

Protective Services and Crime Control in the University Community: A Study of the University of Zululand Protective Services Unit

by

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the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in the
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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late parents, Phahlane and Sisi, my loving wife Phumelele, my son Andile and my two daughters Nomfundo and Nqobile.

DECLARATION

I, Nono Godfrey Tshabalala, do hereby declare that this dissertation represents my own work in conception and execution, and that all sources I have used or quoted, have been indicated and acknowledged by means of direct and indirect reference.

Signature

NG Tshabalala

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the role played by the Protective Services Unit in controlling crime in the community of the University of Zululand.

In assessing the major impact of crime as a form of deviance in the university community, the theories of Emile Durkheim, Karl Marx, Robert Merton and Llyod Ohlin had a tremendous influence in this study. Other sociological theories used are also considered as contributory to this research.

For purpose of collecting data, survey questionnaires were administered to solicit information from 110 respondents, which included students, administrative staff, academics and general workers.

To put the role of the protective services unit and crime control in the university community into context, chapter three of this research contains the hierarchical structure of the protective services department, the mission statement of the protective services, and some of the policies and procedures of the protective services department.

The hypothesis that were formulated for statistical testing revealed that lack of co-operation from members of the university community, hinders the role of the protective services in controlling crime. The findings of this research also revealed that lack of paramilitary training among the protective services

officials results in their inability to control crime effectively. It was also found in this research that lack of legal knowledge among members of the protective services department hinders their performance on crime control. Furthermore, this research showed that the present structure of the protective services unit has an effect on the worker's performance.

In the light of the findings of this study, the following recommendations were made: The establishment of a university task team that would review strategies for effective crime prevention on campus. Secondly, the established task team could also explore the feasibility of developing resources to assist those who have been victims of crime. Thirdly, it could also be appropriate for the task team to review the physical environment of the whole campus. The establishment of a protection brochure for students and staff members of the University of Zululand could also be considered. The present Government of South Africa could also consider the establishment of a Campus Security Act. Lastly, another step might involve establishing a paid student dorm patrol.

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Social life involves a continuous standoff between those forces which operate to maintain the social order and those which operate to produce disorder and change. In a real sense, we live in the midst of a constant struggle between mechanisms of social control and social tendencies for deviance, conflict, and dissent. Without social order, interaction would be meaningless. Societies seek to ensure that their members conform with basic norms by means of social control, at both informal and formal levels. According to Bordner and Petersen (1983:1), the police are perhaps the most visible and active institution of formal social control in modern society. Throughout the past decades, increasing urbanization and heterogeneity have contributed to significant increases in the crime rates and thrust the police into the centre of the public arena where their vital significance and importance cannot be ignored. The protective services officer at university for example, serves a community which is demographically different from the general populace served by other law enforcement institutions. The protective services officer functions in a highly structured environment, which brings together people to work or study in a geographically limited area. In their daily work, the protective services officers are confronted with educated and professional people not law violators.

Both the nature of the academic environment and clientele served by the protective services officers, call for a non-repressive approach which includes commonsense, circumspection, gentleness, compassion, and understanding. The emphasis not being on strict, reactive policing measures, but on prevention of crime and rendering of a service. According to Fadenrecht (1990:28), the extent to which some of these obligations are met depends, therefore on the attitudes of the protective services officers towards those individuals and groups

with whom they interact at a personal level and on a daily basis.

1.2 THE ORIGIN OF SOCIAL CONTROL: EARLY SCHOLARLY THOUGHTS

Presociology

Two philosophers are usually credited with laying down the base for a science of human society: Plato (427-347 BC) and Aristotle (384-322 BC). Plato's Republic described an ideal society in which the separate elements, such as the economy and family, operated in relation to the greater unity of the whole. As was the case in Greek society of the day, social inequality was striking, but Plato conceived of the rules as wise legislators whose thoughtful decision making produced social order. Aristotle's Poetics recognized the presence of types of government (tyranny, oligarchy, democracy), as well as a variety of social classes. Aristotle rejected Plato's model of society as an organism, and replaced it with that of a complex, differentiated structure in which the separate parts maintained their independence while contributing to the whole. Also, Aristotle saw social order as emerging from human nature, the species' inherent sociability.

The Greek view was not challenged until the sixteenth century. Thomas Hobbes (1588-1679), writing during a time of major cultural upheaval, argued that the natural state of humanity was egoism and warfare. He concluded that social order was possible only by individuals contracting to give up certain rights in exchange for a guarantee of harmony through the state and its legal exercise. Hobbes' critic, John Locke (1632-1704), responded that human nature was indeed peaceable. He said social conflict was rather the result of private property and growing social inequality. Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) extended Locke's discussion by contrasting what he saw to be the innocent early state of humanity with the corrupt model of his day (Davis & Stasz, 1990:28-31).

Thus, the earliest presociological writers raised issues that would be developed by their more systematic theoretical descendants: social conflict, inequality, the rise of a division of labour, and private property. They saw how society was subdivided into separate parts or institutions of considerable independence and identity. For example, small tribes once provided worship, intimacy, and subsistence needs. With societal development, distinct religious, familial, and economic institutions arose to meet such needs.

During the nineteenth century, two of the first positivist sociologists, Karl Marx and Emile Durkheim began the systematic investigation of social order, and social control. Marx was intrigued by social order, which he saw as inherent in industrial capitalist societies. Durkheim looked more at the sources of order, along with the effects of low social integration upon individual members of society.

Karl Marx (1818-1883)

Marx's line of thought is today known as the conflict perspective, for it is premised on the belief that all history is the expression of a struggle between social classes. Marx asserted that capitalism degraded all areas of social life, including law, religion, politics, patriotism, even family life and sex. He believed that all social institutions reflect capitalism's indifference to human need, as shown in the organization of work. Marx said employers commodified labour, that is, treated workers like objects or robots not humans. Hence the dominance of commercialism, human exploitation, and financial greed play key roles in creating and perpetuating deviance and social problems.

Marx saw crime and criminal law as complementary aspects of the class structure. He thus anticipated later theories of crime that place attention on its functions or needs that it meets for society, including its capacity to stabilize capitalism. For example, crime divides the working class (the poor rob the poor)

and requires citizens to turn to the state for protection (Greenberg, 1981:40).

Marx looked to working conditions as the ultimate source of deviance. Capitalism's commodification of labour alienated people, isolated them from their work, from others, and even themselves. He stressed that the condition of alienation, total negativity, self-estrangement, and indifference to others, was the fate of all workers, for as long as their employers forced them to adjust their life rhythms to the machine. Marx also argued that crime and deviance were not normal human enterprises. He said that they were symptoms of alienation and loss of personal controls. Policing and crime preventions were cynical enterprises which operated primarily to provide jobs for a selected few. At the same time, policing repressed the under classes, making them less fit for the collective task of social change (Davis & Stasz, 1990:30).

Lastly, in Marx's scheme, therefore, crime and deviance are abnormal social states because workers develop false consciousness. Workers identify themselves with the false ideology of material success and ignore the fact of their ruthless and pervasive control by the propertied class. Workers do not see the unlikelihood of joining what is today called the "rich and famous". They do not understand how the life style of the "rich and famous", however attractive on the surface, drains the society of needed resources.

A full understanding of Karl Marx's work revealed that Marx regarded an institution like the protective services as a tool used by the capitalist to maintain their *status quo*. It is used by the privileged class. Therefore, in the Marxian perspective, the protective services cannot be used to protect the interest of the students and the workers in the university community.

