder) are being elevated to a primary objective and the primary functions (social disorder) through proactive and reactive policing are reduced to secondary activities and concerns.

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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY: PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Before paying attention to *what research* is all about, it may serve a useful purpose to briefly become aware of what *science* really means. Huysamen (1994:1) points out that science is neither reserved for association with medical and technological advancements, nor is it restricted to knowledge applicable to certain scientific fields of study only, such as physics, chemistry, and the like. Science entails the method of expanding scientific knowledge and as a result, it can be applied to a wider range of sciences. Given the peculiar nature or character of the phenomena with which the social and behavioural sciences keep itself busy, viz. *human behaviour* and the *experience* of such behaviour, their techniques utilised may differ from those used in the natural sciences. It is apparently for this reason that the methods and techniques of the natural sciences may be useful and applicable to the social and behavioural sciences – especially in cases of quantitative research orientations which are based on positivism.

Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:2-3) provide a more contemporary definition of *research* as being “...a process that involves obtaining scientific knowledge by means of various objective methods and procedures ...drawing a sample, measuring variables, collecting information and analysing this information...” with a view of interpreting, explaining and describing statistical outcomes.

Goddard and Melville (2001:113-119) provide an interesting answer to the questions: ‘What is research’ and ‘Why do researchers continually engage in scientific enquiries’? Moreover: ‘Why must they engage in research about the purpose of social life since the beginning of the first known form of civilization’? Philosophers are attributing the constant search for knowledge to the assumption that knowledge empowers people. Sir Francis Bacon (Farrington, 1953:113)

discovered the possibility that an *intimate connection* and a form of *identity* may exist between the appearance of human power and human knowledge. Such empowerment is virtually to be found at all the levels and aspects of our existence, example: the skilled electrician, the skilled technician, the skilled medical officer, etc.

Present-day science and research appears to be the result of the contribution of ancient Greek philosophers to the process of *how* searches for knowledge have been made as far back as 600 B.C. At that time, Greek civilisation was already the outcome of earlier thought, i.e. before 600 B.C. Written language, for instance, had been developed much earlier by ancient Egyptians and Babylonians, round about 3000 B.C. when both cultures shared *language* consisting of logographsics or symbols. However, the Western philosophy (Welman et al, 2005:114) has its origin in the pre-Socratic era of thought when Thales (Russell, 1991) circa 585 B.C. asked a *question* (Allen, 1966) about the source of all things which triggered and motivated debate among contemporary philosophers of that time which, in turn, initiated the ancient Greek need for knowledge. Some attempts to answer Thales' question were based on mysticism and religion. Apart from other attempts to *observe nature* with a view of achieving a common-sense approach to answering such question, Flew 1984 (Welman et al, 2005:114) indicated that it was actually Pythagoras (circa 550 B.C.) who emerged as the founder of modern science which made researchers take note of speculative hypotheses and deductive reasoning.

Socrates (circa 470-399 B.C) and Plato (circa 428-348 B.C.) developed the so-called *Socratic method*, a dialectical process through which a statement or an opinion is discussed, an antithesis or counter argument is presented which eventually leads to a synthesis. Whereas Plato was an idealist as far as the question of reality was concerned, Aristotle was a realist in his approach who positively rated the role of *observation* when acquiring knowledge about a [social] phenomenon. Equally important is the fact that he was the first philosopher who attempted the idea of *categorizing* observed material into classes: substance, relationship, quantity, quality, etc. His formulation of the syllogism, a way of arguing in which two statements are used to prove that a third one is true, led to logical deduction.

After the philosophical contributions of Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, modern scientist emerged around the 13th century, followed by Descartes (1596-1650), Locke (1632-1704), the founder of empiricism, and Kant (1724-1804). Husserl (1859-1938), who developed *phenomenology*, was followed by Heidegger (1889-1976) and Einstein (1879-1955) who proffered their theories on *relativity* (Goddard & Melville, 2001:117). Unfortunately, scientific research appears to be mainly the product of European origin. But that does not mean the African continent in general and South Africa in particular has no need for scientific research. The Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) identified five broad programs: (1) meeting basic needs (2) developing human resources (3) building the economy (4) democratising the state and society, and (5) implementing the RDP. On its turn, The National Research Foundation (NRF) provided a list of eighteen research focus areas (Goddard & Melville, 2001:120-121). One specific focus area, *democratising South Africa*, creates an appropriate area of focus for the present study. Van Heerden (1982) points out that policing did not originate from a particular theory or school of scientific thought, but emerged from an historical social need for safety and security, i.e. to prevent crime through deterrence, relieving people from their fear of crime and securing the peaceful co-existence of all citizens in a democratic way. More particularly, the present study: *An exploratory study of the public image of the police* in which emphasis is being placed upon public perceptions, opinions and attitudes relating to the way in which the police fulfill their role in societal context, places the legitimacy of a police service – like the South African Police Service – in the center of public expectations which forms part and parcel of the Bill of Human Rights in a democratic society.

In the discussion that follows, certain aspects relating to the survey research methodology that has been initiated will be outlined in support of Chapter 3.

3.2 AIMS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The primary (or overarching) aim of the present study revolves around establishing the nature of the public image of the South African Police Service (SAPS) based on the perceptions and opinions of 572 public respondents: is it a *positive* or *negative* image? Following are the secondary aims:

- Aim 1: To establish the *basis* of or *justification* for the existence of the SAPS measured against the following aspects:
- (a) the *necessity* for their existence (var. 6), (b) the *justification* for having a police service in a democratic society like South Africa (var. 7), (c) whether the existence of a police entity (and their presence) is a *threat* to individual freedom and privacy (var. 8), and (d) whether the public see themselves as having an *obligation*, as members of society, to prevent crime (var.9), and *willing* to assist the police in their task of ensuring public safety (var. 10).
- Aim 2: To establish the degree of importance/unimportance of arbitrarily selected day-to-day *police functions* in meeting respondents' expectations in regard to eradicating crime and the fear of crime, and whether any significant differences in opinions emerged during cross-correlations and bivariate analysis with independent variables (vars.11–19).
- Aim 3: To ascertain whether the SAPS are acting efficiently when called upon to handle the crime problem (var. 20).
- Aim 4: To establish the reasons why the respondents would not report all crimes to the police (vars. 23 – 31).
- Aim 5: To measure the degree to which arbitrarily selected police characteristics associated with functional performance when performing the police role could exert a significant influence on respondents' public image (vars. 32–44).
- Aim 6: To unveil whether selected organisational and functional aspects would contribute towards improving the public image of the police (vars. 45-52).

3.3 SURVEY DESIGN

Referring to Seltiz, Jahoda, Deutsch and Cook (1965), Mouton and Marais (1993:32) describe *research (survey) design* as the “...arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure”. Research design is built on two pillars: *designing and planning*. Design in social research can be thought of as the vital decisions researchers have to make when ‘planning’ a research project, example in cases of structured and controlled research such as experimental studies. The concept *design* has also become important in present-day closed-structured social survey studies, especially when planning and designing sampling procedures (techniques) are at stake. *Research design* becomes especially important when the need for reliability and validity in measurement has to be considered, especially to eliminate inaccuracies as far as possible (Mouton & Marais 1993:32-33).

Mouton (2001:55) views *research design* as “...a plan or blueprint of how you [researcher] intend conducting the research...” and “...focuses on the end product, formulates a research problem as a point of departure, and focuses on the logic of research”. It follows from this view that research design entails an unraveling process consisting of various phases enabling the research process to systematically unfold in a planned and ordered way. Quite a number of research designs are observable, e.g. experimental and non-experimental designs, hypotheses-developing designs, exploratory designs, quantitative-descriptive (survey) designs, quasi-experimental designs, etcetera (De Vos et al, 2005:133-143). According to these authors, Neuman (cf. 2000) differentiates between quantitative and qualitative research designs. The quantitative orientation encapsulates experimental research, survey procedures and content analysis (De Vos et al, 2005:135).

The research design earmarked and adopted in the present inquiry into the *public image of the police*, involves a *quantitative* or *empirical design* (par. 3.6.1.1.1) as well as a qualitative approach (par. 3.6.1.1.2). As such, it is exploratory and descriptive in nature and extent. Whereas *description* in applied research studies provides an ‘overall view’ of the specific details of the

social phenomenon being studied or examined, exploratory research keeps itself busy with the basic facts (truths), people and concerns, in relation to that social phenomenon. Descriptive research allows the researcher to formulate and facilitate statements or questions that form part of a survey, operationalised as variables (Neuman and Wiegand (2000:19-20). These authors further opine that both these orientations have many similarities and in practice, they blur together. In descriptive research, however, theoretical explanations are ‘less central’.

3.4 HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses, according Kerlinger, 1979 (Neuman & Wiegand (2000:105) are “...much more important in scientific research than they would appear to be just by knowing what they are and how they are constructed [formulated]”. Kerlinger (cf. 1979) defines *hypothesis* as a proposition to be tested or it could be seen as a *tentative statement* of a relationship between two variables, usually an independent versus a dependent variable, which appears to be the main reason for having formulated null-hypotheses. This author identifies the following three characteristics of hypotheses:

- hypotheses have a *deep* and *highly significant purpose*;
- they are *powerful tools* with which knowledge could be acquired; and
- they *can be tested* and shown to be correct or incorrect (Kerlinger, 1979).

3.4.1 Formulating hypotheses

Each formulated hypothesis is a ‘personification’ of a dependent variable or cluster of variable(s). Hypotheses are actually capable of testing the strength and the direction of a relationship between two variables. Hypotheses can be tested in two ways: (a) the straightforward and (b) the null-hypothesis way. Most researchers following a quantitative approach formulate hypotheses according a null-hypothesis pattern. Consequently, a researcher who decides to only formulate null-hypotheses (as in the case of the present study), would examine evidence allowing him/her to directly test the *null-hypotheses*. If evidence supports or cause the researcher to accept the null-hypothesis, it would mean that the *tested relationship* (between two variables) does not exist and that the alternative hypothesis is therefore false. If the

null-hypothesis is to be rejected, then the alternative hypothesis remains a possibility and although this hypothesis cannot be supported as ‘true’, it will be kept in contention (Neuman and Wiegand, 2000:108). The following hypotheses were formulated for empirical testing:

Hypothesis 1:

Justification for the existence of the SAPS: (a) is a necessity in contemporary, democratic South Africa (var. 6); (b) rendering a social service accords the SAPS the necessary justification for their existence (var. 7); (c) police existence poses a threat to individual freedom and privacy (var. 8); (d) the public (respondents) have an obligation to prevent crime (var. 9); and (e) are willing to assist the police in their task of maintaining social order (var. 10).

Hypothesis 2:

The selected day-to-day police operational functions are most important in meeting respondents’ expectations in regard to eradicating crime and the fear of crime (vars. 11-19).

Hypothesis 3:

Judged from their day-to-day *operational functions*, the SAPS are highly efficient in handling the crime problem (var. 20).

Hypothesis 4:

There are pertinent reasons why the respondents would not report crime to the police (variables 23-31).

Hypothesis 5:

Selected police characteristics that come to the fore during the execution of their official duties exert a negative influence on their public image (vars. 32-43).

Hypothesis 6:

Selected organisational and functional aspects contribute to the improvement of the police image (vars. 44-52).

3.5 RESEARCH APPROACH

The present study follows a general-scientific approach which is relatively close to the physical (natural) sciences (De Vos et al, 2005:73-75), with *positivistic* undertones. This natural scientific approach suggests that "...the same approach applicable to studying and explaining physical reality can be used in the social sciences (Hagan, 2000:19). Theoretical or philosophical *epistemology* (i.e. knowledge of social phenomena like the *public image of the police*), as well as the procedures (methods and techniques) for determining their validity and existence), are rooted in the *positivism* (De Vos et al, 2005:5-7). Positivism is basically nothing more than *quantification* of data about a social phenomenon; a tradition that keeps itself busy with measuring social, and more particularly, criminal justice realities. Positivism also subscribes to a scientific practice that is characterised by 'problem-solving' through empirical research (Van Velzen, 1998:62) – especially in cases of applied criminal justice research. Broadly speaking, *positivism* is viewed as "...a theory of knowledge that is based on the assumption that facts exist as inherent attributes to 'things'; that controlled sensory perception [through the five human senses] is the only way of knowing and that knowledge has, as its primary aim, the discovery of [social] laws according to which society [reality] operates" (Alant, Lamont, Maritz & Van Eeden, 1981:199).

When studying *social science*, three prominent paradigms emerge:

- Nineteenth-century sociologist, William Dilthey's (1833-1911) tenet rests on the belief that all human beings have a *free will* and, as a result, their actions cannot be predicted or generalised. This 'interpretive' view of social science is based on two different types: (a) *natural* sciences and (b) *human* sciences. The first type entails *Erklärung*, or abstract analyses and deliberations. The latter forms part of Max Weber's (1854-1920) concept of empathic understanding (also known as *Verstehen*) of everyday social and historical realities (Bailey, 1982:5; De Vos et al, 2005:6-7).
- Another tenet relating to social science introduced by Emile Durkheim, postulated that social phenomena are indeed *orderly* and can be generalised. This scientific view paved the way for the creation and establishment of *positivism*, because Durkheim believed that

social phenomena “ ...adhere to underlying social laws, just as physical phenomena follow physical laws ... with little difference between social science and natural science ... except for subject matter” (Bailey, 1982:5).

- A third view acknowledges that not all social scientists subscribed to either the idea of physical science or positivism as did Durkheim. There are social scientists who prefer a ‘middle of the road’ approach proffered by Max Weber, who supported an intermediate approach between the two existed extremes of Dilthey, on the one hand, propagating that human actions are unpredictable, and Durkheim on the other hand, suggesting that social science should implement methods of the physical (natural) sciences. Weber postulated that the ‘free will’ of people, although a product of volitional action, does not make human behaviour totally unpredictable. Human action is exercised in a rational way making it possible, through prediction, to understand rational action – even through what he labeled: ‘direct and emphatic understanding’ (Bailey, 1982:6).

The present study adopts a typical Durkheim-positivistic approach. Positivism subscribes to the truth found in everyday life; through factual (statistical) data forthcoming from information reflecting respondents’ observations (through their five senses), feelings, opinions and attitudes in reaction to operationalised statements/questions (variables) contained in a structured questionnaire (e.g. Annexure A).

3.6 RESEARCH STRATEGY

An unsophisticated contemporary description of what the term *research* really means, is to be found in Khoza (2004:28), which points to “...the application of a variety of standardised research methods and techniques in the pursuit of knowledge and insight... and the application thereof for purposes of prediction and control”. A somewhat more conservative approach to describing the term *research* was brought into play by Grobbelaar (1994:80-86) with reviews of the term *research* stemming from textbooks dating back as far as 1978, 1984 and 1990. Tuckman (1978:1), for instance, opines that *research* is a “...a systematic attempt to provide answers to questions”, and Mouton (1984:38-39) describes the term as “...a collaborative human activity which entails the critical and systematic investigation of reality for the purposes of gathering

valid information/data/evidence to support or refute a specific proposition ... in order to describe, explain or predict [or control] a particular aspect of reality ...". Babbie (1990:27) regards the aim of social researchers "...as the ultimate ability to understand the world around them". Some or most of these definitions are linked with Van der Westhuizen's (1982:2) view about the term *research* as being the production of knowledge of and insight into a subject and the application of that knowledge for the purpose of prediction and [symbolic] control. Quoting Kerlinger (1986), a more enlightened definition is given by De Vos et al, (2005:41) about research as a "...systematic, controlled, empirical, and critical investigation of natural phenomena, guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations among such phenomena.

Neuman and Wiegand (2000:21-23) distinguish three dimensions or objectives of criminological/criminal justice research: exploration (the beginning-stage of research to learn more about a social phenomenon with a view of undertaking more advanced research at a later stage), description (describing a well-defined and well-demarcated topic accurately in terms of empirical evidence/data) and explanation (identifying the reasons 'why' a social phenomenon occurs the way it has been presented in social life, etc.). The present research inquiry has, as its primary aim, an exploratory and descriptive analysis of the public image of the police in South Africa. It is exploratory, because in the past seventeen years since the African National Congress (ANC) took control of the political 'scene' in South Africa, no empirical study of the public image [role and functions] of the South African Police Service (SAPS) has been undertaken to establish whether the public favour or do not favour the SAPS in terms of their expectations. Further, it is anticipated that the final outcome of the present study could also be indicative whether the public would support or withhold assistance from the police in order maintenance and more specifically, the elimination of crime precipitants. Paragraph 3.3 provides a more comprehensive account of the aims and objectives of the present study.