Of course, we have often seen the management of our universities in South Africa using the protective services to control the students and the workers when they

oppose management decisions. Thus protecting the interest of the management of the university rather than protecting the interest of the students and the workers. The question we may ask at this juncture is: Is the protective services in our universities really protecting the interest of members of the university community? or, is it protecting only a section of the interest of the university - the management? The answer to the above question will be fully answered in our chapter on data analysis.

Although Max Weber did not have a specific theory on social control, his analysis on the theory of bureaucracy would support the use of protective services as an institution that can be used by the administration in achieving efficiency and as a means of achieving peace within the organisation. Is the protective services really capable of achieving the above roles? This will be investigated and discussed in our chapter on data analysis.

Emile Durkheim (1858-1917)

Durkheim's initial interest in deviant or criminal behaviour is to be found in the Division of Labour down through his classic account of social pathology in the Rules of Sociological Method, and perhaps above all, his remarkable account of the social basis of the incidence of suicide - an account that proved flexible enough for others to extend it to the incidence of other types of deviant behaviour (Nisbet, 1974:210).

Like Marx, Durkheim was fascinated with the change in society brought about by industrialization. He began by noting how preindustrial societies (small-scale hunting and gathering or horticultural groups) reproduce social order through a simple division of labour (specialization of jobs) and a rigid system of control. Few occupational choices exist for members, along with little variation in life styles from one generation to another. In preindustrial societies, all adults share

in maintaining the moral rules and punishing the rule breakers. In this structure, innovation and individualism must be sacrificed for stability and integration. Thus, the moral nets may be repressive as well as life supporting.

Enter industrialization and the moral world changes. Mechanization and increases in land values throw inefficient producers out of agriculture. Urban centres created factory jobs, which attracted both the landless peasant and the formerly independent craft worker; both now stripped of autonomy in the new industrial order. Growth in population and wealth also stimulated a complex economic structure of banking, investments, and international commerce. This new order required an elaborate social organization. It is on the one hand characterized by a more highly skilled, but factory-dependent working force. On the other hand, it is characterized by highly educated, career-oriented and a professional hierarchy of supervisors and managers. The competition for good jobs, those that pay well and require technical and personal skills, are intense. While high division of labour appears efficient and integrative, Durkheim believed that in industrial capitalist societies it had evolved into a pathological form that has the negative and opposite effect.

Once integrated into society through tradition, social co-operation, and group solidarity, the industrial worker now more often encounters impersonal relations, harsh competition, and the absence of clear moral guides (partly because religion has lost its force). According to Durkheim, such a change in the nature of social organization gives rise to anomie, or feelings of anxiety, confusion, and moral emptiness. When people work in jobs so specialized, they fail to understand what their co-workers do, and eventually have trouble in reaching agreements about everyday matters (Davis & Stasz, 1990:28-31).

Durkheim also used law and order as indicators of the social organization and culture in a society. He disputed the notion of there being absolute moral

principle, that is, crimes that are universal to all humanity. On the contrary, he asserted "an act is criminal when it offends strong and defined states of the collective conscience" (Durkheim, 1947:81).

Durkheim noted that punishment in modern society is graded by the gravity of the offence and the extent to which it offends the collective conscience. The role of punishment in reform or deterrence is little considered. Furthermore, society severely punishes crimes that strike at the dignity of the state and its representatives even when public opinion is more lenient.

Like Marx, Durkheim wanted to remove the inequalities in society that produced a forced division of labour. He favoured a meritocracy, where people advanced based on merit, taking into account inherent differences in talent and preferences. The lower classes, unhappy with being denied opportunities, would rise under such a system of equal opportunity. Consequently, the task of most advanced societies, is then, a work of justice (Durkheim, 1947:387). This outcome would require the elimination of inherent wealth, as well as more egalitarian relations between sexes.

Nevertheless, while Durkheim believed wise leaders could guide society toward a more fair social order, he did not believe deviance would disappear. His analysis of crime (1938) led him to conclude that it must be functional or useful to society, else it would not persist. In his analysis of the roots of deviance, Durkheim states that: crime is necessary, it is bound up with the fundamental conditions of all social life, and by that very fact it is useful, because these conditions of which it is a part are themselves indispensable to the normal evolution of morality and law (Nisbet, 1974:218).

Durkheim has shown clearly how the evolution of the industrial era created a problem of social order and how this eventually led to the division of labour in

our society and the increase in the rates of suicide as individuals could not meet up with the societal demands.

In the same vein, we shall investigate in this research, if the new dispensation in South Africa, like the transformation process, democracy, the implementation of the Bill of Rights; and the sudden social changes since 1994 in South Africa have contributed to the increase in crime rates in our university campus.

Durkheim is of the view that changes in a society create problems of social order. The effects of transition from apartheid to democracy on crime rates in our university campus; will be discussed in our chapter on data analysis.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

College campuses were for many years viewed as idyllic environments, somehow magically separated from the crime problems that increasingly plagued the communities in which they were located. But evidence makes clear that the notion of the campus as a crime-free oasis is a myth; not only does crime affect colleagues; in some respects universities have become fertile ground of criminal behaviour (Student Press Law Centre, 1997:3).

Crime remains an indisputable fact of life for many, if not most, members of society. Crime has progressively increased over the past few years. Law-abiding citizens turn to society for help in alleviating victimization suffered by crime victims. Society, in turn, has established the criminal justice system with its three inter-related components (police, courts and correctional services) to prevent crime.

The increase in the number of reported crimes committed at the University of Zululand is causing great concern.

According to the statistics obtained from the Protective Services Department at the University of Zululand, for example, in 1997, the number of crimes reported to the Protective Services Department stood at 236. In 1998, the number of crimes reported dropped slightly to 221. In 1999, the figure rose to 250, a significant increase by any standards. Of great concern is the fact that there seems to be an increase in the number of serious crimes committed on campus of the University of Zululand.

Crime trends at the University of Zululand 1997-1999

Year	Number of Crimes	Percentage (%)
1997	236	33.4
1998	221	31.2
1999	250	35.4
Total	707	100

Source: University of Zululand Protective Services Department

The above table shows the rate of crime at the University of Zululand. The distribution of the various types of crime will be fully explained in the data analysis phase of this research.

With a department operating under such a complex community and in terms of the heterogeneous nature of the university population, the present research effort is aimed primarily at obtaining information about the general perceptions of the university community towards the Protective Services Department.

1.4 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

Until recently, crime committed on University campuses received very little systematic investigation. Campuses in the past have not been "crime free". The

increasing seriousness of campus crime has had an increased level of attention from a variety of sources concerned with crime. Border and Peterson (1983:38) acknowledged that “the University is like a city as far as crime is concerned”. In a study conducted by LM Nene and BR Qwabe on “the attitudes of senior students of the University of Zululand towards the Protective Services Department”, in 1997, the study draws the following conclusions and recommendations.

- (a) The student's attitudes are a major concern, because they are negative towards the Protective Services Department.
- (b) Male and female students did not differ significantly in their attitudes towards the Protective Services Department.
- (c) There is a need for members of the Protective Services Department to change their attitudes towards students and also create a friendly environment for the community it serves.
- (d) Lastly, the Protective Services should create close communication links with the University community.

Unfortunately, the study conducted by Nene and Qwabe (1997), is flawed. When conducting their study, Nene and Qwabe confined their research to senior students only and excluded the other units of the University community.

In effect, Nene and Qwabe generalized their findings to the entire student body when in actual fact the number of students studied did not reflect the total population of the University community.

Finally, it should be noted that Nene and Qwabe never stated in their research why they excluded the other units of the University community.

In terms of the heterogeneous nature of the University community, an attempt will

be made in this research to investigate how the Protective Services Department maintain itself, and control the other units of the University for continuity and maintenance of social order.

The present research will also focus on the Protective Services and crime control, which is presently of great concern to the University community. This research will include the following sections of the University, management, academics, human resources, students, lecturers, maintenance, transport and protective services.

1.5 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The study to be undertaken is regarded as necessary to our understanding of the role of Protective Services Department and crime control at the University of Zululand.

The following served as the motivation for the undertaking of the present research:

- Firstly, by the statistics obtained from the Protective Services Department showing the various types of crimes taking place at the University of Zululand since 1997 - 1999.
- Secondly, by the Dome Newsletter of the University of Natal (November 6, 2000) in the following article written by Mbuso Ngcongco. His article is entitled: "Is crime taking over our campus?".

Crime on campus is on the increase. One of the recent incidents occurred at the Albert Luthuli Residence. Five students robbed a delivery person from Debonairs Pizzas, when she delivered an order to this residence. The same

incident recurred at Florence Powel Residence. This company is popular for “delivering in style”, however, the students at this University will have to suffer because in future no deliveries will be taken into any of the University’s Residences.

The manager of this store, Natalie Solomon, said “when the delivery was made to the Residence, students switched off the room lights and threatened the employee. About one thousand rands were lost in this incident in the form of cash and property”.

There are also other types of criminal activities that are taking place on this campus. Amongst others, are incidences where vehicles are broken into. A reputable mathematics professor had her vehicle broken into, whilst she went to withdraw money in the campus’ teller machine. Jumping cables were stolen from the car. This incident took place in broad daylight in a public area, near the main library. Furthermore, it was witnessed by students who refused to comment as they typically ‘feared for their lives.’

The victim, Professor Swart said “although the jumping cables are such a minor thing, they can be a matter of life and death in some instances. Particularly when you need them and you think you have them.” The Professor further said that she liked those cables because they had been bought recently for her vehicle.

Incidents of cellphone snatching are still problematic. According to the campus’ investigating officer Steve Crouch ‘thieves are operating on campus’. The officer warned those who use cellphones “not to flaunt them around.” In most cases the phones are snatched either while the owner is using them or immediately thereafter.

According to the officer, anyone who has had a cellphone snatched must immediately contact the SAPS. In addition, the victim must request the service provider to deactivate the sim card, and also to blacklist the phone by cancelling the IMEI number. This will result in the cellphone becoming useless to the senseless criminal.

Theft from student rooms in residences appears to have declined, according to the investigating officer. However, he advised students who have valuable property in their rooms to "lock it up in their rooms or to purchase locking cables to prevent the thieves from merely entering the room and removing the property."

On the other end, the staff is by no means left out in the crime game on campus. The recent investigations revealed that certain exam papers were available prior to exams being written. The exam papers were being sold for amounts between R3 000.00 and R4 000.00. However, by the time of the exams the University was aware of most of the papers that had leaked. "In most cases, exam papers were substituted before exams were written," according to the investing officer.

Some individuals have been identified as either being directly involved in buying or distribution of the exam papers. Consequently, two staff members were dismissed following disciplinary action. This type of offence is being viewed in an extremely serious manner, by the University.

It is also becoming apparent that the security guards are doing well on their job in this campus. This follows several successes, such as in the Rick Turner's "Student Union Building." In this building, during winter vacations, security guards arrested four non-students who were affiliated to DYR, Durban Youth

Radio, when they were found in possession of stolen equipment. The equipment is valued at R5 000.00, and belongs to DYR broadcasting studios.

The computers are not being left out (or in), two complete sets of computers evaporated in a storeroom at the Centenary Building. At the Biology Lan, situated in George Campbell Building, another two monitors went missing, in addition to the two printers who have been stolen from the Economics History Departments.

The above incidences are probably connected; the matters are being seriously investigated.

Some students have been arrested in Florence Powel residence after being found in possession of a stolen laptop computer. The computer had been stolen from a house in Durban's Berea. Furthermore, an alleged cellphone theft gang was arrested in Princess Alice Avenue, after investigations conducted by RMS. Although three of the gang members were released, the fourth suspect - who is well known to the students in the residences - is still in custody and faces two charges: armed robbery and possession of an unlicensed firearm. Some incidents of assault have also been reported. It is observed that most of these incidences occurred in the parties or 'bashes'. Some of these assaults have resulted in students being seriously injured and a number of cases have been forwarded to the Proctors Office for disciplinary action.

In a separate circumstance, some individuals are reportedly performing live sex shows, during lecture periods, in public places, such as parks. The investigating officer cautioned the students that this is public indecency, which is also an offence.

Although some places may seem remote, quite and ideal, the officer warned that these lovers are making themselves vulnerable to various elements such as robbery and rape.

The businesses operating on campus had mixed responses on the issue of security Guards. According to Shaun Cassim from Adams Bookshop, "Guards are fairly lazy". However, Shaun said that the Businesses operating on Campus are fairly secure. Moreover, he would like a situation where cars are being searched as they enter and leave the premises. "UDW does it, so why don't we also do it? Another thing: I would like all the students and the staff to wear their respective cards, because you don't know who's who, and what's what", says Shaun Cassim.

However, the Debonairs pizza is not convinced, and argues that they have only been operating for a few months and their deliveries have been robbed twice on this campus. To this end, the investigating officer Steve Crouch was optimistic that the situation is under control. He said that according to the statistics, the crime problem was being circumvented.

The third most popular item appears to be the introduction of a movie theatre. 55.9% of students rating this at the extreme end of the scale. Let us know what you think, share your opinions with others on how to combat crime.

Crime statistics

- When it came to security on campus 74% of the females thought that putting up lights on the way to engineering and science would improve their social life, while the second most popular option among females

was to increase the number of patrols after 5pm, 6% giving ascent to this.

- Males on the other hand rated this most highly, 95% marking this option. The second most popular option among males was to improve the attitude of security guards on campus. The least popular option among males was to give security stun guns (26%), while females didn't think to much of this idea either, relative to other options (39%) (Dome News, November 6, 2000).

1.6 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aims of this research are as follows:

- (a) To examine the principal role(s) of the University of Zululand Protective Services Department in controlling crime.
- (b) To investigate the effectiveness of the Protective Services Department in controlling crime in the University of Zululand campus.
- (c) To determine the factors that may hinder the Protective Services Department of the University of Zululand in performing its duties effectively.
- (d) To determine the hierarchical structure of the Protective Services Department in relation to the organizational structure of the University.
- (e) To find out how the Protective Services Department handles criminal cases in terms of substantive and procedural issues.

1.7 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

The University of Zululand was established on 1st August 1959 in terms of the extension of the Education Act number of 1959. In 1960 the University

College of Zululand was established as a constituent college academically affiliated to the University of South Africa, one of the largest distance learning institutions in the world. Since then, the institution has dramatically evolved from the so-called "bush college" to a fully-fledged university. In 1970, full University status was granted to the University College of Zululand.

The University of Zululand was established for Zulu-speaking African people. Like all other historically Black Universities, the apartheid government decided that the University of Zululand be established in a rural area at a place called Ongoye. Ongoye is at a distance away from the urban areas. Ongoye is unique in many ways in the history of the Zulu's in particular and of South Africa generally. The Ongoye mountain range boasts 80 different species of indigenous trees, which are not found in any other country. His Majesty King Shaka's medicine men got the bark for different medical mixtures from these trees. On the same mountain range were found four unique cycads that are not replicated anywhere else (Graduation Address by His Majesty King Goodwill Zwelithini: University of Zululand Looks to the Future: 25 June 1994).