3.6.1 Present research approaches

Research methods, specifically, are unique, independent approaches to studying social phenomena, like crime, fear of crime (cf. Van Velzen, 1998), the usefulness of car guards in parking lots (Potgieter, Michell, Munnik & Ras, 2005), the role of private security in crime prevention (cf. Steenkamp, 2002), deviant driving behaviour (cf. Khoza, 2004) and the public image of the police, etc. Research methods are necessary to produce generally valid and acceptable findings and conclusions. Most researchers in quantitative criminal justice research methodology are eager to acknowledge three broad methods of research creating a useful framework at both quantitative and qualitative levels. These methods are: (a) case analysis, which becomes functional at the individual-human level when studying single cases, (b) method of mass observation to handle large quantities of information, such as statistics, i.e. at the group level, and (c) analytical method, a research method which could be implemented at any of the afore-mentioned levels. The analytical research method usually incorporates both case analysis and mass observation research methods as *techniques*. Van der Westhuizen (1982:3-4) lists four important functions of the analytical research method which are in line with the systems theory approach proffered by sociologist, Talcott Parsons, simply because it brings about description and analysis in virtually the same way as the functions of theory (cf. Parsons, 1954, cf. Labuschagne, 1992):

- *Goal achievement.* The goal-directed function paves the way for (a) descriptive investigations/analyses, (b) explanatory, and (c) applicative techniques to predict and control the social phenomenon being investigated. The primary goal of the SAPS entails the *maintenance of the social order* (Van Heerden, 1982) through preventative and repressive techniques and/or tactics (Labuschagne, 1992:153-203).
- *Adaptive function.* The adaptive function not only emphasises adaptation of social organisations but also that of the researcher to the study aims of a scientific inquiry. The researcher should, however, also become familiar with appropriate theories explaining the social phenomenon in an attempt to establish a meaningful relationship between fact and theory (Labuschagne, 1992:249-292).
- *Integrative function.* Owing to the viewpoint that the analytical research method is non-particular in its methodological approach, it integrates and bestows neutrality upon the researcher to accommodate and incorporate both individual-human and group orientations

as appropriate research techniques. Parsons opines that this kind of ‘neutrality’ points to the adjustment of conflict by means of coordinating the other two methodological components into one, mutual research ‘system’ (Labuschagne, 1992:204-248).

- *Pattern maintenance.* According to Parsonian imperatives, pattern maintenance entails the preservation of the basic pattern of values, meaning that the analytical method, likewise, preserves recognised methodological norms (principles) and accepted descriptive, explanatory, predictive and control techniques, while leaving ample room for change, refinement and innovation (Labuschagne, 1992:293-323).

Because of the generation of human knowledge, the researcher is likely to implement specific and appropriate research methods, techniques and procedures that have the ability to generate such insight and application thereof with the aim of facilitating prediction and (symbolic) control.

3.6.1.1 Quantitative and qualitative research methods

A mixed-methods approach is followed in the present study (cf. Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998):

3.6.1.1.1 Quantitative method

Before attending to further methodological expositions surrounding the public’s image of the police in South Africa, it should be reiterated that the survey design and methodology selected and described in this research report, firstly applies to an empirical orientation with *quantitative* properties and secondly to a *qualitative* approach.

3.6.1.1.2 Qualitative method

Qualitative research seeks to study social reality with the aim of uncovering cultural meaning. Understanding social reality in this fashion is brought about by individual’s perceptions (through the five human senses), beliefs, feelings, behaviour as well as the meanings and interpretations being attached to certain situations (Ras, 2006:80-81). Another researcher, Grobler (2005:234-235), opines that it is through the way people observe and interpret practical situations, events and other people’s actions, that one stands to gain understanding of the subjective experiential world of people. The kind of qualitative literature or documentary review utilised to assist the

researcher in understanding the research problem (public image of the police) within the context of an empirical methodological approach is being highlighted in paragraph 3.8.2.1. In addition to the sources mentioned in that paragraph, *photographs* appearing in selected daily newspapers over a period of time, reflecting on or highlighting or supporting some functional or ‘illegal actions’ (or some heroic deeds) of police service delivery, emphasise the ‘cultural meaning’ of situations, were also included. Capturing a *quality of the moment*-event with a camera, for instance, provides a mental image that reflects a critical and interpretive understanding of the true meaning of a specific situation. Photographs picturing street protesters (Annexures O and P) may clearly unveil the emotional side of the situation that accompanies the anger, rage, frustrations, powerlessness, etc., of people about some very important aspect(s) touching their lives and well-being, such as the absence of proper service delivery (The Star, 2009:10) or under-payment for work done and the brutal killing of Andries Tatane at Ficksburg by police officers after violence erupted in the public streets of Meqheleng, Ficksburg (Beeld, 2011:4), the dragging and killing of Mido Macia at Daveyton (Dube & Makuyana, 2013:1) (Annexure Q and R) and the assault of a 16-year old boy and dragged to a police van (Louw-Carstens, 2012:6) (Annexure S). Apart from assaulting people, stone throwing and burning of tyres are often used as street blockades to show discontent with prevailing life problems and other social issues (like poor sanitation, lack of clean water, proper housing, etc). Added to all these ‘techniques’ within a qualitative context are social and/or political, *satirical sketches* portraying emotional moments or humoristic criticism of events which appear from time to time in daily newspapers relating to operational police performances.

Although being the subject of much criticism, De Vos (et al, 2005:359-360) nevertheless focus attention on the emergence of a *mixed methods*-approach described by Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), where elements of both quantitative and qualitative approaches are being dealt with ‘under the same roof’. The simultaneous use of both methodological approaches may create problems like: (1) it can be expensive, (2) become too time-consuming, (3) be too lengthy, and (4) require additional training in research methodology. Although the use of only one approach is to be recommended, a dominant-less-dominant strategy has nevertheless been followed in the present study: the quantitative methodology being the dominant and the qualitative the less-dominant method. It is believed that such approach enabled the reader to better understand the

social context within which democratic policing is supposed to take place, how the police are expected to fulfill their role according public expectations and how police actions are interpreted.

3.7. RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Techniques are *aids* to assist in the research process, especially when it comes to the exploration, description, explanation, prediction and application of social control techniques to facilitate goal achievement in scientific research (Van der Westhuizen, 1982: 2-4; 10-11).

3.7.1 Documentary study

According to De Vos et al, (2005:123-131) *documentary review* is, first and foremost, an indispensable technique that provides a fairly complete account of what precisely encompasses such technique, ranging from the *necessity* for pursuing such review, the strategy of conducting it, to the different types of sources of literature that should be regarded as important, etc; all of which cannot be listed here. It suffices to emphasise that the most commonly used sources of a documentary review (also implemented in the present study) are, among other, the following: scientific textbooks, appropriate research articles usually published in scientific journals (e.g. *Acta Criminologica*, *Carribean Journal of Criminology and Social Pathology*, *Police Practice & Research: An International Journal*, etc.), dissertations and theses that are applicable to the dependent variable being studied, monographs, conference proceedings (like scientifically presented papers at symposia), the social network, the mass media (radio, television, newspapers, magazines and periodicals), etc. The written media, especially daily newspapers, are regarded the most widely read image-producing sources that create public impressions and subsequent perceptions and opinions of functional (and to a lesser extent administrative) police performance of national interest (Lyman, 1999:26).

A list of seven arbitrarily selected sources which could have played a role in forming *respondent's perceptions and opinions* about police functional operations are encapsulated in variables 53-59 of the questionnaire (Annexure A). Table 3.1 presents the results of the seven variables, clearly showing whether or not these source(s) indeed played a role or not in the forming of respondents' perceptions of the police image according the views of both male and

female respondents. Examining the results, the data show that *television-watching* (N=85,1%) has been singled out by both male and female respondents as the most popular source of information about police performances during the execution of their duties. The observed *presence* of the police (N=82,9%) when conducting their official duties has been rated the second most important source, followed by the *printed media* (N=81,8%) like daily newspapers at national level which keep the public informed about the heroic deeds of the police as well as police violations of the law.

Examining the results of a frequency distribution contained in Table 3.1, it becomes very clear that *television* (85,1%) has been singled out by both male and female respondents as the most popular source of information about police role performance in society. The observed *presence* of the police (82,9%) when conducting their official duties has been rated the second most important source, followed by the *printed media* (81,8%) like daily newspapers at national level as well as magazines (e.g. Huisgenoot) which keep the public abreast of police heroic deeds and exemplary behaviour (Annexures S, T, U and V).

Table 3.1: Evaluation of selected sources which played a role in forming opinions or perceptions of the image of the police, by *gender* (N=572)

VAR NO	SOURCES	YES				NO			
		Male n	%	Female n	%	Male n	%	Female n	%
53	Juridical contact with the police (complainant /witness) in a criminal case	152	26,6	161	28,2	122	21,4	136	23,8
54	Juridical contact (detained as a suspect or accused person in a criminal case)	32	5,6	28	4,9	242	43,3	270	47,2
55	What other people have told me about police performance when executing their official duties	155	27,2	183	31,9	119	20,8	115	20,1
56	What I have read about police performance in the daily <i>newspapers</i>	223	39,0	245	42,8	51	8,9	53	9,3
57	What I have heard about the police on the <i>radio</i> (discussions, news bulletins)	218	38,1	235	41,1	56	9,8	63	11,0
58	What I saw about the police when watching <i>television</i> (discussions, news)	233	40,7	254	44,4	41	7,2	44	7,7
59	The <i>presence</i> of the police when executing their official duties in public	229	40,0	245	42,8	45	7,9	53	9,3

$p > .05$

3.7.2 Unstructured interviews

Collecting information on a topic like the *police image* can never be complete by consulting literature (documents) only. There are too many role players in the field of policing in a democratic social context, to ignore relevant information-producing sources. To this end, *unstructured* interviews were conducted with police officers from various ranks and from time to time, both at administrative and functional levels, to clarify vague and confusing issues pertaining to police role performance. In this instance, retired commissioned police officers who served in the South African Police (SAP) during the pre-democratic era were also consulted in regard to issues of tangential nature. The assistance of local journalists has been regarded as equally important.

3.7.3 Sampling: theoretical viewpoint

A technique to gather statistical information from a subset of a population about its perceptions and opinions of some social phenomenon is called *sampling* (Hagan, 2000:134; Goddard & Melville, 2001:34-35). Two types of sampling procedures are distinguished: probability and non-probability. In probability sampling it is assumed that sampling estimates (e.g. fixed addresses) are in place by means of geographical maps or street directories, which enhances the likelihood of each sampling element or unit offered the chance of being subjected to a random selection for inclusion as part of the sample. This probability enables a researcher to generalise from the specific (sample) to the population. In the case of non-probability sampling, however, estimates are not known because the size of the population may also be unknown or blurred due to *imperfect sampling conditions*, such as the presence of informal settlements around strictly zoned cities and towns which are not recorded in the street directories as legal housing units (Maxfield & Babbie, 1998:217). Factors like the location of *inhospitable rural areas* making them difficult to be reached by means of motorised transport, the incapability to *generalise* statistical outcomes from the sample to the population (Hagan, 2000:135-136), the mere fact that the researcher has a specific *purpose* in mind with the present study, as well as the *exploratory nature* of the present scientific inquiry, compelled the researcher to implement *purposive (judgmental) sampling* as the dominant, with a *dash* of convenient sampling, as the less-dominant sampling techniques

(Karademir, 2012:132). Annexure C provides map and indication of the location of the selected provinces: KwaZulu-Natal, North Province and Western Cape Province (see Annexure C).

The following factors did, however, play an important role in the researcher's initial decision to revert to no-probability sampling (De Vos et al, 2005:194):

- *Feasibility.* For the purpose of the present study, a complete coverage of the total sample which has been distributed between three different provinces of South Africa, viz. Western Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal, proved to be out of the question, mainly because of outdated population figures recorded by the previous Sensus-survey. Without having consulted documents reflecting the *real population breakdown* (e.g. street directories which would be an unenviable task) in each of these provinces, it suffices to state that it was highly improbable that each and every citizen could have been reached, either by the researcher or any of the field workers.
- *Time and cost.* Although time did not exert any pressure on the present study, the cost factor created a problem, in the sense that distance between the three selected provinces did not allow the researcher to personally visit each province. Field workers had to be carefully selected. Although some field workers did not insist on remuneration, others did.

3.7.3.1 Data collection

Three provinces involved in the sampling process, Western Cape, Limpopo Province and KwaZulu-Natal, were arbitrarily selected because of certain persons residing in those provinces that are known to the researcher that could be employed as honest and dedicated field workers. The expected frequency (f_e) has been estimated at $N=750$ sampling units for the three provinces: 250 per province (Table 3.2). An observed frequency (f_o) of $N=572$ has been secured across the three selected provinces which will be treated as a collective unit for purposes of data analysis. Table 3.2 reflects the results of both expected and observed frequency categories which generated a return rate of 76,3%. The observed frequency is by no means representative of the total population of the three provinces and, as a result, *no generalisations* will be effected from the total sample ($N=572$) to these provinces, either collectively or independently. Field workers

were employed and trained in regard to the correct handling and treatment of respondents, how to explain their human rights as well as aspects which could have caused confusion, uncertainty,

Table 3.2: Questionnaire distribution among respondents, implementing purposive (judgmental) sampling procedures (N=572)

PROVINCES	EXPECTED FREQUENCY (f_e)		OBSERVED FREQUENCY (f_o)	
	n	%	n	%
<u>North Province</u>				
Venda University	150	20.0	104	18.2
Limpopo	100	13.3	79	13.8
<u>KwaZulu-Natal</u>				
Richards Bay and Empangeni	125	16.7	98	17.1
University of Zululand	65	8.7	53	9.3
Durban/Plessislaer	60	8.0	67	11.7
<u>Western Cape</u>				
Cape Town/Bellville	250	33.3	171	29.9
COLUMN TOTALS:	750	100.0	572¹⁾	100.0

¹⁾ Return rate = 76,3%

misunderstanding, etc. They were further trained in respect of how to distribute and collect the questionnaires and for that purpose they were provided with self-addressed envelopes to ensure ‘sealed-in’ returns. Under no circumstances were they allowed to force anyone to act as a potential respondent.

3.7.3.1 Measuring instrument

The primary, quantitative measuring instrument implemented as an appropriate but practical data collection instrument entails a pre-coded, closed-structured questionnaire (Potgieter, Khoza & Michell, 2005:10), specifically devised to capture the perceptions and opinions of members of

the public with regard to their image of the South African Police Service (SAPS) – Annexure A. Bailey (1987:118) preferred closed-structured questions or variables for the following reasons:

- Responses obtained by means of numerical values (code numbers) promote comparisons between social constructs and responses (cross-tabulations);
- Answers are easier to code and analyse (keyboard entry) via the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences-program (SPSS);
- The meaning of closed-structured variables is clearer, which reduces the chances of respondents not responding to all the variables; and
- It means less writing for respondents, which makes it quicker to complete.

Further, a closed-structured questionnaire was developed to enable the researcher to effect *attitude measurement* and for this purpose, the following research report has been consulted during the questionnaire construction process:

Van Heerden, T.J. (1974). The police role in society with special reference to the South African Police [SAP] in Johannesburg (transl.). Unpublished research report. Department of Criminology. Pretoria: University of South Africa (UNISA).

All relevant scientific requirements applicable to the construction of questionnaire (surveys) proffered by Kenneth Bailey (1982) as well as other contemporary researchers of Criminal Justice and Criminology research methodologies have, as far as possible, been adhered to.

3.8 SCALES OF MEASUREMENT

Why are measuring scales important in quantitative research like the present study? Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (1992:153) believe that social science researchers tend to measure constructs like: brutality, friendliness, dedication, corruption, defeating the ends of justice, and the like, as being part of the functional operation of police officers. Quoting from Wright (1980), Hagan (2000:300) informs us that measuring scales are nothing more than “...calibrated instruments with which to interrogate concepts”. Scaling and scoring are different concepts that

have been developed to assist with analyses and description of data according frequency distributions. The following three scales based on dependent variables contained in the questionnaire have been created (see Table 3.3 for a summary of the scale values):

- Scale 1: Police functions (Variables 11-19).
- Scale 2: Police characteristics (Variables 33-43).
- Scale 3: Improving the police image (Variables 45-52)

Statistical techniques enabled the researcher to organise and engage in the coding of the collected data (by means of program Excel) with the assistance of a specially designed *Coding Sheet* (Annexure B) to import data on to the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Welman et al, 2005:227). Due to the exploratory nature of the present study, it is necessary to keep the statistical analysis of data as ‘simple’ as possible. In fact, the researcher saw no need to get entangled with advanced statistical formulae that usually tend to confuse rather to properly explain the outcomes to readers. The following elementary statistical techniques have been implemented:

3.8.1 Presentation of data: raw scores and percentages

Raw scores, indicated as N (number of respondents) were followed by the corresponding percentages (%) to portray the analysed data in frequency tabular format which represent the most elementary form of portraying or summarising the data. Graphic description of data may also include pie charts, histograms, polygons, and the like (De Vos et al, 2005:54-58). The formula for calculating percentages is as follows (Maxfield & Babbie, 1998:355):

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

Where: (fx) = Total responses in each category, multiplied by the applicable weight.
 (NG) = Number of respondents multiplied by highest value.
 highest numerical value.
 P = Percentage.

3.8.2 Pearson's Chi-square test (χ^2) and level of significance

The Chi-square test is, according to Goddard and Melville (2001:81), a non-parametric test suitable for non-probability samples in quantitative studies. Firstly, it could be used as a descriptive statistic because it is a test of the strength of the association between two variables (Neuman&Wiegand, 2000:305). The Chi-square formula is as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e} \quad \text{Where: } f_o = \text{Observed frequency;} \\ f_e = \text{Expected frequency.}$$

Secondly, Chi-square is a test of the independence of the relationship between nominal variables and, as such, a powerful 'tool' to determine significance in difference between two variables measured at ordinal level as in the case with Likert-type measuring scales (Hagan, 2000:275).

Usually, a researcher decides on the level of significance which is balanced by the risk taken as an indication of the willingness to be in error when it comes to rejecting the null-hypothesis which, in such case, signifies a significant relationship between two variables. In the present study, a probability level of $p < .05$ has been set as the test for significance of difference between two variables. This means that 5 in 100 times the outcomes may be due to sampling error instead of real differences that may have existed in the population (Hagan, 2000:382).