Looking back now, that perceived lack of wisdom by the government of the day has turned out to be a blessing in disguise. Not only did the infant survive, but slowly and with determination grew to maturity where it proudly stands at the centre of the biggest industrial growth point in South Africa-Richards Bay harbour, the world's largest coal export facility and home to an ever increasing number of major industrial developments, including the largest aluminium smelter ever to be built in South Africa (Dlamini, 1996).

The establishment of other Universities was also ethnically based. For example, the University of the North was established for Venda's, Sotho's and Tsonga's. The Western Cape University was established for Coloureds,

Durban Westville was for Indians, Fort Hare and Unitra University was restricted to Xhosa speaking Africans.

The Jackson Commission, set up in 1975 by the then Minister of Education, envisioned the gradual admission of white students at graduate level in African Universities. The commission suggested that this be reciprocated by other institutions specialising in academic areas that would draw all racial groups (Nkomo, 1988:257).

In 1963 at the first graduation ceremony, nine students were presented. What a joy it is today.

In 1970 full University status was granted to the University College of Zululand. In 1986 the University of Zululand officially rejects apartheid and opens its doors for all. It started to admit students from other black tribal groupings with the addition of Whites, Asians and Coloureds.

On 25 June 1994, history was made when an Honorary Degree was conferred on His Majesty King Goodwill Zwelithini at a ceremony presided over by Chancellor The Honourable Dr MG Buthelezi and attended by former President Nelson Mandela.

In 1999, an Honorary Doctorate was conferred upon former state President, Rolihlahla Nelson Mandela (University of Zululand Facts, 1999:2).

The University of Zululand is the only tertiary institution in the northern part of KwaZulu-Natal Province. The nearest other tertiary institution is the University of Natal and Durban-Westville which are about 160km away south of the University of Zululand.

The University of Zululand has both an urban and rural focus. The extramural division in Umlazi (Durban) was established as an urban campus in 1979. It was officially opened in 1983. The Umlazi campus is 18km from Durban, the largest industrial and commercial centre in KwaZulu-Natal and home to Africa's largest harbour.

The University of Zululand's main campus is about 150km away from the Umlazi campus. The University of Zululand's main campus offers a complete range of study namely, the BSc, BA, Hons, MSc, MA and PhD levels to nearly 3 000 students. In addition to degree studies in law, commerce, engineering, computer science, teaching, and nursing, the University also maintains a degree-granting agricultural program.

Degrees are offered in 58 academic areas in six faculties. This main campus accommodates a full-time student body of about 6 000 students. Additional 600 part-time students are enrolled in various educational extension programs in the evening.

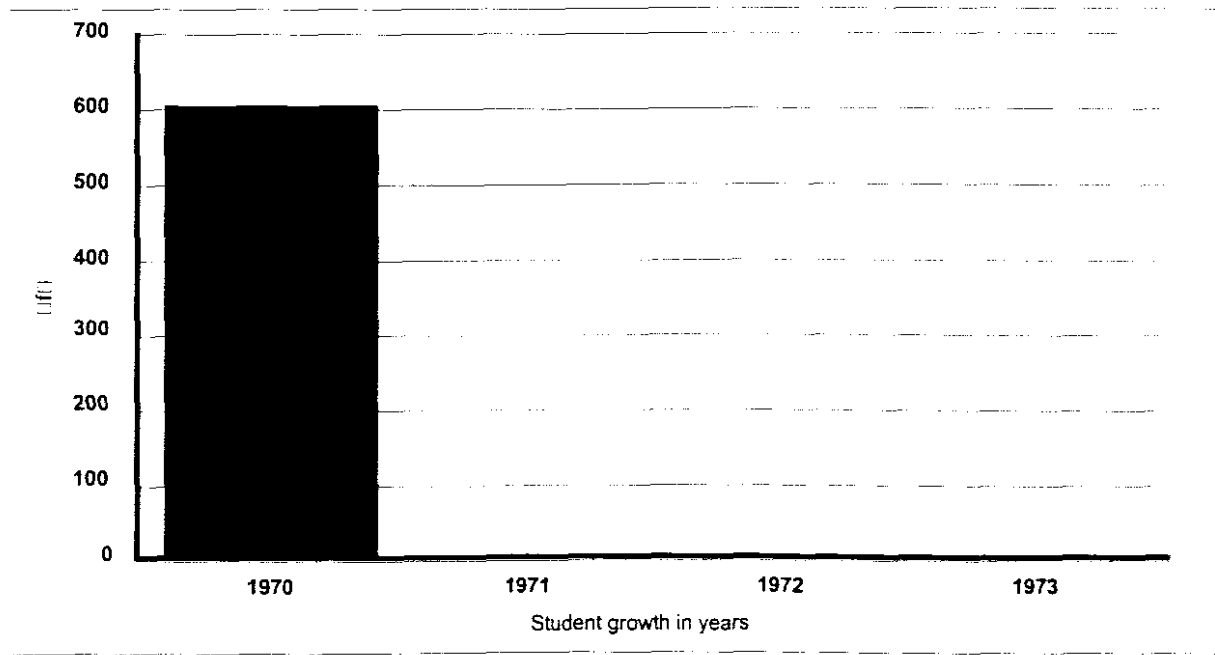
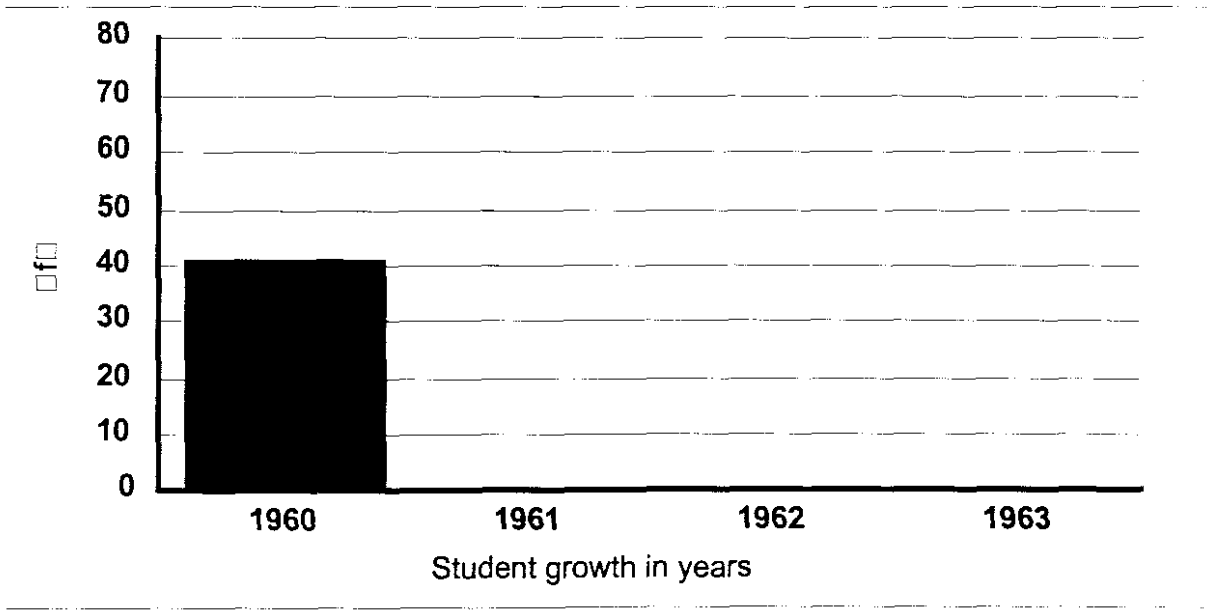
The University of Zululand Umlazi campus in Durban offers courses in the faculties of Arts, Education, Commerce and Administration.