3.8.3 Reliability and validity of the measuring instrument

Hagan (2000:290) opines that *reliability* "...is demonstrated through stable and consistent replication of findings on repeated measurement". Goddard and Melville (2001:41) briefly explain the difference between *reliability* and *validity* as follows: when measurements with a survey are consistent, i.e. the same experiment (study) is conducted under similar conditions and similar results are obtained, it could be indicative that the measuring instrument shows reliability. *Validity* on the other hand means that if the measurements are correct, i.e. that it measures what it is intended for, it could be stated that the measure (of perceptions/attitudes) is valid. The questionnaire (Annexure A) developed for the present study has been subjected to a *validity test*, not to prove validity, but to lessen invalidity (Hagan, 2000:290) by ascertaining

whether a *relationship* exists between the concept *public image of the police* and the theoretical constructs underlying it. For this purpose, a *factor analysis* has been executed to determine construct validity. On the other hand, a *reliability* test was done to ascertain whether a set of items (variables) combined into a scale, would indeed repeatedly measure the same concept (see par. 3.8.3.2). The most popular internal consistency test is the so-called: Cronbach's Individual Alpha Item Analysis (Carmines & Zeller, 1979:44) – see par. 3.8.3.1.

3.8.3.1 Reliability test: Cronbach's Individual Alpha Item Analysis

An empirical study into *The role of private security in crime prevention*, by Steenkamp (2002:59-60), revealed that Cronbach's Individual Alpha test is a useful technique to isolate items (variables) that are capable of "...forming an internally, consistent scale and to eliminate those items that do not" (Spector 1992:29). L.J. Cronbach developed his validity scale in 1951. It actually represents a measurable conglomeration of items or variables that tend to measure the same theoretical construct, i.e. producing an Alpha coefficient that reflects the extent to which such cluster or grouping of items inter-correlate with one another and, by doing so, show how well each item correlates with the other. This procedure rests on the principle of an item-remainder coefficient calculated for each item which is done by means of the sum of the remaining items. Items reflecting the highest coefficients are retained. Coefficient Alpha represents the measure of the internal consistency (validity) of a cluster or scale, also known as the *part-whole* or *item-whole* coefficient. A widely-accepted rule of thumb (at least for the United States of America) recorded by Nunnally, 1978 (Spector, 1992:32), and accepted by most American researchers indulging in quantitative research, dictates that Alpha should at least be 0.70 for a scale to demonstrate internal consistency and, subsequently, statistical validity (Spector, 1992: 32). In the case of the present study, an Alpha of 0.50 has been set as an acceptable reading in this regard. Table 3.3 reflects the results of an Alpha-test applied to the three scales developed arbitrarily for this purpose (see par. 3.8.4). The scores reflected in Table 3.3 indicate that the survey clearly indicates reliability based on the dependent variables contained in Annexure A.

Table 3.3: Summary of scale reliability according Cronbach's Alpha test (N=572)

Scale Number	Scale description (measuring properties)	Number of Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Standardised Alpha¹⁾
1	Police functions	9	0,599	0,60
2	Police characteristics	11	0,539	0,55
3	Factors improving police image	8	0,747	0,75

¹⁾ Expressed as a fraction of a percentage (%).

3.8.3.2 Factor analysis and construct validity

An attempt was made to establish the unidimensionality of the three measuring scales (par. 3.8.3.2) to test whether the measurement constructs show internal consistency. These measuring scales were subjected to a Factor Analysis, using principal component analysis with varimax rotations.

3.8.4 Scales and factor loadings

Following are the factor loadings resulting from a Factor Analysis using principal component extraction. Table 3.4 presents a brief summary of the number of factors (components) produced by each measuring scale while Tables 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7 provide the results of the Varimax rotational procedures with Kaizer normalisations in respect of the three statistical scales.

Table 3.4: Brief summary of the results of Factor Scales using principal component extraction

Scale number	Number of Variables	Number of Components
1	9	3
2	11	3
3	8	2

3.8.4.1 Factor loadings: Scale 1 (Police Functions)

- * *Component 1:* reveals *remote functions*. According to Table 3.5, variables 16, 17, 18 and 19 collectively define extraordinary, non-policing functions or functions usually executed by special units, e.g. Public Order Police Unit (POP), Crime Intelligence, etc.
- * *Component 2:* denotes *police visibility*, variables 11, 12 and 13 as part of the public safety and protection cluster (proactive policing).
- * *Component 3:* defines two *pillars* on which the maintenance of social order is based: proactive (deterrence of crime) and reactive policing (investigation of crime), variables 14 and 15.

All three components (Scale 1 above) identify peculiar patterns or dimensions showing coherence among the nine variables or scale items.

Table 3.5: Factor loadings of Scale 1: Police functions¹⁾

Variable	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
Q. 11	-	.500	-
Q. 12	-	.800	-
Q. 13	-	.834	-
Q. 14	-	-	.712
Q. 15	-	-	.686
Q. 16	.685	-	-
Q. 17	.744	-	-
Q. 18	.763	-	-
Q. 19	.579	-	-

1) Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotations.

3.8.4.2 Factor loadings: Scale 2: (Police Officer Characteristics)

Table 3.6 shows the results of three components relating to police officer characteristics:

- * *Component 1:* discloses variables 35, 37, 38, 39, 40 and 41 which are grouped together to denote the typical functional orientations or *deviant police actions* or dispositions towards arrogance, corruption, aggressiveness, abusing power and authority or exceeding the limits of the law when performing their role. The perception towards the lack of knowledge and insight on the part of police officers (apparently the younger and more inexperienced members), variable 41 which scored below <.50 is being excluded from this strain.
- * *Component 2:* shows variables 33, 34 and 36 which collectively define specific values associated with *disciplined actions* on the part of the SAPS.

Table 3.6: Factor loadings of Scale 2 (Police Officer Characteristics)²⁾

Variable	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3
Q. 33	-	.640	-
Q. 34	-	.732	-
Q. 35	.503	-	-
Q. 36	-	.727	-
Q. 37	.745	-	-
Q. 38	.766	-	-
Q. 39	.755	-	-
Q. 40	.719	-	-
Q. 41	.454	-	-
Q. 42	-	-	.835
Q. 43	-	-	.764

²⁾ Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotations.

- * *Component 3:* uses variables 42 and 43 to relate to a sense of discipline among police officers when interacting with the public.

3.8.4.3 Factor loadings: Scale 3 (Aspects to Improve the Police Image)

In Table 3.7 variables are implemented to generate valid scores relating to: *Component 1:* variables 47, 48, 49, 50, 51 and 52 emphasising the need for greater police visibility, especially by means of patrolling. Greater police visibility directly contributes towards reassuring the public about their safety, while at the same time exorcising their fear of crime.

Table 3.7 Factor loadings of Scale 3 (*Improvement of the police image*)³⁾

Variable	Component 1	Component 2
Q. 45	-	.571
Q. 46	-	.570
Q. 47	.566	-
Q. 48	.652	-
Q. 49	.716	-
Q. 50	.666	-
Q. 51	.630	-
Q. 52	.633	-

³⁾ Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotations.

Another factor (var. 48) clearly paves the way for improved communication between the police and the public and the subsequent participation in community (democratic) policing through closer cooperation between these two entities (>.65). There also appears to be a perception that in-service training (starting at the basic level) within a policing context (variable 49) should receive more devoted attention (>.71) to improve the public image of the police. Tables 3.5 – 3.7 show accepted levels of construct validity applicable to the dependent variables (Annexure A).

After having conceded that the current system of police recruitment constitutes a serious problem because of poor management and control, apparently at station and middle management levels, together with discipline which needs serious attention, the national minister of police, Mr. Nathi Mthethwa has proposed the *publishing of the names of prospective police recruits, allowing the public the opportunity to scrutinise prospective applicants and convey any criticism or negative comments about their suitability to the police authorities*. There are once more perceptions implying that the SAPS may become characteristic of the police force that was in operation prior to 1994 (Essop, 2013:4)²⁾. President Zuma has changed the SAPS from a *service* back to a *force* on 1 April 2010 at the Voortrekker-Monument during a mass-meeting with police leaders (see Figure 2.1). The SAPS being overwhelmingly *repressive* in functional operation, constantly involved in criminal behaviour and illegal arrests, is causing enormous amounts of money to be paid out to plaintiffs in civil litigation-cases against the SAPS. This create the impression that an ‘apartheid-police force’ similar to that of the previous era under an authoritarian government, is still a reality. Variables 45 and 46 insist on improved service delivery which goes hand in hand with recognising and showing respect for human rights and human dignity respectively. Analysis of some of the *reasons why respondents would not report crime to the police*, which may exert a negative influence on sound police-community relations are, among other, the following (Table 2.1, chapter 2):

- *Negative attitude* of police officers when reporting crime or other matters to the police (75,5%);
- Being treated as the *guilty party* when reporting crime to the police (64,9%);
- Police act *apathetically* (do not appear to be interested when crime is reported to them (74,1%); and
- Police *tend to discriminate* against culture groups other than their own when reporting crime to them (66,4%).

3.9 SUMMARY

When a researcher engages in scientific research, it becomes necessary to clearly indicate whether an explorative investigation, like the present one implements a probability or non-probability approach and whether it adopts a qualitative or quantitative approach or *both* in a mixed-methods capacity. The present study adopts the survey research method, using a closed-structured questionnaire as data collection technique as well as a 5-point Likert-type scaling procedure. Sampling reflects a non-parametric approach, based upon non-probability considerations including three provinces of South Africa's. Reliability of the measuring instrument was subjected to Cronbach's Alpha-test, while Factor Analysis has been implemented to establish construct validity. The researcher is confident that the methodological layout clearly indicates what this research project stands for: searching for the truth, based on a mixed-methods research approach.

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CHAPTER 4

OPERATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POLICE

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Data analysed in paragraph 4.3.1.2 of Chapter 2 reveal that the existence (and presence) of a transformed organised police institution in South Africa in the form of the South African Police Service (SAPS), apparently does not pose a *threat to individual freedom and privacy* (65,9%) of the respondents (N=572). Likewise, the respondents' *obligation* to prevent crime (77,1%) and their willingness to assist the police (74,0%) in their task of ensuring people's safety and security are, in turn, also relevant democratic elements of social life in South Africa. Contrary to the expectation that the rendering of a social service in the form of public safety would have been rated the most important *justification* for the existence of the SAPS, just over half of the research group (53,0%) indicated the opposite: that being part of the criminal justice system (as first component) is the most important justification for the existence of the police. This finding obviously relates to the retributive function of the criminal justice system and, more specifically, to the *law enforcement* predisposition of the SAPS which currently has a great appeal in this country. South African citizens apparently *do not know* or are *not used to* police actions or performances reflecting the deterrent (or preventative) effect dealing with of crime, criminals and the fear of crime.

Formal control (reactive policing) rests with the police as the most visible public manifestation of government's authority. Upholding law and order through repressive or reactive measures appears to be high on the priority list of police operations. Prioritising and satisfying people's public safety needs (Bayley, 1994:13) within the context of democratic principles (Van Heerden, 1982:14) is of special importance in 'building' a positive police image. While this task appear to be a primary responsibility of policing in democratic societies, Bayley (1994:42) further asserts: "For several reasons [the] total reliance on law enforcement is unwise and should not be allowed

to continue”. The maintenance of order is dependent upon the manner in which the police role is fulfilled, i.e. either as law enforcers or law executors. Law enforcement closely resembles the idea of *police force* which is aligned to the application of the laws through crime detection, search, seizure, arrest, detention, interrogation, etc. – in short, law enforcement or *reactive policing*. Reactive or repressive police actions have a deterrent value in the sense that retributive justice may exert enforceable control over and curtailment of personal freedom in the form of a prison sentence to be served in a correctional institution (which might serve as a deterrent to further commission of crime). However, *police service* on the other hand, is embodied in the concept *execution of the law*, i.e. executing the preservative and protecting aspects of formal control by means of providing services in partnership with the public to maintain an orderly society. Instead of applying the laws, the police role is rather directed at the elimination of latent threats to personal safety (such as crime) and informally resolving conflict in human relationships. The absence of crime reflects the degree of police efficiency - not in statistical figures. Cooperation between the police and the public which happens to take place in a friendly and considerate manner tends to elicit trust and confidence in the police with a resultant *positive image* of the total police organisation. In democratic terms, *community policing* may just be the answer to the role of policing, especially when decentralised functional activities like neighbourhood participation in addressing local crime concerns and the fear of crime become a joint effort. Community Police Forums (CPFs), Neighbourhood Watch Systems, foot or mobile patrolling, discretionary decision-making, reduced arrest quotas, etc. are all valuable outcomes indicative of *service policing* (Van Heerden, 1982:49-50). This author points out that the idea of adhering to a *police service* type of policing does *not negate* the law enforcement component inherent in the police role. Although the police are apparently using (or abusing) law enforcement in the hope they would simultaneously facilitate the prevention (deterrence) of crime opportunities, police officers should understand that repressive police actions are not completely capable of rooting out crime precipitants (i.e. those opportunities that are present to commit crime in the total absence of the police) because such police actions only comes into operation *after* a crime has been committed already. Unfortunately, a total police service can never be available and visible everywhere through its own presence and at all times. It is for this reason that Bayley (1994:143) regards the police as a *band aid* on cancer. However, the *deterrent value* of reactive policing should never be lost out of sight.

Quoting from Patrick (cf. 1972), Du Preez (1991: 2-3) clearly indicates that the police have no *unlimited powers* when executing their mandate which entails a wide variety of functional as well as operational methods and techniques that normally result in the external police organisational environment. Policing *per se* is limited in terms of power (and authority) as well as operational methods of performance. Any kind of police action that falls outside the legal connection is arbitrary and, by implication, directly opposes democratic policing, for example the Marikana Lonmin mine massacre which occurred on 16 August 2012 (Alexander, Lekgowa, Mmope, Sinwell & Xezwi (cf. 2012) in which 34 striking mine workers were shot dead by police officers. Judge Ian Farlam has been appointed the chairperson of a government commission of inquiry into those shootings by the police and has not yet been concluded. The upholding of public safety (also known as the maintenance of the social order) always finds its way through internal policies, administrative decisions and strategies to the external occupational environment; a 'place' that includes a variety of different contact situations known for its multicultural compositions and multiple interactions having unique dispositions, attitudes, prejudices, opinions, perceptions, etc. Evaluating the police role is being influenced by society's expectations about policing based on real knowledge and/or experience about role fulfilment which is compatible with maintaining constitutional principles like the human rights of citizens, etc.

Police officers usually develop and display distinctive characteristics which come to the fore when in direct contact with members of the public during the official execution of their official duties. It should be borne in mind that policing, as such, is actually a social service function that has been delegated (by society) to the police in terms of constitutional conditions. This kind of contact could either exert a *positive* or *negative* influence on citizens' opinions and/or perceptions of the image of the police (Van Heerden, 1982:42-43; Lyman, 1999:43). Because the police role has a normative inclination, and is subject to specific expectations citizens attach to the police role, it is understandable that they would critically evaluate it. The contact situations the police and the public engage in will reflect the way in which public expectations such as: a crime-free society, absence of the fear of crime, police assistance following calls for service, etc., are being adhered to by the police and which will eventually have a marked effect on *public*

attitudes towards the police. Lyman (1999:45-46) believes that the police may be observed either as being ‘service providers’ or labelled ‘crime fighters’ (Beyer, 1993:123-124).

4.2 CONTACT WITH THE POLICE

The nature of previous experience with the police ostensibly has an impact on public attitudes towards the police. Several types of experiences and juridical contact situations between the police and the public originate in the social context, among other, as a complainant, witness or informant in a criminal case or as a suspect or an accused and formally charged. These situations represent two possibilities on the contact continuum: *voluntary* (positive) and *involuntary* (negative) interaction. A socio-criminological study into the *fear of crime* by Van Velzen (1998:169-176) suggests that the public image of the police is based on their perception of *how* the police perform their role in society, i.e. delivery of public safety. Mayoyo’s study (2009:130-135) reveals that 23.0% of the respondents came into voluntary contact with the police in two rural communities in the Eastern Cape, while 86.0% are always to often and sometimes willing to assist the police in their task of preventing crime. Lyman (1999:44) confirms that the *service function* of the police closely relates to *order maintenance* (presuming that no crime occurs) and that police officers are often approached to provide assistance, for instance, in cases of emergency and non-emergency situations, to provide directions to people who are lost, to assist with the mentally ill, the elderly, rescue injured animals, render first-aid at accident scenes or even medical emergencies like women in childbed, etc. Although the majority of the public never come into direct contact with the police, their perceptions may be based on personal observation at street level or knowledge obtained about police performance and police behaviour through the mass media, etc.

Van Velzen’s study (1998) reported 22,9 percent *involuntary* (suspect or accused arrested, detained, etc.) and 29,9 percent *voluntary* contacts with the police as complainant or witness in a criminal case, etc. A more recent study into the role of the police as a fear of crime reduction agency conducted among two rural communities in the Eastern Cape, Mayoyo (2009:130) found

that 15,0 percent of the respondents (N=300) were involuntary and 23,0 percent voluntarily in contact with the police either as a suspect or as an accused, while in the present study, 54,8 percent have been involved in voluntary contact with the police either as a complainant or a witness and 10,5 percent got involuntarily involved with the police. The 2011-2012 police crime statistics showed a moderate decrease in serious crime categories in six of the nine provinces of South Africa (RSA) compared to the previous year's 2010-2011 crime statistics except in the remaining three provinces: Free State (+5,7%), Limpopo (+15,7%) and the Western Cape (+2,7%) where serious crimes increased. It would appear that crime reporting across the crime spectrum has also increased (Department of Police, 2011-2012:7). When asked whether they have reported *all crimes* to the police during the past three years or so (preceding their participation in the present study) in respect of which they were direct victims of crime, 158 (27,6%) confirmed having reported all such crimes to the police, while 121 (21,2%) denied having done so. Reasons for not reporting crime to the police are accounted for in Table 2.1 (Chapter 2).