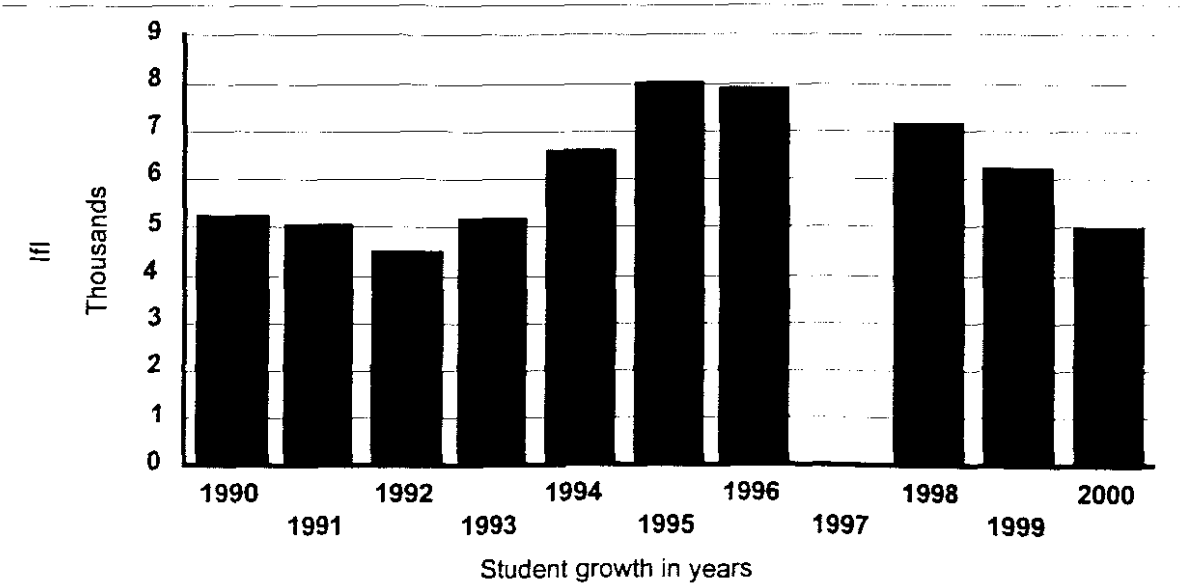
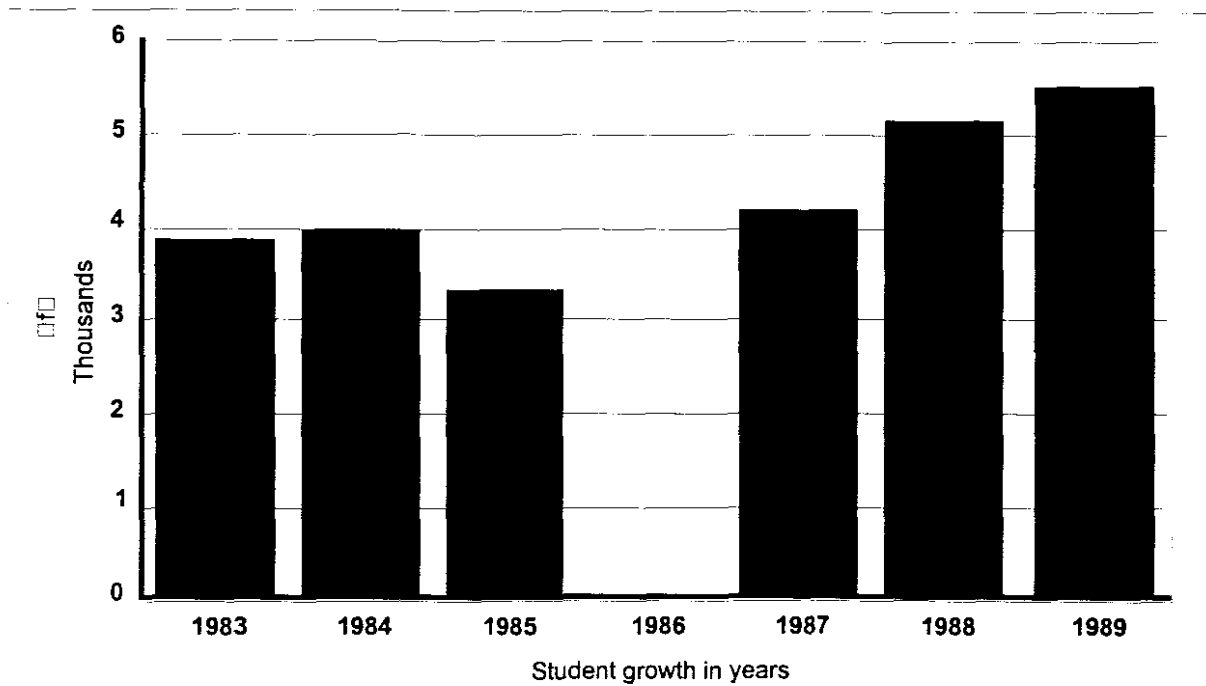
Both campuses use English as the language of instruction. The University derives its funds from four major sources: the State, investments, students, and donars. Staff is about 1 000 in total.

Student growth: 1960-41; 1970-605; 1983-3 865; 1984-4 000; 1985-3 333; 1987-4 231; 1988-5 150; 1989-5 539; 1990-5 243; 1991-5 069; 1992-4 501; 1993-5 194; 1994-6 608; 1995-8 026; 1996-7 952; 1998-7 181; 1999-6 279; 2000-5 022 (University of Zululand Facts, 2000:3).

Student growth:

The following bar graphs show student growth at the University of Zululand from 1960 - 2000.





The above simple bar graphs show that as the number of students increase from 1995 to 1998; the number of crimes also increase as shown on the table on crime distribution. Thus, the number of protective staff members was also increased by the university. There is a linear relationship between student enrolment, the rate of crime; and the numerical strength of the protective staff members of the university. The sociological inference we can draw from the above relationship is that the more student enrolment, the higher the rate of crime on campus; and the higher the need to increase the staff strength of the protective services.

Furthermore, it can also be argued here that the transition period from apartheid to democracy, where individual rights and freedom have increased; could also contribute to increase in the rate of crime. With the new dispensation, the student population and the members of the community at large; are now very conscious of their rights, and an attempt to claim these rights, is bound to come into conflict with the university authority.

CHAPTER TWO

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the theoretical issues that are relevant to this research. In the same vein, an attempt will be made to review past studies on campus crime at both international and national levels. There are several major theories suggesting the causes of deviant behaviour and social control.

Theories suggest that antisocial behaviours are within the individual and is a matter of “free will”, onto theories indicating biological factors. Other theories suggest that antisocial and criminal behaviour may be caused by the person’s immediate environment.

The Italian criminologist Cesare Lombroso (1876), for example, while serving as an army doctor, Lombroso thought he noticed that recalcitrant offender-soldiers, differed from the disciplined troops by the greater prevalence and indecency of their tattoos. Later he employed experimental methods in studying insane patients. He compared the insane patients with convicted criminals and those two in turn with normal persons. He measured their skulls and their sensitivity to touch. Once, while performing a postmortem examination of a notorious bandit, Lombroso found a distinct depression at the rear of the skull, in the opening in which the spine and skull are connected. Earlier he had found a similar depression in animals. From that, Lombroso concluded that a criminal is an atavistic being, a kind of throwback to an earlier evolutionary stage, possessing the ferocious instincts of primitive humans. The physical stigma of atavism, Lombroso believed, were a low forehead, a receding chin,

ears standing out from the head, too many fingers, unusual wrinkling of the skin, a typical head size or shape, and eye peculiarities.

In response to criticism, Lombroso eventually revised his “atavistic” theory. In his last book he conceded that there were environmental factors at work and listed a host of them from climate to religion. Retaining his original view that the “born criminal” and “insane criminal” are major types, he added a third category the “criminaloid”, who engages in vicious criminal behaviour though he is born with neither physical stigmata nor mental aberrations. The “born criminal”, he believed, comprised about a third of all criminals. Those he explained as a reversion to an earlier evolutionary stage. As for the “insane criminal” that was a mixed category of offenders suffering from paralysis, dementia, pellagra, alcoholism, epilepsy, idiocy and hysteria, all of which Lombroso regarded as causes of crime.

Today there is scarcely a criminologist who continues to subscribe to Lombrosian views. Indeed, few criminologists take seriously any theory that attempts to explain crime in terms of the alleged “organic inferiority” or “degeneracy” of criminals. Even the most sophisticated studies purporting to demonstrate the physiological basis of criminality is methodologically defective and lacking in scientific validity. It is now increasingly recognized that early criminologists were deceived. They took the unattractive appearance of prisoners as a sign of their mental deficiency. “Abnormality” was reflected in their shaved heads, ungainly uniforms, and bitter facial expressions in reaction to harsh discipline (Zeitlin, 1997:346-347).

Sociological explanations of antisocial behaviour came rather late to an already crowded arena of alternative explanations. Against such interpretations of the causes of deviance, sociologists have adhered fairly consistently to a major sociological principle: the insistence that deviant

behaviour is an inherently social act and, following Durkheim, that social facts of any kind should be explained by other social facts and not by psychological, biological, or any other nonsocial facts (Emile Durkheim, 1983:29).

The sociologist had, in other words, approached the problem of explaining deviance by studying the correlation of rates of deviance with variations in conditions of social organization. Beyond this simple but fundamental agreement to explain deviance in terms of variations in social conditions, we find different approaches to the explanation of the different social factors that encourage or inhibit deviant behaviour.

However, here are various theories of deviance applicable and covered by this research. They are:

- (i) Classical Functional Theory
- (ii) Social Integration Theories
- (iii) Anomie theory
- (iv) Subcultural theory
- (v) Social control theories
- (vi) Conflict theories

2.2 THE FUNCTIONAL THEORY OF STRUCTURAL STRAIN

One major explanation of deviance is the notion that social conditions may be so frustrating to some people that they are driven in desperation to deviant ways of behaviour. The idea that deviance performs a necessary and important social function dates back to Emile Durkheim's "The Rules of the Sociological Method", published in 1895. Durkheim made the surprising statement that deviance is a natural part of social life, "an integral part of all healthy societies" (1895/1958:67). The book is, of course, methodological in

aim, and the immediate context of Durkheim's development of his theory of deviance is a chapter on how the investigator should distinguish between the normal and the pathological in his analysis of social facts (Nisbet, 1974:215).

Durkheim was the first to set forth the proposition that deviance is no less firmly rooted in social conditions than conformity. Deviance, he maintained, is neither morbid nor pathological but rather normal, and is present in all types of society. According to Durkheim, there is no society that is not confronted with the problem of criminality. Its form changes, the acts thus characterized are not the same everywhere, but, everywhere and always there have been men who have behaved in such a way as to draw upon themselves penal repression. Since individuals are exposed to different influences and circumstances, it is 'impossible for all to be alike'. Therefore not everyone is equally reluctant to break the law (Haralambos, 1990:38).

If a society utterly devoid of crime is unknown, then crime must be a normal and integral facet of every social order. That conception of things should not be misunderstood. When Durkheim asserts that crime is necessary, he does not mean that specific types of crime are inevitable or that crime rates cannot be decreased by appropriate social measures. No, what Durkheim intends to argue instead is, first, that wherever human beings congregate, they display diverse forms of behaviour, and second, that some of those forms will be seen as departing from established norms, and will be punished accordingly. "Crime" thus ranges all the way from minor infractions of decorum at one end of the scale to major felonies on the other (Zeitlin, 1997:343-344).

Imagine a society of saints [writes Durkheim], a perfect cloister of exemplary individuals. Crimes, properly so called, will there be unknown, but faults which appear venial to the layman will create there the same scandal that the

ordinary offense does in ordinary consciousness. If, then, this society has the power to judge and punish, it will define these acts as criminal and will treat them as such. For the same reasons, the perfect and upright man judges his smallest failings with a severity that the majority reserves for acts more truly in the nature of an offense (Nisbet, 1974:217).

Individuals in every society differ in respect to the social and cultural milieus in which they find themselves. No society, therefore, is capable of achieving perfect moral uniformity. The diversification of behaviour is a social process which results in both extraordinary and ordinary deviants. It produces individuals who may be geniuses and "criminals" at one and the same time.

According to Durkheim (Zeitlin, 1997:344), Socrates was a criminal, and his condemnation was no more than just. However, his crime, namely, the independence of his thought, rendered a service not only to humanity but to his country. It served to prepare a new morality and faith which the Athenians needed, since the traditions by which they had lived until then were no longer in harmony with the current conditions of life. Nor is the case of Socrates unique; it is reproduced periodically in history. It would never have been possible to establish the freedom of thought we now enjoy if the regulations prohibiting it had not been violated before being solemnly abrogated. At that time, however, the violation was a crime, since it was an offense against sentiments still very keen in the average conscience. And yet this crime was useful as a prelude to reforms which daily became more necessary.

Again, let it be stressed that from such a declaration, Durkheim does not draw the conclusion that there is therefore no difference to be found among types of deviance. One needs but think of the successful revolutionaries - or if we like deviants - in history: Buddha, Moses, Jesus, Mohamed, Luther, those who led the American Revolution, Gandhi, Lenin, among others. Revolt, there was

indeed, major revolt. But without exception there is among these a deeply rooted sense of discipline and of law. What we often find indeed is the revolutionist calling revolt as such to a halt at a certain point, declaring the immediate necessity of stabilization, even when this means, as it so often does, dividing followers between "Left" that wishes to continue the work of destruction and a "Right" that wishes to build a new order with discipline its cornerstone. The same Luther who declared war on Rome, successfully taking a large number of Germans out of the Roman Catholic Church, did not hesitate, when a certain point was reached, to call for order even at the price of widespread killing of those who would not be brought to order. We do not find a prescription for killing in the teachings of Buddha, Jesus, or Gandhi, but we find ample prescription for obedience to law (Nishet, 1974:220-221).

To return now to deviance and crime in their normal connotations, we can no longer, Durkheim tells us, consider the criminal as a "totally unsociable being, a sort of parasitic element, a strange unassimilable body, introduced into the midst of society". Quite the contrary, there are indeed types of crime, Durkheim writes, the very existence of which is sound indication of general well being in the social order. "Thus the number of assault cases never falls so low as in times of want". To which Durkheim might well have added the truth that a great many types of crime are at their lowest ebb during time of warfare, the more intense and demanding the war in terms of human lives and fortunes, the lower the rates of crimes of assault, trespass, rape, murder and others.

Moreover, the existence of crime in rising volume can often result in the attention of society being called to conditions which are deserving in themselves of reform but which would undoubtedly continue to be ignored apart from the association with them of rising rates of criminal behaviour. Or putting the matter in reverse, the drop in rates of certain types of crime can

lead to a revision of a society's system of punishment. If, indeed, crime is a disease, its punishment is its remedy and cannot be otherwise conceived; thus all the discussions it arouses bear on the point of determining what the punishment must be in order to fulfil this role of remedy. If crime is not pathological, at all, the object of punishment cannot be to cure it, and its true function must be sought elsewhere (Nisbet, 1997:221).