4.3 THEORIES OF POLICE ROLE CHARACTERISTICS AND BEHAVIOUR

Community diversity makes public expectations concerning police activities and behaviour also to be diverse. Roberg (1979) limits the sources of expectations to: police officers, community and organisations (like businesses). Police officers are expected to address community problems and concerns (like crime and fear of crime), along with the concerns of businesses. Individual officer behaviour determines their interpersonal and occupational style of policing when fulfilling their role in society. Subsequently, individual officers select the type of initial behaviour when they have to interact with members of the community. Will they act in a *formal*, *friendly* or *forceful (brutal) way*; *pleasant* or *harsh*? All these variables or features will eventually determine which type of police officer characteristics will come to the fore when execute their duties in the presence of and in interaction with the public (Roberg & Kuykendall, 1990:36-38; 51-52).

According to Lyman (1999:46-50), quite a number of theories to explain *why* police officers act or behave the way they do when interacting with members of the public. Social reality often

dictates the outcome of police actions. For example, unrealistic citizen expectations of the police and how to deal with it may contribute to the development of specific forms of police behaviour, particularly because they have no control over the passing of laws and they do not create circumstances conducive to crime commission (e.g. unemployment, impoverishment of people, demonstrations, etc.). Bayley (1994:68-74) further reminds us that most police officers work at the 'front line' and are, as such, involved in a vast number of police-public contact situations. Police officers, especially the young and inexperienced uniformed policemen usually are plagued by three social aspects: *physicality*, *danger* and *sleaze*. Police officers are expected to be physically fit to effect an arrest or be able to withstand a suspect who resist arrest without having to use a firearm, etc. Physical danger is omnipresent in police work. However, contrary to all expectations (Bayley, 1994:71), policing is not the most dangerous occupation (at least not in the USA). Farming, construction and mining activities are rank-orderly the most dangerous occupations, followed by policing in the fourth place. Although more violent than most other crimes (Rademeyer, 2012:1) farm murders have not yet been prioritised in South Africa. The element of surprise, old age and staying alone on remote farms are apparently three prominent factors playing a role in farm murders, rape and even house robberies. Police work is unglamorous and filled with sleaze. The unpleasantness of police work is often driven by lust, perversion, greed, rage and even violence and, as such, these aspects create an environment the police have no control over. On the contrary, the status of the police and the compensation for their work are equally low.

Police officers also tend to create their own subculture that is typical of the bureaucratic police profession which represents a unique occupational environment. Roberg and Kuykendall (1990:149) emphasise two theoretical orientations to assist in explaining *why* police officers behave the way they do; either as individual police officer or as part of a group. Briefly, these theories are:

- *Predisposition theory*. Being a well-established and dominant theory dealing with police officer behaviour, *predisposition* suggests that behavioural characteristics had been part and parcel of some police officers' personality prior to entering a police organisation, and may have been the greatest determinant of their current behaviour. This theory claims

that if police officers were dishonest, irresponsible, assaultive (the real ‘fighting’-type) before they enlisted as police officers, the chances are good that they would behave that way *after* their appointment in a police institution (Lyman, 1999:52).

- *Socialisation theory*. Having been a major theory until the 1960s, the predisposition orientation had been replaced by a new theoretical paradigm explaining police behaviour in the USA, according Skolnick’s (1960) and Niederhoffer’s (1969) research efforts. The convergence of those theoretical outcomes suggested police officers are “...influenced more by their work experiences than by pre-employment values and attitudes” (Roberg & Kuykendall, 1990:149). This theory alludes to the possibility that police officers who act, for example, in a brutal way learn that kind of behaviour through on-duty interaction with experienced officers. Likewise, dishonesty in the form of corruptive aptitude by means of accepting and getting away with bribery during the execution of their official duties may have also been influenced by the bureaucratic, organisational culture of corruption. These forms of learned behaviour are referred to as *informal socialisation* by Roberg and Kuykendall (cf. 1990). Formal socialisation dictates respect and admiration for ‘seniors’ and the public and is regarded a valuable by-product of bureaucratic police organisations.

4.4 DATA ANALYSIS

Analogous to a brief overview of public perceptions of the police of the United States of America (USA) by Gaines, Kappeler and Vaughn (1994:341-342), it could be postulated that the South African public generally perceive the SAPS in a positive light, in spite of the negative connotations they have with and involvement in serious crimes by individual officers as well as their undisciplined actions in the form of assaulting, raping, bribing, shooting, etc. members of the public. Especially harsh treatment during the detection and arrest phases of heavy armed robbers when executing money heists, usually elicit positive attitudes of the police among the public because at least it is argued that *something is being done* to protect law abiding citizens against possible fatal robbery attacks. Police actions in situations where they actually have no choice but to gun down or seriously injure armed robbers in such circumstances, also create an

image of the police as being the *heroes* as well as a feeling of *reassurance* in the minds of people reminding them the police are still *caring* for their public safety and their fear of crime.

But *who* are the public? South Africa is a country consisting of a diversity of cultural groups and foreigners (Population Statistics, 2013). Gaines, Kappeler and Vaughn (1994:341-342) are of the opinion that while some cultural groups may host positive images of the police (SAPS), many other communities or neighbourhoods may not be so pleased with how the police fulfil their role in society. Besides the fact that the type and frequency of contacts between the police and the public in terms of culture groups may differ and be indicative that real social problems do exist, attitudes towards the police may also vary in terms of *individual-level* variables: gender and race. The omnipresence of discrimination and the violation of human rights in a diverse society like South Africa (as well as its socio-political and economic history) are ‘notorious’ constitutional aspects making inroads upon undisturbed human relations.

Lyman (1999:39-40) is adamant that different public perceptions about the police, may lead to different expectations about police role fulfilment. Public perceptions and eventual opinions of the police are usually formed as a result of personal contacts with members of the public and, in most instances, when they fulfil their duties in a visible, but *reactive* way. This author warns that personal contacts are not the only source of how the public shape their perceptions about the police because distortions about *who* the police officer really is may also originate from other sources, example: books, periodicals, movies, newspapers, etc. Inaccurate perceptions of the police and the task of policing are capable of twisting the true image of a police officer. For instance, the one day he or she may be viewed as a real *crime fighter* who does not hesitate to violate individual human rights of suspects in the name of crime prevention, especially when force has become necessary to subdue a suspect to an arrest, but only to be perceived as the gentle, cooperating community police officer the following day (Lyman, 1999:39). Also refer to Table 3.1 for an analysis of the sources which played a role in the forming of the respondents’ opinions/attitudes of the image of the police.

It is, therefore, necessary to ascertain whether the characteristics contained in the survey are present and observable in the operational behaviour of the police. Henceforth, it becomes

imperative to also establish whether the prevalence of such features which originate in the contact situation may have fostered a positive or a negative influence on the expectations the public have of the role fulfilment function of the South African Police Service (Du Preez, 1991:50). These characteristics which emanating from police behaviour, have been divided into the following categories (see Table 4.1) and, for the purpose of this discussion and due to space, statistical outcomes will be cross-correlated with both *gender* and *culture group* (race) only.

The following clusters or constructs have been created in an effort to systematise description of operationalised dependent variables:

- *Contact situation*: friendliness and helpfulness;
- *Setting a good example*: neatness and honesty as well as setting a good example in terms of their own obedience to the law;
- *Deviant characteristics*: brutality, arrogance, corruption, aggressiveness, and abuse of power and authority; and
- *Organisational characteristics*: lack of knowledge and insight in police work, disciplined actions, and showing respect to other people.

4.4.1 Contact situation

Data in Table 4.1 reveal negative perceptions of the police image in respect of both characteristics: *friendliness* and *helpfulness* by the total research group (N=61,0% and N=56,5% respectively).

The data also show that the differences in terms of *gender* perceptions in respect of friendliness and helpfulness by male and female respondents are not significant ($p \geq 0.05$). Female respondents are, however, in both instances (32,5% and 30,2% respectively) slightly more convinced than their male counterparts (28,5% and 26,2%) that the police are (generally) less to not friendly and helpful at all when interacting with members of the public. This finding has far-reaching consequences when law-abiding members of communities are prepared to address community crime concerns and the fear of crime in close partnership with the police by making policing a

shared responsibility. This is especially true when they (public) subscribe to the notion of being co-producers of public safety and, as such, expect the police to be much more supportive and affectionate towards them in accordance with the Batho Pele-principal (government and the police should listen and interact with members of society).

Table 4.2 on the other hand reveals that White respondents are significantly (32,5% and 33,0%) more convinced than their Black counterparts (28,5% and 23,4%) that the police are less to not friendly and helpful at all when performing their duties ($p=.001$ and $p=.000$ respectively).

4.4.2 Setting an example

Projecting *neatness* in uniform and offices is an important characteristic of police officers showing their submission to organisational discipline. Data reveal positive perceptions in this regard (N=61,7%). Female respondents (33,6%) are slightly more satisfied with the appearance of police officers than the males (28,1%). Black respondents (39,2%) are significantly more convinced than whites (22,6%) that police officers' appearance is beyond any doubts and thus acceptable ($p=.000$). Total rejection of this feature by White respondents (22,7%) is apparently associated with unhealthy body weight among quite a number of police officers that has been addressed during October 2012 when attention was focused on the 'fat blue line' of police officers. It has been alleged by the media that police officers who experience difficulty with 'bulging bellies', especially when they are called upon to chase a suspect and facilitate an arrest, may find it difficult to honour their 'calling' (Jasson da Costa, 2012:1). Police officers have been armed with weight logbooks in an effort to get into shape and to facilitate and exchange 'tubes' for 'six packs'. National Minister of Police, Mr. Nathi Mthethwa intervened however, by stating that forcing dietary steps on overweight officers would amount to a violation of their human rights (Kitshoff, 2012:4). See Annexure X.

Table 4.1: Bivariate analysis¹ of selected police officer characteristics, cross correlated with gender (N=572)

Characteristics	Male (n=274)				Female (n=298)				Total (N=572)			
	Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
CONTACT SITUATION												
Friendliness	84	14,7	163	28,5	73	12,8	186	32,5	157	27,4	349	61,0
Helpfulness	96	16,8	150	26,2	85	14,9	173	30,2	181	31,6	323	56,5
EXAMPLE:												
Neatness	161	28,1	81	14,2	192	33,6	87	15,2	353	61,7	168	29,4
Honesty	84	14,7	150	26,2	69	12,1	171	30,0	153	26,7	321	56,1
Obedience to the law	56	9,8	197	34,4	63	11,0	216	37,8	119	20,8	413	72,2
DEVIANCY												
Brutality	142	24,8	76	13,3	153	26,7	71	12,4	295	51,6	147	25,7
Arrogance	203	35,5	42	7,3	214	37,4	53	9,3	417	72,9	95	16,6
Corruptive behaviour	184	32,2	41	7,2	199	34,8	43	7,5	383	67,0	84	14,7
Aggressiveness	192	33,6	44	7,7	203	35,5	51	8,9	395	69,1	95	16,6
Abuse power and authority	209	36,5	35	6,1	238	41,6	35	6,1	447	78,1	70	12,2
ORGANISATIONAL												
Lack of knowledge and insight	182	31,8	66	11,5	196	34,3	67	11,7	378	66,1	67	11,7
Disciplined actions	89	15,6	149 ²	26,0	107	18,7	122	21,3	196	34,3	271	47,4
Showing respect- other	44	7,7	182	31,8	77	13,5	186	32,5	121	21,2	368	64,3
Scale: Favour: 1=Very much present, 2=Much present / Oppose: 4=Less present, 5=Not present at all.												

¹⁾ Latitude of non-commitment not calculated; ²⁾ Sig: Chi Square: 15,849; 4df; $p=.003$.

Table 4.2 Bivariate analysis¹⁾ of selected police officer characteristics, cross-correlated with culture (race) group (N=572)

Characteristics¹⁾	Black (n=279)				White (n=293)				Total (N=572)			
	Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose		Favour		Oppose	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
CONTACT SITUATION												
Friendliness	93	16,3	163	28,5	64	11,2	186 ²⁾	32,5	157	27,4	349	61,0
Helpfulness	119	20,8	134	23,4	62	10,8	189 ³⁾	33,0	181	31,6	323	56,5
EXAMPLE												
Neatness	224 ⁴⁾	39,2	38	6,6	129	22,6	130	22,7	353	61,7	168	29,4
Honesty	82	14,3	179	31,3	71	12,4	142	24,8	153	26,7	321	56,1
Obedience to the law	69	12,1	195	34,1	50	8,7	218	38,1	119	20,1	413	72,2
DEVIANCY												
Brutality	158 ⁵⁾	27,6	70	12,2	137	24,0	77	13,5	295	51,6	147	25,7
Arrogance	202	35,5	45	7,9	215	37,6	50	8,7	417	72,9	95	16,6
Corruptive behaviour	185	32,3	47	8,2	198	34,6	36	6,3	383	67,0	83	14,5
Aggressiveness	204 ⁶⁾	35,7	46	8,0	191	33,4	49	8,6	395	69,1	95	16,6
Abuse power/authority	209	36,5	42	7,3	238	41,6	28	4,9	447	78,1	70	12,2
ORGANISATIONAL												
Lack of knowledge and Insight	171	30,0	80	14,0	207 ⁷⁾	36,2	53	9,3	378	66,1	133	23,6
Disciplined actions	106	18,5	125	21,9	90	15,7	146	25,5	196	34,3	271	47,4
Showing respect – other	76	13,3	176	30,8	65	11,4	192	33,6	141	24,7	368	64,3
¹⁾ Scale: Favour: 1=Very much present, 2=Much present / Oppose: 4=Less present, 5=Not present at all. Latitude of Non-commitment not calculated.												

²⁾ Sig: Chi-square=18,219; 4df; $p=.001$ / ³⁾ Sig: Chi-square=34,033; 4df; $p=.000$ / ⁴⁾ Sig: Chi-square=14,911; 4df; $p=.000$ / ⁵⁾ Sig: Chi-square=60,504; 4df; $p=.005$ / ⁶⁾ Sig: Chi=12,471; 4df; $p=.014$ / ⁷⁾ Sig: Chi=9,305; 4df; $p=.054$ (Approaching significance).

The remaining two characteristics relating to setting a good example, *police honesty* and *police officer obedience to the laws*, are both expected to be part of the personal and organisational values of police officers when executing their duties. The total research group (N=56,1%) oppose (or reject) the statement relating to honesty as being only sometimes or even never present within a policing context. In this regard, data clearly show that especially females (30,0%) are more convinced than their male counterparts (26,2%) that police officers are only sometimes to never honest in their actions ($\geq .05$). Perceptual unanimity is being observed and confirmed by Black respondents (31,3%) who are significantly more convinced than the Whites (24,8%) that police officers are not always honest when performing their duties ($p=.000$).

Police obedience to the law is, likewise, vehemently rejected by the total research group (N=72,2%), indicating that police officers are observed to be only sometimes (or never) in the mood to obey and respect the laws themselves. For instance, police involvement in crimes and misdemeanours are legion and they are virtually every day exposed by the media countrywide to inform the public of police involvement in crime, e.g. the arrests of two Pretoria police officers for allegedly being part of a ‘cash-in-transit-heist-gang’, one employed as a captain and the other one as a sergeant of the crime intelligence unit (Daily News, 2013:5). Female respondents (37,8%) are slightly more convinced than the males (34,4%) that police officers only sometimes or never adhere to formal prescriptions when executing their duties ($p \geq .05$). These sentiments are shared by white respondents (38,1%) who outnumber their black counterparts (34,1%) ($p \geq .05$).

4.4.3 Deviant features

Gains et al (1994:289) describes *deviant police behaviour* as a form of illegal behaviour that violates the legal rules (norms) of the country as well as that of the norms of police institution which are expected to be upheld by each police officer. Quoting from Barker, 1982 (Gains et al, 1994:289) reveals three elements contributing to the prevalence of deviant behaviour: (a) an opportunity structure which exists with its accompanying techniques and informal rules, (b) socialisation and occupational experiences and (c) peer group influences, like reinforcement and encouragement for rule violations.

Police characteristics representative of a deviant policing cluster are to be found in, among other, police brutality, police arrogance, corruptive behaviour, aggressiveness and abuse of power and authority. A study by the American sociologist Westley (1970), revealed the existence of a *police subculture* in Gary, Indiana Police jurisdiction when he investigated the role of major social norms controlling police conduct and its influence in specific situations (Lyman, 1999:47). A distinctive police subculture had been exposed with prevailing 'informal rules' emphasising police *secrecy* and *violent behaviour* towards members of the public identified as the major 'enemies' of the police. Westly (1970) also discovered that 73 percent of the respondents who participated in his study were convinced that the public (for instance attorneys, social workers and the media) harboured hostile attitudes against them. Having also experienced feelings of alienation, police officers 'withdrew' by relying on their own judgment which often urged them to resort to violence in an attempt to protect (or insulate) their independence and solidarity from public interference in their operational functioning.

Police use of force (brutality) is omnipresent in police work. Police officers are entitled by the law to use minimum force under certain conditions. A study into: *Police Brutality in South Africa – A Human Rights Perspective*, by Mwanajiti, Mhlanga, Sifuniso, Nachali-Kambikambi, Muuba and Mwanayanda (2002), asserts that police brutality should not be seen as police *torture* only (or in isolation from) but as part of a prevailing condition which also includes police killings of suspects during arrest or of those already in police custody. Police brutality occurs when police officers use force unlawfully and, as such, points to unlawful violence. *Police brutality* could also be viewed as the *abuse* of the capacity to use force, i.e. deliberate unlawful violence. Van Heerden (1982) warns that physical violence should not be over-emphasised as the only component of police brutality. Personal or status degradation, i.e. way of addressing people, appears to be an equal important component.