For Durkheim, then, crime is fundamentally bound up with the conditions of social life. Crime, far from being a pathology, is a normal phenomenon. Indeed, crime is not an unmitigated evil since it is indispensable for the development of morality and law (Zeitlin, 1997:345).

Thus in Durkheim's view a healthy society requires both crime and punishment, both are inevitable, both are functional (Haralambos, 1990:390).

Arguing in the same vein Cohen's (1966) analyses two possible functions of deviance. First, Cohen says that deviance acts as a safety valve for the expression of dissatisfaction. In this way social order is protected. For example, Cohen suggests that 'prostitution performs such a safety valve function without threatening the institution of the family'. According to Cohen, prostitution can provide a release from the stress and pressure of family life without undermining family stability, since relationships between prostitutes and their clients usually avoid strong emotional attachments.

Second, Cohen suggests that certain deviant acts serve as warning device to indicate that an aspect of society is malfunctioning. This may draw attention to the problem and lead to measures to solve it.

Thus, Durkheim and Cohen have moved away from the picture of the deviant as biologically or psychologically abnormal. Instead, Durkheim suggests that

society itself generates deviance for its own well being. On the other hand, Cohen argues that certain forms of deviance are a natural and normal response to particular circumstances (Haralambos, 1990:390).

The Durkheimian analysis shows that whenever human beings live and work together, they display diverse forms of behaviour; and some of these behaviours are bound to depart from established norms. Deviant behaviour or crime as the case may be; is therefore inherent within our social structures. Crime control in our universities is not an exception to the above analysis. If deviant behaviour is bound to occur in any situation where human beings congregate, then the basic task of a sociologist is how do we control such deviant behaviour. Durkheim is also of the view that when a new social order comes into existence, people have to find different ways of conforming to the new social order. In South Africa today, a new social order has come into existence. The change from apartheid to democracy; represents a shift in social order. The high rate of crime on our campus could be attributed to the new democratic process where individual freedom of movement, speech, association; and organisational rights have been on the increase.

However, the inference we can draw from Durkheim's analysis in relation to our research is that as soon as a new social order comes into existence; there is bound to be an increase in crime.

2.2.1 Social integration theories

(i) Criminal homicide and suicide theory: Henry and Short

Andrew F Henry and James F Short Jr., developed in the mid 1950s a theory of criminal homicide and suicide which built in part on Durkheim's concepts of social integration and regulation. These authors viewed homicide and suicide as extreme forms of aggression, as alternative responses to frustration. They gave central attention to three variables: status, strength of the relational system, and degree of external restraints. By status, Henry and Short meant prestige. By strength of the relational system, they referred to the degree to which individuals are involved in social or cathectic relationships with others. By external restraints, they meant the extent to which individuals are required to conform to the demands and expectations of other persons.

A person of low status is required to conform to the demands and expectations of persons of higher status merely by virtue of his lower status. A person involved in intense "social" interaction with another person is required to conform to the demands and expectations imposed as a condition of the relationship. These observations may be summarized in the following proposition: the strength of external restraint to which behaviour is subjected varies positively with the strength of the relational system and inversely with position in the status hierarchy (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:33).

Henry and Short went on to suggest that homicide varies positively with strength of external restraint over behaviour. Persons of lower status are subjected to one-sided restraints. They must conform to the expectations of those of higher status while the latter need not conform to their expectations. This leads low-status individuals to blame others for the frustration they consequently experience. They tend to aggress outwardly toward others rather than toward themselves.

Henry and Short suggested that suicide, on the other hand, is characteristic of high-prestige groups. They argued that as prestige increases, there is a decrease in the strength of the relational system, that is, in the extent to which individuals are involved in social or cathectic relationships with others. Further, they held that as prestige increases, there is a decrease in the strength of external restraint, the degree to which behaviour is required to conform to the demands and expectations of others.

In summary, their position was that as prestige of individuals becomes greater and external restraints and the strength of the relational system decrease, suicide increases, conversely, as prestige becomes lower and restraints and strength of the relational system increase, homicide also increases (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:32-34).

When behaviour is subjected to strong external restraint by virtue either of subordinate status or intense involvement in social relationships with other persons, it is easy to blame others when frustration occurs. But when the restraints are weak, the self must bear the responsibility for frustration. Strong external restraints mean conflict among individuals where as weak restraints imply an absence of conflict.

The Henry and Short formulation is admirable in that it brings together into one unified theory sociological, psychological, and economic factors (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:33-34).

The above discussion by F Henry and F Short draws our attention to the different rules and regulations made by the university authorities. The two basic questions we may ask her are: (1) Are the rules applied equally to all the sectors of the university community? (2) Are the rules and regulations so rigid and complex that members of the university community find it difficult to obey?

If the rules and regulations are so rigid and inflexible, then the crime rates on campuses are bound to increase in terms of the Henry and Short's perspective of deviant behaviour.

2.2.2 Reciprocity and integration: Straus and Straus

Jacqueline and Murray Straus reformulated Durkheim's original ideas concerning social integration in a 1953 research report.

Based on their analysis of homicide and suicide in Ceylon, they concluded that the major social condition related to those two forms of deviance was closeness or looseness of structuring of a society. A society is closely structured, that is, integrated, to the extent that reciprocal rights and duties are stressed and enforced. In a society that is closely integrated, the emphasis on reciprocity in carrying out roles and norms operates to preclude violence towards others. This is because individuals are helping each other play out their roles effectively and hence see little reason to blame each other for whatever severe frustration they experience. Hence, Straus and Straus predicted low homicide rates and high suicide rates in closely integrated societies.

On the other hand, in loosely structured or loosely integrated societies, reciprocal rights and duties are stressed and enforced relatively little. Individuals are not helping each other to carry out their roles and hence find it easy to blame each other for the frustrations they feel. Thus, Straus and Straus predicted high homicide and low suicide rates in loosely integrated societies. Their formulation and Durkheim's theory are congruent in this sense. Durkheim predicted altruistic suicide when social integration was high. Straus and Straus predicted suicide in general under conditions of high integration. Where they predicted homicide under conditions of low

integration, Durkheim predicted egoistic suicide. However, Durkheim did in passing suggest that homicide would also be high when integration was low (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:34-35).

The analysis of Straus and Straus in terms of deviant behaviour could be seen in terms of the level of integration. We shall investigate in this study the level of integration within the departments. The assumptions in this premises are that the higher the level of co-operation among the various departments, the lower the crime rate.

2.2.3 Anomie theory

Emile Durkheim (1858-1917) suggested that there are those who experience personal frustration and alienation as a result of conditions within a society. Those conditions are within a large societal structure, and termed anomie. A major assumption of anomie is that large numbers of people find themselves at a disadvantage relative to legitimate economic activities. They are seen as being motivated to engage in illegitimate activities (Shoemaker, 1990).

The idea of anomie has been used to explain a great many of the varieties of deviant behaviour. For example, Merton relied on Durkheim's concept of anomie to explain why and how 'some social structures' exert a definite pressure upon certain persons in the society to engage in non-conforming rather than conforming conduct. But, whereas Durkheim had stressed that anomic states arise from unregulated human desires, Merton pinpointed the importance of the relationship between means and goals. Merton's central hypothesis was that, sociologically, deviant behaviour is a symptom of a specific sort of social disorganization: a lack of fit between culturally prescribed aspirations and socially structured avenues for achieving them (Beirne & Messerschmidt, 1991:376).