Police *brutality* as a problem in South Africa is confirmed by the research group (N=51,6%). For instance, Beeld-newspaper reported that during the past four years, the SAPS were debited with R320m in civil claims by the courts in respect of assault on members of the public, illegal arrests and detention, damage to private property, etc. (Philda Essop (2013:4). Assault-cases alone, cost

the police R4,5m and it would appear that these kind of police deviance caused the police image to be damaged tremendously by themselves and not so much by the public. According to the National Minister of Police, Mr. Nathi Mthethwa, time has now come for police officers to strictly adhere to the police code of conduct. For this purpose, institutional communication in the police organisation should also be stepped-up. Both male (24,8%) and female respondents (26,7%) are of the opinion that *brutality* is much of a problem within the South African police service ($p \geq 0.05$). Black respondents (27,6%) are significantly more in agreement with this state of affairs than the Whites (24,0%) – $p = .005$.

The incidence of police *arrogance* is rated very much of a problem by the research group (N=72,9%) and there seems to be convergence between the rating of this characteristic in terms of gender and culture group. Female respondents slightly outnumbered (37,4%) their male counterparts (35,5%), while White respondents (37,6%) outscored the Blacks (35,3%). These differences are not significant ($p \geq 0.05$). Police *aggressiveness*, as part of the police deviance cluster, is equally present among police officers according the research group (N=69,1%). Female respondents (35,5%) are slightly more convinced that aggressive behaviour is very much of a problem among police officers compared to the perception of their male counterparts (33,6%). This difference of opinion is not significant according Pearson's Chi-square. Black respondents (35,7%) are, like the females, also convinced that members of the SAPS are aggressive when performing their duties. White respondents also support the notion of police aggressiveness (33,4%) to a somewhat lesser extent. The difference is significant: $p = .014$. In recent times, African citizens were increasingly the victims of police aggressiveness and ultimate brutality, actually too many incidents to be listed here. However, a few outstanding occurrences where police officers acted in a brutal way and which received prominent coverage in the mass media, locally as well as abroad but more specifically on front pages of newspapers, are: the Mido Macia-incident of Daveyton, Ekurhuleni early in 2013 which clearly shows how the police *punished* this victim. This incident is perhaps the most salient and most outstanding evidence of police aggressiveness next to the police killing of Andries Tatane in 2011 at Ficksburg. Mido Macia was tied up, dragged on the ground behind a police van for quite a distance and, unfortunately, died later that night while in police custody (Nomzamo Ngcobo, 2013:1-3). Andries Tatane was shot dead when he clashed with members of the police during a 'service

delivery'-protest at Ficksburg. In a subsequent murder-trial, all police officers involved were found not guilty and discharged. The foregoing incidents were followed by the killing of 34 striking mineworkers at Marikana, North-West province. President Zuma appointed retired Judge Farlam to preside at a Commission of Inquiry into the circumstances leading to the police killings at Marikana, North-West province (Annexures Y and Z). According to statistics provided by the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID), it transpires that just over 4 000 police custody fatalities took place between 2006 and 2011 (Shanti Aboobaker (2013:2; Wolfram Zwecker, 2013:4).

Data in Table 4.1 show that the research group (N=78,1%) favours the presence of the *abuse of power and authority* as part and parcel of the police deviance cluster. Again, female respondents (41,6%) are more convinced than their male counterparts (36,5%) that police abuse of power very much of a problem. The difference is not significant. Likewise, White respondents (41,6%) are slightly more in favour of the presence of this type of police deviance than is the case with their Blacks counterparts (36,5%) - $p \geq .05$.

Police *corruption* is likewise identified and confirmed by the research group to be very much of a problem (N=67,0%) among members of the SAPS. Female respondents (34,8%) differ slightly in their perceptions in this regard, compared to the males (32,2%). Whites are also (34,6%) slightly more convinced than their Black counterparts (32,3%) that police officers are displaying a corruptive aptitude ($p \geq .05$ respectively). Recently, two attempts have been propagated to counteract corruption in South Africa. First, the Minister of the Department of Public Service and Administration (including the SAPS), Me. Lindiwe Sisulu announced the establishment of "...a suitable, high profile corruption buster" (or bureau) which will enable government to clamp down on this type of crime (Babalo Ndenze, 2013:1). Second, the Minister of Justice, Jeff Radebe also proposed a name list containing the names of persons found guilty of corruption by criminal courts to be published for public information and perusal (Hanti Otto, 2013:2). To be successful, both proposed intentions need to be independent of political interference and influence. Lately much has been written about corruption (O'Connor & Sapa, 2013:1; Hoffman & Institute of Accountability, 2013:18). Grobler (2013:16-17), for instance, managed to publish the results of an investigation into police corruption: *Crossing the Line: When Cops Become*

Criminals (cf. 2013) and suggested, among other recommendations, that only the most promising recruits showing the highest moral values should be selected for employment as police officers and further, integrity-tests be conducted prior to their employment. This recommendation simply means that it should not just be a matter of ‘dishing-out jobs’ for the sake of getting a ‘job’. Further, improved police management with less ‘bureaucratic paper shuffling’ and extreme high levels of dedicated supervision will be necessary to allow the detection of corrupt practices, etc.

4.4.4 Organisational characteristics

Lack of knowledge and insight when performing real police work may be a stumbling block in building good relationships with members of the public. Is it possible that ‘textbook-knowledge’ could be expected to be a prerequisite for becoming an effective police officer or even a substitute for practical experience (or insight). Most police officers (especially the more experienced) may feel there is no substitute for practical experience, especially not if it is backed by an informal police subculture. From this perception, it follows that policing cannot be regarded as a (social) science. It has often been argued that the external environment of policing is too diverse and complicated to revert to textbook-knowledge on how to act in specific circumstances without having acquired the necessary skills that befit the handling of unique contact situations with the public. If this view is correct, it would mean that only officers who have been longer in the service would qualify as ‘effective’ and ‘experienced’ officers simply because experience come with time. Where does ‘training in a practical sense’ end? Bayley and Bittner, 1984 (Dunham & Alpert, 1989:87-88) are convinced that “...the antinomy [contradiction] between policing as a craft and policing as a science is false” (Bayley & Bittner, 1984:35-59). The way policing is learned should be compatible with attempts to making instruction in the skills of policing more self-critical and even more systematic. Police training, on the other hand, should be aligned with the particularities of police work as it is experienced from time to time and situation to situation. External academic training of police officers in South Africa is not a new phenomenon. For instance, as far back as the early 1970s, Professor Tjaart J. van Heerden of the University of South Africa introduced the first Bachelor’s degree in Police Science. Soon, other tertiary institutions followed and several doctoral degrees, most of them empirical studies into police and policing, were awarded since.

There are indications that the research group (N=66,1%) are in favour of the statement that a lack of knowledge and insight among police officers are much of a problem in the SAPS. Female respondents (34,3%) are slightly more in favour of this perception, compared to the males (31,8%) – $p \geq .05$. Having been cross-correlated with culture group, data reveal that White respondents are more aware of this problem (36,2%) compared to their Black counterparts (30,0%). This difference is approaching significance ($p = .054$). At a seminar on police violence held in Pretoria on 11 April 2013, Provincial Police Commissioner in Gauteng, Lt.-Gen. Mzwandile Petros suggested that police training should not be singled out as the reason for the problems currently encountered by the SAPS. It rather appears to be a matter of ‘Who is not doing his or her work in the police?’ But even then, middle level commanders should be held accountable if institutional control and discipline do not appear to be in place. General Petros also queried the theft and removal of a safe from the Alberton police station during March 2013 station containing R70 000 without being noticed by police officers on duty. It vouches for an absolute lack of discipline. Police violence, corruption, problems with the delivery of services and general police misconduct are singled out as the reasons for the breakdown in control and discipline and not so much a lack of knowledge of and insight into criminal justice issues (Hilda Fourie, 2013:4). According to the perceptions of the research group, less than half of the respondents (N=47,4%) are viewing discipline and actions among police officers as being less to not at all present in police operations. Males (26,0%) are also favouring this notion slightly but significantly more than their female counterparts (21,3%) - $p = .003$. Similarly, White respondents (25,5%) are slightly outnumbering their Black colleagues (21,9%) in their view of an apparent sub-standard level of police discipline. White respondents, perhaps more than Africans, are still perceiving disciplined actions as a most important management ‘tool’; a perception resulting from previous military or police training during the previous era of government (when a 2-year basic military training process was compulsory for all white school-leaving pupils).

Each and every police officer, from the lowest line functionary level to the top structure at the apex of the police pyramidal hierarchy, is bound by institutional accountability when called upon to adhere to the highest possible form of discipline. Station commanders specifically, as well as middle-level police managers, are responsible to ensure that respect, irrespective of race, colour,

creed or history, be accorded to every member of society as one of the most important democratic values. *Showing respect* to other people are, according the research group (N=64,3%), not always portrayed by police officers in the operational field, specifically when interacting with the public. In this regard, there appears to be convergence in regard to the perceptions of the respondents in terms of gender and culture group: females (32,5%) are slightly more convinced than males (31,8%) that people are less or not at all accorded the necessary respect by police officers, and White respondents (33,6%) are outscoring the Black respondents (30,8%). In both cases, however, the differences are not significant ($p \geq .05$).

4.5 IMPROVING THE PUBLIC IMAGE OF THE POLICE

Data analysed so far clearly reveal an unfavourable public image of the police. Except for *neatness* in uniform and offices, all the other clusters recorded negative perceptions among the respondents (N=572). According to Lyman (1999:27-28), negatively evaluated characteristics actually necessitate a balance or inventory between what the public *expect* of the police to do and what the police have to *offer* from their side in terms of public safety, otherwise the police may “...find themselves abandoned by the very public they serve when high-profile incidents of police wrongdoing emerge”. Police officers are often victimised as a result of misunderstanding and even *hatred* on the part of members of the public (and perhaps *dislike* on the part of police officers). Also, the public are often quick to point fingers at the police for rushing too quickly to judgment, adopt an uncaring attitude, being brutal, corrupt and dishonest. An unfavourable image of this kind may actually be appropriate in the sense that, while the public accord the police legitimacy to fulfil a task that every member of society is actually responsible for, people’s highest priorities in a democratic society should be focussed on a possible semblance of a police state – especially when government tends to interfere in police decision-making processes. Democracy is carefully designed to recognise people’s right to freedom, especially free from crime and the fear of crime as well as from the negative effects of an ‘oppressive police state’ (Lyman, 1999:28;243-244). In this regard, it appears that much will have to be done by the police to eradicate any kind of unfavourable perceptions linked to their public image.

Following are a few selected organisational and functional aspects which could contribute towards improving the public image of the police, presented in tabular format in Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below:

Table 4.3: Evaluation of selected organisational and functional aspects to improve the public image of the police, by gender (N=572)

Factors to improve the police image	Male				Female				Total (N=572)			
	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %	Favour n	Oppose %
Improved police service delivery	267	46,7	3	0,5	289	50,5	5	0,9	556	97,2	8	1,4
Equal treatment of all	261	45,6	13	2,3	288	50,3	10	1,7	549	96,0	23	4,0
Greater visibility in police uniform	258	45,1	9	1,6	285	49,8	8	1,4	543	94,9	17	3,0
Improved communication with the public	262	45,8	7	1,2	289	50,5	1	0,2	551	96,3	8	1,4
Improved in-service training	262	45,8	4	0,7	283	49,5	5	0,9	545	95,3	9	1,6
Diversified selection and employment	248	43,4	13	2,3	269	47,0	10	1,7	517	90,4	23	4,0
Judicious use of power and authority	244	42,7	10	1,7	256	44,8	23	4,0	500	87,4	33	5,8
Academic training of police officers	263	46,0	4	0,7	282	49,3	8	1,4	545	95,3	12	2,1
Scale: 1=Most important, 2=Important / 4=Less important, 5=Not important at all. Latitude of non-commitment not calculated / Significance= $p \geq 0.05$.												

The data in Table 4.3 reveals convergence on respondents' perceptions/opinions relating to the suggested aspects necessary to improve the image of the police. In order to simplify the interpretation of data, the description of the table will proceed along two clusters: *organisational* and *functional*.

4.5.1 Organisational cluster.

It would appear that respondents are insisting on improved communication between the police and themselves (N=96,3%). Female respondents (50,5%) are somewhat more convinced about this need than their male counterparts (45,8%) – $p \geq 0.05$. If it is assumed that the SAPS is till

practicing a *traditional form* of policing (judged by their involvement in serious crimes, especially unwanted incidences of assault on members of the public during arrests or otherwise), then transformation into a *community (democratic)* style of policing should not only be considered seriously, but implemented without any further delay. The time has arrived for the police and law-abiding citizens to work together addressing the crime concerns of this country in close partnership. When cross-correlated with *culture (race) group*, it transpires that White respondents (49,1%) significantly outnumbered the Blacks (47,2) in favour of this aspect to improve the police image ($p=.030$).

Table 4.4: Evaluation of selected organisational and functional aspects to improve the public image of the police, by culture (race) group (N=572)

Factors to improve the police image ¹⁾	Black				White				Total (N=572)			
	Favour n	%	Oppose n	%	Favour n	%	Oppose n	%	Favour n	%	Oppose n	%
Improved police service delivery	270	47,2	5	0,9	286	50,0	3	0,5	556	97,2	8	1,4
Equal treatment of all	268	46,9	4	0,7	281 ²⁾	49,1	2	0,3	549	96,0	6	1,0
Greater visibility in police uniform	264	46,1	7	1,2	279	48,8	10	1,7	543	95,0	17	3,0
Improved communication with the public	270	47,2	2	0,3	281 ³⁾	49,1	6	1,0	551	96,3	8	1,4
Improved in-service training	263	46,0	4	0,7	282	49,3	5	0,9	545	95,3	9	1,6
Diversified selection and employment	238	41,6	14	2,4	279 ⁴⁾	48,8	9	1,6	517	90,4	23	4,0
Judicious use of power and authority	236	41,3	24	4,2	264 ⁵⁾	46,1	9	1,6	500	87,4	36	6,3
Academic training of police officers	260	45,5	10	1,7	285 ⁶⁾	49,8	2	0,3	545	95,3	12	2,1
¹⁾ Scale: Favour=(1) Most important, (2) Important / Oppose=(4) Less important, (5) Not important at all / Latitude of non-commitment not calculated / 2) Sig: Chi-square=7,289; 3df; $p=.063$ (Approaching significance) / 3) Sig: Chi-square=10,733; 4df; $p=.030$ / 4) Sig: Chi-square=23,800, 4df; $p=0.000$ / 5) Sig: Chi-square=16,627; 4df; $p=.002$ / 6) Sig: Chi-square=14,775; 4df; $p=.005$.												

Gaines et al, (1994:88-99) provide a detailed description of ‘police training’ – both basic and in-service. It is important to note that basic training is usually based on aspects relating to the task of public safety and includes knowledge (of legal aspects), skills (relating to practical police work) and abilities; both in language and otherwise (cf. Stone & DeLuca, 1994: 294-310). Data

in Table 4.3 shows a breakdown between *gender* and improved in-service and academic training (N=95,3% and (N=95,3% respectively). In both cases, females are clearly more in favour of these two activities of policing (49,5% and 49,3% respectively) as the most important factors in the service delivery process of the police, compared to male respondents (45,8% and 46,0% respectively) who are somewhat less in favour of the two aspects to improve the police image ($p \geq .05$). However, cross-correlated with culture group, Table 4.4 reveals a more or less similar pattern. White (49,3%) compared to Black respondents (46,0%), are significantly more in favour of academic training for police officers ($p = .005$). Lyman (1999:328-329) issues the following *caveat* in respect of police academy training: “An important aspect of police academy training is the influence of the *informal* organizational culture of the officers attending te academy, which may tend to perpetuate a glamorous and sensational image of the job [police work] despite *formal* academy training. This informal image will promote the “macho” orientation of the police role, possibly negating efforts made by the police academy to orient new police recruits properly”.

The police selection process, like that of other government departments, currently strictly adheres to the principle of affirmative action. However, given the fact that South Africa has a diverse population composition, selection of suitable candidates should be extended across culture groups. Lyman (1999:320-326) suggests candidates should be subjected to (a) initial testing procedures (also considering a *merit system*), (b) physical abilities testing, (c) an oral interview, (d) a polygraph test, (e) a background investigation, (f) a medical test, and (f) psychological testing. The total research group (N=90,4%) regard a diversified selection process for new police candidates as a most important aspect in an effort to improve the police image. Female respondents (47,0%) are somewhat more in favour of this aspect compared to their male companions (43,3%) – $p \geq .05$. In terms of culture group, White respondents show a significantly greater need (48,8%) in this regard than their Black counterparts (41,6%) – $p = .002$.

4.5.2 Functional aspects

Tables 4.3 and 4.4 undeniably reveals a need for *improved police service delivery* (N=97,2%) – the very *raison de'être* of organised policing. This kind of perception may hint the possibility

that police officers are too much tied-up and protected in charge offices or elsewhere in sheltered employment areas, making them totally *invisible* to members of the public. In terms of gender, female respondents (50,5%) are clearly more in favour of this ‘public call’ than their male counterparts (46,7%). Convergence on this issue is slightly more observable in terms of culture group: White respondents (50,0%) are somewhat more in favour of this need than the Black respondents (47,2%). To achieve greater success with service delivery, the SAPS in all probability, will be required to ‘show-up’ more in police uniform in public places. Much has been written, locally as well as overseas about police patrol; the ‘bedrock’ of policing, whether by foot or mobile patrol. Police presence in uniform has proved to be a great deterrent of crime, simply because it eliminates the opportunity to commit crime (cf. Van Heerden, 1982). This author also provides an excellent exposition of the aims of patrolling in a social context. Female (49,8%) and male respondents (45,1%) are slightly more in favour of this factor as a way of improving the police image than is the Black respondents who converge (46,1%) with their White respondents (48,8%) on greater visibility in police uniform ($p \geq .05$).

The just and human [equal] treatment of all citizens in the same manner is a public expectation that can never be overlooked by police officers dealing with a variety contact situations with members of the public. The total research group allocated an extremely high score to this public expectation (N=96,0%). Although not significant, Female respondents (50,3%) show a greater affection for the democratic principle of treating of all people equal before the law – irrespective of history, colour or creed. The males registered a somewhat lower score (45,6%) in favour of the ‘equality’ principle in policing. Considering culture group, data indicate a significant difference by White respondents (49,1%) - $p = .063$ (approaching significance), compared to Blacks (46,9%). The foregoing principle of treating all people equal before the law has far-reaching consequences for those police officers who are still ‘struggling’ to transform themselves from a police *service* to a *police force*. It would mean that the police will be called upon to use their power and authority in a more judicious manner (N=95,3%), Although not significant at $p \leq .05$, female respondents (44,8%) regard this factor a most important factor that could influence the police image in a positive way, compared to their male counterparts (42,7%). Considering the perceptions of the culture group cross-correlated with the very same factor, it becomes clear that White respondents (46,1%) significantly ($p = .002$) outnumbered the Blacks (41,3%).

4.6 SUMMARY

Herman Goldstein (1990:21) frankly states: “A community must police itself. The police can, at best, only assist in that task” but then “ ... [t]he police must do more than they have done in the past to engage the citizenry in the overall task of policing”. In the ‘good old days’, i.e. when communities were more closely connected through a ‘network’ of mutual relationships and some sort of strong community norms (cohesiveness) contributed towards deterring crime. People did not do certain things outside the scope of existing relationships and out of fear what the neighbours would think or do. Also, citizens who went on holidays were assured of the protection of their properties by their neighbours. However, as cities grew and societies became more and more industrialised (and even impersonal), a sense of ‘community’ slowly disappeared and “...a mixture of life-styles, and anonymity have [always] been part of city life” (Goldstein, 1990:22). Relationships between the police and various communities witnessed perceptions of the police performing the task of policing only for the wealthy, while enforcing the laws upon the workers’ class, minorities and the poor became more and more a social reality. Irrespective of class differences, the public increasingly looked to the police for solving their crime problems and concerns. The police, on the other hand, took upon themselves a broad range of police functions, representative of public expectations in terms of public safety, which ultimately became their fulltime task. This process did not happen without some negative consequences: applying the laws eventually “...had the effect of divorcing them [police] from the communities they policed” (Goldstein, 1990:22). The impersonal character of policing over years characterised the institution as ‘an occupation army’, precisely because of its repressive shape; in South Africa since 1948 till 1994 and afterwards. Building new relationships with the public “...carries with it some uniform expectations of what the police should elicit from a community” (Goldstein, 1990:25).

This chapter is devoted to the perceptions of the respondents relating to identifying those distinctive characteristics of police officers which emerge during the execution of their official duties when in contact with members of the public. The analysis of data is also poised to reveal whether such characteristics are capable of exerting a positive or negative influence on the image

of the police from the point of view of 572 selected respondents from three provinces of South Africa.

Data in Table 4.1 clearly show that the police are not friendly (N=61,0%) and helpful (N=56,5%) at all when dealing with the public when executing their official duties. Although they portray an image of *neatness* (with regard to their uniforms, etc.) – N=61,7%, their honesty (N=56,1%) leaves much to be desired, *vis-à-vis* their involvement in corruptive practices (N=67,0%). These perceptions are followed by their own example relating to *not* obeying the laws of the country themselves. Deviant actions in the form of abuse of power and authority (N=78,1%) relates to apparent arrogant (N=72,9%) and aggressive attitudes (N=69,1%) which, in turn, eventually spark police brutality (N=51,6%). Organisationally, lack of knowledge and insight into policing issues (N=66,1%) also appears to be a problem and so do discipline (N=47,4%) and not showing respect to other people (N=64,3%).

Table 4.3 provides possible solutions calculated to improve the image of the police. Chapter 5 has been earmarked for the findings, conclusions and recommendations.

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CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The present study revolves around an exploratory-descriptive inquiry into the perceptions of the image of the police in a post-authoritarian South African environment. The research design created for the study entails a non-probability sampling approach about a social phenomenon that has not been explored since the advent of democracy in South Africa two decades ago. During the previous political era, several investigations have been undertaken of the image of the police almost more than forty years ago and all are referring to the erstwhile South African Police (SAP), example:

Van Heerden, T.J. (1974). The police role in society with reference to the South African Police in Johannesburg (translated). Unpublished research report. Department of Criminology (Criminology, Penology & Police Science), Faculty of Arts. Pretoria: University of South Africa (UNISA).

Mayet, H.R. (1976). The role and image of the South African Police in society from the point of view of the Coloured people in Johannesburg. Unpublished MA-dissertation. Department of Criminology, Faculty of Arts. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Du Preez, G.T. (1978). The image of the South African Police among rural communities: A comparative study. Unpublished MA-dissertation. Department of Criminology, Faculty of Arts. Pretoria: University of South Africa.

Although empirically inclined and a general-scientific research approach has been maintained, the present study may not lay claim to absolute accuracy. However, this shortcoming should not

distract from data obtained from bivariate cross-correlations provided by living human beings or *respondents* (N=572) pertaining to a long overdue research topic. While dwelling on this issue, it should also be borne in mind that the present study (Potgieter & Mersham, 2002:136):

- Is *explorative* and *descriptive* in nature and extent and non-probability sampling procedures has been lined-up to correctly facilitate the collection of data;
- In the absence of previous research into the public image of the police since 27 April 1994, the present study attempts to shed light upon aspects that could have contributed to the research group's perceptions of the South African Police Service (SAPS) as an emergent democratic police institution since 1 April 1995. Quite a number of empirical studies have been launched in the past into the image of the erstwhile S.A. Police (SAP); now dissolved; and
- Is neither *prescriptive* in nature, nor does it intend harming the police service or the mass media; the latter which provide day-to-day information about police behaviour – favourably or unfavourably.

5.2 POLICE-MEDIA RELATIONS: A BRIEF OVERVIEW

Before any attempt is made to discuss the findings of the present study, the issue of *police-media relationship* in policing which has been brought to the attention of criminal justice researchers by Joanne Ziembo-Vogl (cf. 1998) in her discussion of the role of the media in community policing, should be briefly considered because it has been much neglected in police science literature in the past. It will be discussed from an American literature point of view. Except for the following study into the *police-media relationship*-phenomenon, no previous research, of whatever nature, has been undertaken in South Africa in the past:

Potgieter, P.J. & Mersham, G.M. (2002). The role of the media in community policing.

Unpublished Inter-Departmental Research Report. Project S171/2000. Departments of Criminal Justice and Communication Science. Faculty of Arts. KwaDlangezwa: University of Zululand.

While democratic policing could be regarded as being still in its infant stage within the framework of an emergent democracy in South Afrika (which came into being on 27 April 1994), the researcher deemed it necessary and perhaps useful to briefly observe the role of the media in everyday democratic policing as it unfolds in this country (cf. Potgieter & Mersham, 2002).

Quis custodiet ipsos custodes – “Who will guard us [public] against the guardians [police]”? (cf. Wiarda, 1992), used to be a question often asked by well-informed and thoughtful people in South Africa who are concerned about policing and police misconduct, but nowadays (in contemporary) South Africa the even ‘not so informed’ are observing the deviancy among the police and their predisposition to criminal behaviour. Within this context, it is true that the mass media play an important role because the “...police-media relationship consistently generates arguments about the other’s behaviour” (Radelet & Carter, 1994:475). The relationship between the police and the mass media does not seem to be an all-friendly one and several authors (listed by Ziembo-Vogl, 1998) such as Miller & Hess (1994), Garner (1989), Lovell (1993), to mention a few, are convinced that *conflict* appears to be “...the *accepted* paradigm of police-media relationships” (Ziembo-Vogl, 1998:2). Any consideration accorded to a discussion of the police-media relationship should be aware of the following aspects about the *media* (Radelet & Carter, 1994:475-476):

- “The police feel they are often the recipient of biased coverage and sensationalism from the media.
- The media feel the police are unduly secretive about issues for which the public has a right to know.
- The public learns about crime and policing issues – including misconduct – from the media.

- The police and media need each other”.

In traditional terms, some sort of “love-hate relationship” prevails between these two entities which at best could be illustrated by means of the following line of argumentation:

The *police* would argue that the media –

- Are often on the look-out for information about crime or crime-related incidents they are actually not entitled to;
- Are too critical of the police and that it tends to expose police misconduct without considering the police side of the “story”; and
- Media exposure of police operations may jeopardise serious police investigations.

The media would argue that the police –

- Are too secretive (“close-mouthed”) and, as a result, hamper the freedom of the press;
- Often withhold information about crime and community concerns from the media; and
- Rather view the media in terms of a “conflict-producing entity” instead of being “partners” as far as sharing of public information about safety and security is concerned.

Finally, Radelet and Carter (1994:475) entertain the following hypothetical argumentative conversation between the police and the media (in the USA) to gain a better understanding of the police-media relationship:

- | | |
|---------|---|
| Media: | “The police are trying to hide information the public have a right to know”. |
| Police: | “Your endless efforts to get information will jeopardize our investigation and threaten the safety of undercover officers”. |
| Media: | “You are trying to cover-up police wrongdoing”. |
| Police: | “We are trying to conduct an impartial investigation and protect the rights of all parties involved”. |

5.3 FINDINGS

The findings emanating from the present study will be based solely on data forthcoming from 572 respondents' perceptions about selected aspects relating to their image of the SAPS. In other words, only data which resulted in cross-correlations between two arbitrarily selected independent variables: *gender* and *culture group* and operationalised dependent variables reported and captured by means of statistical tables, will be used to highlight the most important findings of this research inquiry. The SPSS statistical program has been implemented.

A discussion of the findings will be presented according four sections (clusters) of the questionnaire (Annexure A) as follows:

- Section B: Justification for the existence of the police (including: perceptions relating to the most important basis, whether such existence poses any threat to freedom and privacy, obligation to deter crime, and willingness to assist the police).
- Section C: Evaluation of the importance of arbitrarily selected police functions (including: the rating of police efficiency in respect of these functions, and the reasons for the non-reporting of crime to the police).
- Section D: Operational characteristics of police officers which usually come to the fore when performing their official duties (including: their honesty).
- Section E: Improving the image of the police (including: setting an example in terms of their own obedience to the laws of the country, and the sources that mostly contributed to their image of the police).

5.3.1 Justification for the existence of the police role

In principle, the research group (95,3%) regard the existence and presence of the SAPS an absolute necessity, simply because the police fulfill a ‘drastic role’ and function in society. Not only does the presence of a police organisation serve as a subtle reminder of the existence of formal individual rules (laws) of behaviour, but also the presence of coercive measures which authorise police officers to curtail individual freedom, should a contravention of the formal rules or prescriptions occur (cf. Van Heerden, 1982; Du Preez, 1991:30). The police are legalised in terms of the South African Police Service Act, No 68 of 1995 to provide in the public safety needs of South African citizens (Table 2.3). This recognition reflects an acceptance of the police role in general. ‘Service’ in terms of public safety rendered by die SAPS to all citizens is generally regarded the most important justification (*raison d’être*) for the existence of the police, precisely because such perception is based upon the historical-philosophical inclination of the police role. Moreover, policing is a social service function precisely because it is delegated by society to the police in terms of constitutional conditions and prescriptions and from which it follows that a relationship prevails between society’s expectations and the services rendered by the police accordingly (Du Preez, 1991:40). *Contrary to this generally-accepted assumption*, respondents (N=53,3%) rather opted for the *juridical justification* as the basis for the existence of the SAPS as a *reactive police entity* (Table 2.5). In the first place this finding confirms that, being dominantly reactive, the police are portraying a so-called *crime fighter image* and, second, due to their own involvement in the commission of serious crimes, often as part of the one or other armed robbery syndicate for instance, their behaviour totally overshadows their proactive function in the form of deterring crime opportunities.

Table 2.7 clearly depicts the role of experience or type of contact with the police through different selected *sources* as image forming indicators relating to the type of *justification* of the police role by the respondents. It simply means that justification of the police role, example: juridical, political, religion or a social service orientation. Cross-correlated with selected *image-forming sources*, it becomes clear that physical observation of *police presence* when performing their official duties contributed to a *juridical frame of reference* (44,8%) which scored the highest among the selected sources. This finding is followed by *television* (44,6%), daily

newspapers (44,2%) and the radio (42,1%). It would appear that these sources placed *policing as a social service function* in the ‘second place’. The respondents are clearly oppose to the idea of policing being a political or religious created institution.

5.3.2 Element of ‘threat’ to personal freedom and privacy

In spite of an apparent *reactive* and *juridical inclination* of the SAPS (Table 2.10), the respondents (N=65,9%) opine that the police role holds no threat to public freedom and privacy (Table 2.8). A quarter of the total research group (24,8%) are in favour of (believe) the idea that their personal freedom and privacy are indeed threatened by the presence of the police. Male (12,5%) are slightly more than female respondents in favour of the statement. White respondents (13,5%) are, likewise, also slightly more in favour of being threatened by the police compared to Blacks (11,4%). Lyman (1999:33-35) is convinced that some sort of imbalance in society is created the moment when some persons, like police officers, are granted more power and authority than other people (e.g. the public or individuals not involved in keeping public peace and safety *per se*). Unfortunately, not everybody, other than police could be allowed to engage in searching, arrest, detention of law violators, etc. The police are actually agents of society, called upon to protect life and property and to ensure that law abiding citizens are not harassed or victimised by those who have chosen not to pursue an honest presence or occupation in social life. Neither are the police, as a necessity of modern society, expected to victimise or threaten the people they are bound (by law) to serve. According to Lyman (1999:34-35), democratic societies not only have the obligation to maintain the *majority rule*, but to also *protect minority rights* in terms of two very important legal mechanisms: the Bill of Human Rights and the Constitution.

5.3.3 Obligation to prevent (deter) crime as a member of the public

This *obligation* is supported by 77,1% of the total research group (Table 2.8). This finding unquestionably reveals the desire on the part of the public to work together with the police to prevent (or at least *deter*) crime. Traditional policing, known for its bureaucratic and secretive way of operation – both administratively and operationally – prohibited public interference in policing matters. Since the ‘birth’ of the concept *community policing* by Sir Robert Peel, the nineteenth-century British statesman who instrumentally assisted in establishing the London

Metropolitan Police in 1829, not only predicted the future of modern policing, but also defined partnership-policing which eventually transformed into what is now known as *community policing* (Lyman, 1999:71), representing a totally new paradigm shift in policing. Peel's principles are still valid to this day, especially where he stated that:

“7. The police at all times should maintain a relationship with the public that gives reality to the historic tradition that the police are the public and that the public are the police; the police are the only members of the public who are paid to give full-time attention to duties which are incumbent on every citizen in the interest of the community welfare” (Peak & Glensor, 1996:4).

5.3.4 Willingness to assist the police in crime prevention

Apart from an obligation on the part of the respondents to prevent crime and keep themselves safe and secure (par. 5.3.3), the research group also indicated their *willingness to assist the police* in deterring crime and related criminal behaviour (74,0%). This finding is supported by the significant difference ($p=.021$) in perceptions between White (40,2%) and Black respondents (33,7%) in favour of this statement – Table 2.9. The readiness of the public to get involved in crime prevention should be appreciated by the police and actually transformed into a community policing program as indicated in the previous paragraph.

5.4 FUNCTIONAL EXPECTATIONS AND CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POLICE

It has been suggested earlier in this research report that policing revolves around two distinctive elements: *proactive measures* (crime deterrence/prevention) and *reactive actions* (law enforcement). A cluster of 10 statements operationalised as dependent variables defining proactive and reactive functions relating to policing have been arbitrarily selected and subjected to bivariate analyses. Tables 2.10 (gender) and 2.11 (culture group) report the scores obtained for those ten variables.

5.4.1 Proactive and reactive functions

The most outstanding short-term police function directed at crime prevention, i.e. eliminating (or deterring) crime precipitants, scored 97,9 percent among the total research group (N=572). Visible presence of the police in public places like neighbourhoods, shopping malls, near schools, etc. provides a deterrent effect on crime, simply because it is accepted that nobody will commit a crime in the presence of a police officer or in the knowledge that a police officer is 'just around the corner'. However, in many instances, police patrol is regarded to be too *passive* or not visible enough, do not reassure the public and nor do they warn-off criminals (Bayley, 1994:52-53; 102-103). This finding, runs concurrently with the high score of 97,4 percent relating to *physical police patrol*. While many police institutions feel that patrolling is the real answer to short-term prevention (deterrence) of crime, many others believe patrolling is outdated. Many police managers also believe that patrolling is too expensive – both in terms of budgetary constraints and being a burden in terms of staff allocations. Although not significant, females (50,7%) outscored the male respondents (46,7%). Black and White respondents show more or less convergence on this issue (49,7% and 47,7% respectively). If the police do not succeed to reassure the public of their safety, Bayley (1994:103) suggests the police to engage in *keeping the moral order* in society when they are not responding to calls for service from the public by way of assisting in cleaning-up their neighbourhoods by means of 'reducing the physical signs of crime' (e.g. organising the removal of uncollected trash, observe abandoned buildings, arrange for the removal of graffiti, car wrecks, repair of broken street lights, etc. Wilson and Kelling (cf. 1982) introduced the concept of *broken windows* as an ideal paradigm shift to reorientate police patrol activities, analogous to some sort of *watchman style of policing* (Dunham & Alpert, 1989:382).

Long-term proactive functions of the police have been identified by the research group (N=572) as: protecting the youth by means of guiding them against crime and related misdemeanours (94,4%). South Africa recently experienced a wave of sexually-related crimes committed by adult male offenders against young (even infant) girls, followed by murdering them afterwards. Drug-related offences committed by school children and even the carrying of dangerous weapons and assaulting teachers, are only some of the most concerning issues requiring intensive police

attention. Although not statistically significant and for obvious reasons, female respondents (50,0%) perceptually outnumbered their male counterparts (44,4%) in this regard.

Educating the public in safety and security measures (92,3%) – an obligation that is historically founded, is also singled out as one of the most long-term functions of public policing. Bayley (1994:10-11) is convinced that the expansion of the private security industry is the result of a lack of confidence in policing “...the public has begun to figure out that the police do not prevent crime and cannot expected to. One indication is the growth of the private security industry over the past thirty years”. South Africa currently has the largest private security network in the world: almost 9 000 registered private security companies with 400 000 registered private security guards (cf. Defenceweb, 2013). Although private security companies are well-organised in terms of providing safety and security, the high score attached to this function by the research group could mean the police remain the dominant provider of the kind of public safety required by all citizens in accordance with constitutional values and prescriptions – at no cost. The police continue to exert jurisdiction over places where private security has a prominent presence. This finding is indicative of the fact that private security, on the contrary, is a ‘paid-for-service’ and is often referred to as protection only for the ‘rich’. The police continue to have legal jurisdiction in places where private security has a prominent presence.

Related police functions, viz. the suppression of terrorist subversive activities (66,6%) and the investigation of traffic offences/accidents (50,1%) are both supported with mixed feelings. The escorting of dignitaries with flashing blue lights and sirens (85,0%) is seriously opposed by the research group as being not a true function of the police. The meting out of punishment (61,0%) is rejected as also not being a function of the police at all. Punishing remains a retributive function of the criminal courts.

What emerges from the discussion above is the fact that the research group take a clear stand on the functional aspects of the police role, especially in regard to the proactive (preventative) functions of the police which are viewed somewhat more important than the law enforcement (reactive) side of the police role. These ‘functions’ are clearly translating into the role expectations cherished by the public which simply means the police need to show greater

effectiveness when performing their official duties. It would require police actions taken towards a visible reduction in crime and the fear of crime among law-abiding citizens, through crime deterrent activities; in short, an improvement in public safety and good order (Bayley, 1994:79). Efficiency on the other hand has everything to do with the costs relating to what the police do in terms of what they achieve. The police “...are costly without being clearly effective...performance of the police should be judged in terms of three criteria: effectiveness, efficiency, and rectitude (Bayley, 1994:79). The latter element will be briefly highlighted in paragraph 5.4.3. Further, Table 2.13 clearly shows more than half of the research group (54,5%) rated the police as being inefficient to highly inefficient. Male (28,5%) respondents are somewhat more negative in their rating than the females (26,0%) - $p \geq .05$.

5.4.2 Reasons for *not* reporting crime to the police

Tables 2.1 and 2.2 provide the information about selected reasons why the respondents would not be prepared to report crime to the police. The most important reasons appears to be a negative attitude observed from the police when reporting crime (75,5%). Concurrently with this finding is the observation of the police as being apathetic, i.e. showing no enthusiasm or willingness to attend to complaints lodged at police stations (74,1%). These findings could be the result of either *police inefficiency* relating to the solving of criminal cases (72,7%) or due to *discrimination* against culture groups other than that of the police officer(s) – 66,4%. Arrogance on the part of the police could also result in the complainant being treated like the ‘guilty party’ when a member of a certain culture group reports crime to the police – a finding that points to the possibility that such reported case may *not receive the proper attention* in terms of further police investigation (69,1%).

Only in two cases respondents maintain perceptions that: (a) complainants do not want to get involved in court cases (due to the protection of one’s good name), 61,4% and, (b) court cases are too time consuming (55,9%), did the research group opposed the statements. In another case, respondents opted not to bother the police with trivial matters (51,6%). The first three most important reasons why the research group would not report crime to the police are clearly *police service-related* – an average of N=74,1%. Strengthened by the findings of the police adopting an

aloof attitude towards crime and being treated with disrespect, the police are apparently not concerned about prevailing crime and people's fear of crime.

5.4.3 Operational characteristics of the police

Four clusters (or constructs) have been created arbitrarily to illustrate and define the different dimensions of police officer characteristics (Tables 4.1 and 4.2) which come to the fore when they execute the functions described in Tables 2.10 and 2.11.

5.4.3.1 Contact situation

Two important aspects emanating from contact between the police and the public, in whatever form, viz. *friendliness* (61,0%) and *helpfulness* (56,5%), are both human acts calculated to treat the public *right*. Police-public contacts may often result in emotional outbursts. Policing in the USA had been subjected to civilian review boards since 1980 to oversee police discipline, especially on determining whether police officers was treating citizens 'right'. In South Africa, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) has been appointed by the government as a civilian body to independently investigate police misconduct, *inter alia*, the treatment of the public by the police in the contact situation. The research group opposed both the elements of friendliness (61,0%) and helpfulness (56,5%) as being non-existent in South Africa.

5.4.3.2 Police deviancy

The following real encounter (which is treated as an anonymous and hypothetical incident may just illustrate the element of *rectitude* between the police and the public) as well as probable *police misbehaviour* which took place at a police blockade set up by members of the SAPS just outside rural town "V" in one of South Africa's provinces: having left town A, a White lady (Me. G) travelling alone in her car to town "M" was overtaken by another car (Pajero) at a high speed at a point where both almost simultaneously went through the police blockade. The police were unable to stop the driver of the Pajero. Subsequently, Me. G. was stopped and accused of speeding. Having explained that she was travelling within the boundaries of the speed limit (no

proof could be furnished by the police that she had indeed exceeded the speed limit) and that the police apparently made a possible mistake by allowing the Pajero to get away, a Black police woman stepped forward and called her a liar and a ‘white bitch’ and kicked her car, pulled out the keys from Me. G’s car and handcuffed her after which she was put in the back of a police van, her car was left at the scene (blockade) and later driven to the nearby police station in town “V” where she was formally charged with reckless and negligent driving by means of exceeding the speed limit and detained in a police holding cell. She was eventually found not guilty and discharged; her legal costs exceeded a couple of thousands of rand.

The deviancy-cluster in Table 4.1 accommodates five typical forms of police misbehaviour. Considering what happened to Me. G, it could be anticipated that a degree of *arrogance* on the part of the police woman at the scene apparently erupted in some sort of *aggressiveness*, followed by *verbal brutality*. Eventually, the police woman *abused* her *power and authority* to the extent that the Me. G was at no stage treated with rectitude. Data show that the research group are convinced that the police are abusing their power and authority (78,1%) by showing off with an arrogant attitude towards members of the public (72,9%), develop aggressiveness (69,1%) and, ultimately, in the process of contact with the public act with physical or verbal brutality (51,6%).

The findings also reveal that corruptive behaviour (67,0%), often in the form of accepting bribes, is also present among police officers. In most instances, members of the police who are aware of corruptive practices turn a ‘blind eye’ on those who are indeed involved in such practices, perhaps in an attempt not to stir the issue of misplaced loyalty. In the USA, for instance, the Knapp-Commission had been appointed in New York City in 1972 and given enough authority and investigative powers “...to go beyond a superficial study of what had gone wrong in the New Yprk Police Department.

5.4.3.3 Setting an example

A cluster dealing with setting an example by the police presented different results in terms of three police characteristics. The research group indicated that: (a) police officers project a *neat*

appearance (67,1%), (b) but do not tend to show obedience to the laws of the country themselves (72,2), and (c) they are not always honest (56,1%) – Table 4.1.

5.4.3.4 Organisational characteristics

Table 4.1 reveals that a lack of knowledge among police officers performing functional duties appears to be of a great concern (66,1%). Likewise, police discipline also appears to be a problem (47,4%) in the SAPS while Black respondents (18,5%) are somewhat more convinced than the Whites (15,7%) that the police are disciplined (Table 4.2). Given the fact that the SAPS has remilitarised to a *police force* on 1 April 2010 at the Pretoria Voortrekker Monument (see Chapter 1), discipline would become an all important management ‘tool’ to get things done the right way on time. Stone and DeLuca (1994:326-327) confirm that *discipline* in any organisation – in the police also – is necessary, especially by members of the police who are occupying positions of authority and leadership, and subordinate members are obliged to respect their leaders’ directions and instructions.

5.4.4 Improving the external image of the police

The best way to improve the image of the police (Tables 4.3 and 4.4) is to be found in the improvement of their service delivery to all members of the public in an equal measure, irrespective of race, colour or creed (97,2%) according female (50,5%) and male respondents (46,7%). This expectation actually provides in the historical-philosophical justification of policing, being a service rendered to the society for the society. Concurrently with this finding runs the perception that the equal treatment of all individuals by way of rectitude which have to be treated properly, legally, morally and even without any kind of discrimination whatsoever (Bayley, 1994:79). To a very great extent, improved service delivery mentioned earlier would be dependent on the visibility or ‘closeness’ of police officers, especially those on patrol – whether it be on foot or mobile or, for example, by simply being present in another capacity in police uniform to show it would be unwise to commit a crime in the presence of a police officer (94,9%). Other factors include improved communication between the police and the public (96,3%) as well as improved in-service training (95,3%).

Apart from employing the principle of diversity selection and employment of new recruits (90,4%) and the judicious use of police power and authority (87,4%), academic training at tertiary institutions (95,3%) in police science or police practice as it is offered currently at the University of South Africa and its School of Criminal Justice in Gauteng, at the University of Limpopo and University of KwaZulu-Natal in Durban, should be consolidated and widely supported. Cross-correlations with culture group clearly show that White respondents overshadow their Black counterparts on *all* the factors listed in Table 4.4 and, in five instances, in a significant way.

5.4.5 Image-forming sources

Table 3.1 contains a list of possible sources that could have impacted on respondents' forming of their image of the police. The mass media, viz. television watching (85,1%) and reading daily newspapers (81,8%) definitely played a major role in forming their image of the SAPS. The presence of the police (when executing their official duties) also played a major role (82,9%) in this regard. It has come to the knowledge of the researcher that most of the brutal actions of the police are committed in the presence of the public - see for instance Annexures D, Q and S. Even the results of a shoot-out between police and armed robbers are popular news to be 'advertised' in the mass media and some of those incidents are, for instance, widely published on Facebook, YouTube and Twitter. The social media also play an influential role on people's perception about crime, police and policing. For the sake of interest, the social media in South Africa is a quick and upcoming form creating different platforms of information. Research undertaken by World Wide Worx (Idees, 2014:51) reveals the following platforms of information with an indication of their popularity: Facebook – 9,4 million users, MXit – 7,3 million users, YouTube – 4,7 million, Twitter – 5,5 million, LinkedIn – 2,7 million, 2go – 1,1 million, Instagram – 680 000 and Google+ - 466 000.

5.5 SUMMARY OF MOST IMPORTANT FINDINGS

The following summary serves the purpose of a brief résumé of the most outstanding *findings* which emanate from the present study. It could be stated that the data contained in this research report, shows that:

5.5.1 The right of existence of the police (like the SA Police Service)

- Respondents regard the *justification basis* of the police as being *juridical* in nature and extent; they do not view the police role as a social service the police have to render to members of the public.
- Watching television is the most influential medium that influenced respondents' perceptions of the police in three provinces.
- The mere presence of the police as an organised formal institution poses *no threat* to the respondents' constitutional rights to 'individual freedom and privacy'.
- Respondents recognise their *obligation to prevent crime*, i.e. to keep them safe and secure.
- Amidst the reactive posture of the SAPS, respondents are still *willing* to assist the police in deterring crime.

5.5.2 Perceptions of the importance of selected police functions

The following short-term police functions are rated more important than long-term functions:

- Crime *prevention* or *crime deterrence* through *proactive* police measures (e.g. police role visibility) is what the respondents (97,9%) are striving for.
- *Police patrolling* of public places like shopping malls, areas close to commercial banks, neighbourhoods, including informal settlements (97,4%), etc. is what is needed to address the crime problem and the fear of crime.

Long-term police functions:

- Crime *investigation* or *law enforcement* through arrest, detention, interrogation, etc.
- *Protecting* and/or *guiding* the youth against the many ills of contemporary social life (94,4%)..

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5.5.3 Police efficiency

- The finding for this category indicates that the police are rated inefficient to highly inefficient.

5.5.4 Reasons for non-reporting of crime to the police

- The *negative attitude* of police officers when crime is reported to them is rated the highest.
- Police officers are also being rated *apathetically*, i.e. as if not interested in what people have to report or being not prepared to enthusiastically assist complainants.

5.5.5 Operational characteristics of police officers

- Respondents are convinced that the police are *not friendly* and *not helpful* when in contact with the public.
- The police are not showing obedience to the law themselves.
- Are arrogant.
- Abuse their power and authority.

5.5.6 Improving the image of the SAPS

- An outstanding aspect in this regard is the *improvement of rendering police services* to the public.
- Greater visibility and approachability of the police.

5.5.7 Image-forming sources

- Television-watching has been rated the most prominent source which influenced the respondents' image of the police.
- The presence of the police when performing their official duties is being rated second most important aspect in this regard.

5.6 ACHIEVEMENT OF THE RESEARCH AIMS

The aims for the present study were set in Chapter 3, paragraph 3.2. The researcher will attempt to briefly highlight whether the data show evidence of achievement of these aims.

5.6.1 Aim 1: To establish the *basis* for (a) the *necessity* (b) justification ground (c) of the SAPS

This aim consists of four elements (or clusters):

- (a) The *necessity for the existence* of the police (variable 6). This aim revolves around establishing whether it is by any reason necessary to maintain a formal appointed police institution like the SAPS to handle the country's crime problem as well as people's safety and fear of crime. Table 2.3 confirm that in terms of *gender*, altogether 53,3% respondents have indicated their satisfaction with the presence of the SAPS. Female respondents (49,0%) are significantly more in favour of this state of affairs ($p=.003$). In terms of culture group, Whites (29,0%) are also significantly ($p=.001$) more in favour than their Black counterparts (24,3%) of having a formal police institution like the SAPS.
- (b) A choice between four possible bases for the existence of the police (Table 2.5) show that both male (26,0%) and female (27,3%) – a total of 53.3% - recognised the *juridical pillar* as the most important basis for or justification of the SAPS to exist. This is an outright disregard for the social service function (35,0%) of the police in modern democratic society. This kind of displaced perceptions actually further enhances the

reactive posture of the police, like the ‘crime-fighter image’ of an institution that is called upon to rather be on the side of the communities they serve in a *community policing fashion!* This element of the first aim has also been achieved.

- (c) Data in Table 2.8 reveal that the presence of a police institution like the SAPS definitely does not pose any *threat* to respondents’ personal freedom and privacy (65,9%). Even male (12,5%) and female (12,2%) show convergence on this issue ($p \geq .05$) – in spite of the annual high crime rates in South Africa since 1994 and police involvement in serious crimes like corruption, armed robbery, physical brutality, assault, and the like. Black respondents (33,2%) are slightly, but significantly more convinced than the Whites (32,5%) that the police presence poses no threat to South Africans ($p = .010$). Accordingly, this aim has been achieved.
- (d) Table 2.8 also confirms that the research group has indicated their *obligation* to prevent (or deter) crime by themselves (77,1%) – a responsibility that has its origin in the democratic social setup of South Africa. Both male (38,6%) and female (38,5%) respondents have convergence on this issue and so do White respondents (39,0%) who are slightly more convinced than the Blacks (35,0%) about this responsibility ($p \geq .05$). The foregoing perceptions indicate that this aim has also been achieved.
- (e) Lastly, the *willingness to assist* the police (74,0%) in crime prevention unleashes respondents’ desire to work with the police; to assist them in discussing community crime concerns in close partnership. Females (39,0%) are somewhat more eager in their perceptions than is the case with males (35,0%) – Table 2.8. This willingness appears to be significantly stronger among Whites (40,2%) compared to Black respondents (33,7%) – $p = .021$. This aim has also been achieved.

5.6.2 Aim 2: To establish the importance of selected police functions

Tables 2.10 and 2.11 contain the list of arbitrarily selected day-to-day police functions which actually translate into symbolic public expectations of the police role. Except for two, these functional expectations have all been positively rated by the respondents. Of special interest is the quest by the respondents who claim greater crime prevention through proactive police (short-term) actions and enhanced patrolling of public places and neighbourhoods if they want to positively address the crime problems of the country and the public's fear of crime. Protecting and guiding the youth against crime and educating people in safety and security are both long-term preventative measures that have been favourably evaluated. Meting out punishment and the escort of dignitaries with flashing blue lights and sirens have both been vehemently opposed by the respondents (61,0% and 85,0% respectively). Significant differences have been observed in five of the rated functions. This aim has also been achieved.

5.6.3 Aim 3: To ascertain whether the police efficient in handling the crime problem

Unfortunately, the police are rated inefficient to highly inefficient (Table 2.13) when it comes to achieving the selected police functions listed in Table 2.10. Altogether 54,5% of the respondents have 'spoken' against the police in this regard – with males (28,5%) slightly more negative than the female respondents (26,0%). No significant difference has been observed. Accordingly, this aim has also been achieved.

5.6.4 Aim 4: To establish the reasons for the non-reporting of crimes

It has been statistically established that in seven out of nine arbitrarily selected reasons did the respondents steer away from the possibility of reporting crime to the police (Tables 2.1 and 2.2). The general feeling that respondents would not want to get involved in criminal court cases (61,4%) and that criminal court cases are not necessarily time-consuming (55,9%) are supported by both Black and White respondents. The most obvious reasons why respondents would not want to report crime to the police are to be found in the following reasons:

- Negative attitudes of police officers (both gender and culture group-variables significantly confirm this perception).
- Apathetical attitude on the part of the police when complainants show up at a police station.
- Inefficiency of the police to solve criminal cases (examples are the: Inge Lotz-case, the Oscar Pistorius-case where the scene of crime has apparently been messed-up, etc. – Huisgenoot, 2014:9; Rapport, 2013:7). In many other criminal cases are accused persons also acquitted due to insufficient evidence to forge convictions.
- The foregoing reason may perhaps be the result of the fact that cases would probably not receive the attention they deserve.
- Treatment of complainants are apparently also problematic, because they are treated like the ‘guilty party’ when they show up at a charge offices, or they are caused to feel less important, or they are discriminated against if they are from another culture group other than the police.
- Also of importance are respondents’ perceptions that reporting criminal cases would be a waste of valuable police officers’ time.

Significant differences between gender and culture groups in terms of the F-test have been observed. Subsequently, the researcher is confident that this aim has also been achieved.

5.6.5 Aim 5: To measure the degree to which selected police characteristics are present during performance of official duties

Four clusters have been created:

(a) Contact situation

Two characteristics police officers are expected to have: (1) friendliness (61,0%) and helpfulness (56,5%) are not present or not in abundance when police officers are in contact with members of the public. In both cases, female respondents (32,5% and 30,2% respectively) are more convinced of the absence of these two features than the male respondents (28,5% and 26,2% respectively) – $p \geq .05$. In both cases, White respondents significantly outscored their Black counterparts ($p = .001$ and $p = .000$ respectively).

(b) Setting an example

Neatness (61,7%) has been 'voted' favourably for, with Black respondents (39,2%) outscoring the Whites (22,6%), $p=.000$, but honesty (56,1%) and police officer obedience to the laws of the country (72,2%) are rejected – $p\geq.05$.

(c) Deviancy-cluster

Apparently, the abuse of police power and authority (78,1%) is usually preceded by an arrogant attitude (72,9%), followed by aggressiveness (69,1%) and which eventually culminate in physical or verbal brutality (51,6%). As far as aggressiveness and police brutality is concerned, it appears that Black respondents overshadowed their White colleagues ($p=.005$). Corruptive behaviour (67,0%) is also suggested to be present among police officers (e.g. taking bribery money) - $p\geq.05$. However, Black respondents significantly outnumbered the Whites ($p=.014$).

(d) Organisational cluster

Three characteristics in this cluster are opposed by the research group. First, respondents agree (66,1%) that the police, apparently at functional level, lack the knowledge and insight to optimally fulfil their functional responsibilities. White respondents are significantly more concerned than Blacks regarding the level of knowledge among police officers ($p=.054$ – approaching significance). Second, discipline appears to be a concern among respondents (47,4%) and thirdly, data confirm that respect by the police for other people are not what it should be (64,3%).

The researcher is satisfied that the above-mentioned clusters representing arbitrarily selected police characteristics have succeeded in achieving this research aim.

5.6.6 Aim 6: To establish whether selected factors would improve the police image

Altogether eight factors have been listed in Table 4.3 which, to the knowledge of the researcher (as an erstwhile commissioned police officer and academic), could possibly improve the image of the SAPS. Organisationally, the following factors are supported by the respondents to improve the police image:

- Improved communication with the public (96,3%). Authors and researchers worldwide are in agreement that the regular attendance of Community Police Forums (CPFs), closer cooperation between the police and the public by means of the identification and solving of community crime concerns could be the most important enhancement of communication channels. White (49,1%), female (50,5%) respondents are more in favour of this factor compared to Black (47,2%), male 45,8%) respondents. The difference between White and Black respondents is significant ($p=.030$).
- Improved in-service training (95,3%) and academic training of police officers (95,3%) are favourably treated as important to most important – both $p\geq .05$.
- Diversified selection and employment of new recruits is rated fairly very high (90,4%)

Functionally, the following factors have been widely supported improvement as being important to most important image improvers:

- Functionally, respondents indicate that the enhancing the police role by means of improving police service delivery (97,2%) by implementing greater visibility in police uniform (94,9%) would be positive steps to also improve public trust in the police - $p\geq .05$.
- Equal treatment of all people when performing their official duties would be necessary to build and maintain pleasant working relationships between the police and the public (96,0), and with rectitude - $p\geq .05$.
- Lastly, diversified selection and employment of new staff has been rated fairly high by the respondents (90,4%) - $p\geq .05$. Aim 6 has thus also been achieved.

5.7 TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

In Chapter 3, paragraph 3.4, six hypotheses have been put forward for statistical testing. In the testing process, the *null hypothesis* (H_0) will be kept in mind as the point of departure (Hagan, 2000:381).

Null-Hypothesis 1: Like aim 1 (par. 5.6.1), this hypothesis consists of five elements.

(a) Existence of the SAPS in contemporary democratic society *is not a necessity*. The research hypothesis is accepted but the null hypothesis rejected because the data (Table 2.3) show that the respondents, both in terms of gender and culture group, are in favour of the necessity of an organised police system like the SAPS.

(b) Rendering a *social service* in society does not accord the SAPS the necessary *justification* for their existence. Data contained in Table 2.5 suggests that, actually a juridical orientation provides the justification for the existence of the police. Therefore, this element of the research hypothesis is rejected.

(c) The existence and presence of the police do not *pose a threat* to the individual freedom and privacy of the respondents. Table 2.8 reflects data showing that respondents actually recognise their responsibility to keep them safe and secure. The null hypothesis is therefore accepted.

(d) Respondents do *not have an obligation* to prevent or at least deter crime. Table 2.8 provides evidence indicating that the respondents indeed have an obligation to prevent crime by means of eliminating the opportunities for crime to be committed. The research hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

(e) Respondents are *not willing to assist* the police with their task of maintaining the peace and order in the country. Table 2.8 reveals the opposite: respondents favour the statement that they are willing to often and always assist the police. The Research hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

Null-Hypothesis 2: Day-to-day *selected police functions are not important* when necessary to meeting the respondents' expectations relating to the role of the police.

Table 2.10 reveals that the respondents regard all the short-term and long-term police functions as important to most important when it becomes necessary to satisfy the public expectations. On the short-term side, police patrolling public places and to be 'seen' in uniform by the public is their greatest sigh (or prayer). On the long-term side, it appears that the protection and guiding of the youth, is what the public hope the police would do (especially in light of the umpteenth time that another 4 year-old daughter has been raped and strangled to death in Gauteng – (Roestoff, 2013:1). The research hypothesis is, therefore, accepted in terms of all those functions 'favoured' by the respondents.

Null-Hypothesis 3: Judged from the way the police achieve the functions listed in Table 2.10, they are *not rated* inefficient to highly inefficient.

Table 2.13 provides a window-view on the rating of police efficiency judged on their achievement of the selected police functions. The research group believe the police are inefficient (54,5%). Further data analysis indicate that male respondents (28,5%) are slightly more negative towards police efficiency compared to the females (26,0%) - $p \geq .05$, consequently the null hypothesis is accepted.

Null-Hypothesis 4: There are *no specific reasons* why the respondents would not report crime to the police.

Several selected reasons are listed in Table 2.1, indicating why the respondents *would not want to report* crime to the police. Presumably, these reasons are of such a nature that they would in any event create cynical attitudes about the police among anybody who want to visit a police

station to make a First Information of Crime (FIC)-statement or report. Data show that respondents regard all those reasons listed in that table, except for two which refer to criminal courts, as valid aspects which could influenced the respondents' perceptions relating to *not reporting crime* to the police. The three most important reasons are: (a) the police portray negative attitudes when dealing with public complaints, (b) which cause them to adopt an apathetical attitude, and (c) it appears that police officers are in fact *inefficient* when it comes to solving criminal cases reported to them. The research hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

Null-Hypothesis 5: Selected police characteristics that come to the fore when police officers execute their official duties, *do not exert a negative influence* on their image.

In Table 4.2 several arbitrarily selected police characteristics are listed which usually come to the fore when police officers perform their official duties. Judging the statistical outcomes, it would appear that two features in the contact situation between the police and the public – friendliness and helpfulness - are not supported by the respondents. Setting an example with regard to their police officers' *honesty* and their *own obedience to the laws of the country* exert a negative influence on the relationships between the police and the public. These two features are not supported by the respondents. The static feature of neatness among police officers are supported by the respondents.

Viewing the deviancy-cluster, it would appear that all five *dishonest and violent charcateristics* are opposed or rejected by the repsondents because they exert a negative influence on the image of the police. Apart from *lack of knowledge and insight* among police officers which is vehemently rejected as being non-existent, the respondents also confirm the absence of *discipline* and showing *respect* to other people. With the exception of only one static characteristic (neatness), all the remaining characteristics are exerting a negative influence on the image of the police. The research hypothesis is, therefore, accepted.

Null-Hypothesis 6: Selected organisational and functional aspects *do not contribute to the improvement* of the police image.

Table 4.3 render proof of police characteristics representing two clusters: organisational and functional. *Organisationally*, the table show that: (a) improved communication with the public may be destined for a paradigm shift known as *community policing* that would mean closer cooperation between the police and the public as far as community crime problems are concerned, identifying community problems of a criminal nature and getting solutions by way of sustainable outcomes, e.g. patrolling and being visible in most public places. This would need improved in-service training and, as far as possible, much better diversified selection and employment of human capital. Finally, academic training of police officers (as was done from 1976 with the introduction of a B.A.(Police Science)-degree up to Honours, Masters and Doctor level by Professor Tjaart J, Van Heerden at the University of South Africa.

Functionally, improved service delivery and police visibility in the form of patrolling activities which could reassure members of the public of police availability, protection and support and, linked with the equal treatment of everybody, are characteristics calculated to improve the image of the police. The research hypothesis is subsequently accepted.

5.8 CONCLUSIONS

Considering the foregoing discussions of the achievement of the research aims and the testing of hypotheses, it transpires that the respondents are very critical of the police. The mere fact that they finger the police as being inefficient, dishonest and excessively reactive by means of projecting a *crime fighter image* (see Annexure 1 and Annexure 2), it stands to reason that public trust in and support for the police would fade away. Performing their role in a democratic fashion makes the police ‘managers’ of relationships with members of the public in society while simultaneously forging close partnerships which may be necessary to pave the way for the institution of a *community policing model*. Consequently, they should always strive to maintain a favourable image in the eyes of the public who are actually (or should be) their only ‘workable partners’. It follows that being too *reactive* by means of enforcing the laws instead of being also orientated towards deterring crime opportunities in proactive ways by being present and visible, is what is needed in South Africa.

When citizens' constitutional claims, the core principles of policing and legal sovereignty are ignored or violated in the policing process by means of a breach of police-public relationships resulting in differentiated police performance, or when police service delivery is not rendered according public expectations, then virtually no confidence in and respect for policing would be forthcoming. Such a *No-Confidence 'Vote' in the police by the respondents* (and the general public for that matter), could lead to an unfavourable external police image as well as a breach in the relationships between the two entities (Du Preez, 1991:93-94).

The present research, which is exploratory-descriptive in nature and extent, deals with the perceptions and opinions of a collective, non-probability sample (N=572) from three arbitrarily selected provinces of South Africa: Western Cape, Limpopo and KwaZulu-Natal. The following *caveat* applies: whether a collective sample from three other provinces would generate the same results relating to the perceptions/opinions of the police image remains an open question and could only be established through further research. Being a non-parametric study, readers are warned not to generalise the results of this study to the general public in South Africa. The findings obtained from the data of the present study do, however, 'tell a story' that cannot be ignored right out of hand.

5.9 RECOMMENDATIONS

It sounds like an unfathomable task to provide 'answers' to all the important aspects inextricably interwoven or linked with all the aspects of the external image of the police; especially so because the present study deals with the perceptions of a *collective sample* obtained from only three of the nine provinces of South Africa. Recommendations put forward should, under no circumstances, be viewed as prescriptive or generalised as being applicable to the country as a whole.

5.9.1 Primary (proactive) aim of policing

The primary aim of policing revolves around a *proactive policing philosophy* in which the elimination of crime precipitants becomes the primary task, irrespective of what the police are doing, as long as they are eliminating opportunities propitious to crime commission. Any task undertaken by the police that deviate from the deterrence of crime is *reactive* and should be seen as the secondary aim of policing. Van Heerden (1982:45) puts it that proactive policing is actually nothing else than *persuasive control* which has a positive significance, for it implies support and rendering assistance within the scope of public safety. Such an approach can transform the image of the police from being arch-enemies (which tend to derive from the *reactive role* of the police), to one of friendly protectors.

Judging the mass media onslaught against the police firstly, by reporting day-to-day serious crimes occurring in the country (especially family murders) and secondly, unveiling police own involvement in serious crimes such as: murder, attempted murder, assault with intent to do grievous bodily harm, armed robbery, active and passive bribery as well as other forms of corruption, etc., it is recommended that the police, to a large extent, move away from a *reactive posture* by transforming themselves into a democratic policing model which strives towards achieving proactive role outcomes.

5.9.2 From traditional to democratic policing: a need for change

The massacre (killing) of 34 striking mine workers at the Lonmin Mine at Marikana, North-West Province on 16 August 2012 (cf. Alexander et al, 2012), by police officers conveys, among other, one very important socio-political message: those police officers have apparently not transformed themselves from authoritarian-type policing to democratic policing! Is this not perhaps what could be said about the SAPS in general? The carrying of weapons by police officers and the projection of a *crime fighter image* clearly confirm they have not yet been declared peace with the public or at least certain segments of the public. The situation regarding policing in South Africa still reflects a typical ‘cowboy-and-crooks’ syndrome. Wiatrowski (2004:2) clearly states that the most important aspect emanating from democratic-type policing is the importance of understanding the activities of the police in an emergent democracy, like that of South Africa. This author suggests that the purpose of a democratic society is to maximise the

freedom of people who created that form of government. While there is an assumption of majority rule in democratic societies, *there is also a framework which protects the rights of the individual (minorities)*, usually defined in terms of *human rights*. The police role can have a peculiar (make or break) effect on those rights. It is, therefore, recommended that police officers be subjected to an intensive training course through which they could become aware of the true meaning of *democracy* and the *role of policing*, especially when performing their functions discussed in this research report.

5.9.3 Improved police service: a case of police transformation

Although community policing has been introduced in South Africa in 1995 after having been added to the new South African Police Service Act (No 68 of 1995), there still appears to be quite some isolation of the police from the public: it is either the police who do not want to work together with the public or *vice versa*. It also appears that community policing is more attuned to promoting freedom because it is inherently more democratic, entails more interaction with community members.

To Lyman (1999:472), community policing goes one step beyond the police problem-solving philosophy so diligently supported by Herman Goldstein (cf. 1990), in that it constructs a partnership between the community and the police. This approach causes the police to be more *decentralised* in terms of *function* as in the past and being more *open* to establishing *interpersonal relationships* between virtually all segments of society. This kind approach acknowledges that the police are *social service agents* as well as law enforcers, in other words, there is space for both proactive and reactive policing. Opening up relationships of this kind contributes towards interacting more frequently with social service organisations, viz, Business Against Crime (BAC), Rape Crisis Centers, victim shelters, group homes for the homeless, drug and alcohol rehabilitation centers, juvenile delinquents cared for by NICRO, etc.

It is recommended that the traditional (reactive) form of policing currently practiced in South Africa (although members of government are made to believe that the SAPS are practicing democratic policing) be partially replaced by full-scale *community policing*. Too many lives and

too much blood have been lost since 1994 during police clashes with hardened criminals like armed robbers, etc. Community policing should be made to work according original prescriptions. In this regard, station commissioners should play a major role. Members of the community should be continually motivated to attend Community Police Forums (CPFs) in greater numbers. It is further recommended that, for this purpose, the SAPS should remain a *police service* after it was changed by Mr. Jacob Zuma to a *police force* on 1 April 2010. The reason(s) for having reverted back to *police force*, similar to what had been practiced during the previous (apartheid)-era, is unknown. If it was done to draw public attention, or to strengthen the ‘crime fighting image’ of the police in the face of an increase in the crime rate after 1994, or simply as a method of showing-off, also remain unknown.

5.9.4 Further research

The following *caveat* should be considered: the present study is only an exploratory-descriptive study of the perceptions of the image of the police from the viewpoint of a collective group of respondents (N=572). It is recommended that further research on macro level be undertaken that will include all nine provinces of South Africa, to gain a more complete public image of the police.

5.10 SUMMARY

The image of the external image of the SAPS, documented in this research report cannot be ignored. Specific shortcomings that have been identified should be noted, as it could have far-reaching consequences for policing *per se* and the maintenance of freedom, peace and order in society.

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