Merton reasoned that to some degree all people internalize the goals that are considered worth striving for in their culture. Everyone also internalizes the norms that govern proper and legitimate ways of working toward those goals. But when legitimate opportunities for achieving culturally defined goals are limited or non-existent, people may seek alternative ways to achieve those goals, or they may abandon the goals altogether. Merton's key point is that strain in the social structure invite deviance. In his words, "some social structures exert a definite pressure upon certain persons in the society to engage in non-conforming rather than conforming behaviour" (Merton, 1968:132).

Merton argued that all deviance is not alike, nor is it always destructive to society. Because the social structure is complex, various individual responses are possible. Merton further argues that there are different modes of adaptation by individuals within the culture-bearing society.

Here, we consider five modes of adaptation, as these are schematically set out in the following table, where (+) signifies "acceptance" or availability of goals and institutionalized means, (-) signifies "rejection" or unavailability of goals and institutionalized means and (+/-) signifies rejection of both goals and means and substituting them with new ones.

Table 2.1: Merton's Model of Deviance and Anomie

Mode of Adaptation	Cultural Goals	Institutional Means
Conformity	+	+
Innovation	+	-
Ritualism	-	+
Retreatism	-	-
Rebellion	+/-	+/-

Source: Adapted from Merton. Social Theory and Social Structure. New York: Free Press, 1968, p.194.

- (1) **Conformity:** Merton argued that in this mode of adaptation, most people conform most of the time, for they have internalized the rules of acceptable behaviour. For those in a society who can play by the rules, who have enough resources, and whose goals society approves of, there is no contradiction between means and ends. For example, the student who wants high grades and is willing to earn them without cheating has little impulse to misbehave at school. According to the researcher's view, this mode of adaptation is not likely to apply to both students and staff population since their goals at the university are not the same. We shall however see if this is applicable in the data analysis phase of this research.
- (2) **Innovation:** This response occurs when the individual has assimilated the cultural emphasis upon the goal without equally internalizing the institutional norms governing ways and means for its attainment. For example, business people who operate consumer scams and citizens who cheat on taxes are all examples of this mode of behaviour. In the researcher's view, this mode of adaptation is not likely to be applicable to both students and staff. For example, a student may have a goal in mind like that of obtaining a degree or diploma, but use inappropriate means for reaching his or her goals, e.g. cheating in the examinations and getting a degree. On the other hand, a member of staff might be interested in getting a promotion in order to earn a better salary. The rules of the university could state it clearly that promotion will only be based on academic improvement. A staff member who is not academically motivated, could use inappropriate means to achieve his/her end goals for example, by forging an academic certificate in order to be promoted.
- (3) **Ritualism:** A ritualist plays it safe. He or she concentrates on the means - going along with the rules - but has given up on reaching the goal. For example, bureaucrats who are more concerned about filling out forms correctly than about achieving the purpose of their organization. "Red tape" becomes their goal (end) rather the means of a goal. In terms of the goals, mission and university policy, it is the researcher's view that this mode of adaptation is not likely to be applicable to the entire university community.

- (4) **Retreatism:** This response consists of people who are in the society but not for it. Sociologically, these constitute the true aliens. Retreats are dropouts in the eyes of society - the people who give up looking for work and become skid row bums, chronic drug addiction who doesn't even try to kick their habits, and vagrants who drift aimlessly through life. In the researcher's opinion, this mode of adaptation is likely to be applicable to the student population only. For example, a motivated student will strive to conform and comply with the rules and regulations of the university by attending classes regularly, completing all assignments on due dates and fulfilling all the requirements for obtaining his/her degree or diploma.

On the other hand, a student who is not academically motivated might see himself/herself repeating first year courses for two or more years, and leave the university having not obtained a single course. Such a student might be seen as a university dropout by both students and members of his/her community.

- (5) **Rebellion:** This mode of adaptation leads men outside the environing social structure to envisage and seek to bring into being a new that is to say, a greatly modified social structure. It presupposes alienation from rising goals and standards. These come to be regarded as purely arbitrary. And the arbitrary is precisely that which can either exact allegiance nor possess legitimacy, for it might as well be otherwise.

Like Durkheim, Merton saw deviance as necessary part. Even more, his scheme points out that deviance can be productive, creative, and keep society from growing rigid and ossified. In terms of the new Education Act, it is the researcher's view that this mode of adaptation is not likely to be applicable to the entire university community. We shall however see if this is applicable in the data analysis phase of this research.

2.2.4 Subcultural theory

Sutherland's concept of differential association and Merton's anomie theory generated a large body of research into criminal and delinquent subcultures.

Albert Cohen, Richard Cloward, Lloyd Ohlin and Walter Miller all widely respected subcultural theories on delinquency. Subcultural researchers first identified the special characteristics of deviant groups that set them aside from mainstream society. They also discovered how subcultures arise in response to a threat from larger society and its authorities. Finally, they observed that some subcultures are more at odds with society than others, hence better deserve to be called countercultures.

(i) **Albert K. Cohen**

In his analysis of a delinquent subculture, Cohen stressed the impact of social class. For Cohen, the delinquent subculture exists because it offers a solution to the status problems and frustrations experienced by working-class boys in their efforts to achieve middle-class success. Working-class boys are constantly evaluated by "middle-class measuring rods", as Cohen phrases it. However, their working-class background does not adequately equip them to practice the middle-class standards of aggression, deferment of gratification, self-reliance, self-discipline, ambition, and academic achievement. Given this discrepancy, such boys often experience status frustration, which they deal with by developing what Cohen terms a delinquent response: the youths reject middle-class standards and turn to the delinquent subculture of the gang. This subculture provides them with new forms of status achieved through gang membership. Cohen (1955) describes this delinquent subculture as:

- (a) non-utilitarian, that is, not mainly concerned with economic gain

- (b) negativistic, in the sense that a certain malice entered into the defiance of authority
- (c) not simply at odds with respectable society, but lived by rules which ran counter to it
- (d) celebrated 'short-run hedonism' not only living for the moment, but actively resisting any attempt to plan for the future, was versatile rather than specialized in its delinquency and owed allegiance to the gang alone (Taylor, 1999:237).

In accounting for this behaviour, Cohen elaborated a theory of sub-cultures, that is, cultures within cultures. Like Merton, Cohen begins from a structural perspective, because there is unequal access to opportunities, Cohen argues that this creates pressure on certain groups within the social structure to engage in non-conforming rather than conforming behaviour.

However, he deviates from Merton when he sees some delinquency as being a collective response directed by subcultural values. In this way, Cohen shows how pressure from the social structure to deviate is reinforced by pressure from the deviant subculture.

(ii) Richard Cloward and Lloyd Ohlin on types of delinquent subcultures

Drawing on Merton's theory, Richard Cloward and Lloyd Ohlin (1964) discovered that delinquent subcultures reflect the neighbourhood and its ability to provide both legitimate and illegitimate means for success. Depending on the locale, a delinquent subculture could be crime and rackets oriented (innovative), centered around fighting (rebellious) or focussed on drugs (retreatist).

In neighbourhoods where adult rackets were prevalent gang delinquency serves as a kind of apprenticeship for recruitment to the mob. In areas so disorganized that even the rackets avoid them, the conflict gang prevails. Where 'double failure' occurs, the world of crime being no easier to succeed in than the 'straight' world, the retreatist pattern of drug use is likely to be chosen. Moreover, in all this swirl of activity, the school is of no account to downtown boys what inspires their sense of alienation is not school failure but lack of material success. Well-paid jobs are their goals rather than status in school. Cloward and Ohlin predicted the crisis that would occur when deindustrialization led to the large scale disappearance of secure and well-paid manual jobs, a development documented vividly by Wilson (1996:29-38).

Sykes and Matza took a different tack, arguing that the idea of delinquent sub-cultures conjured up a mythical picture of lower-class youth committed to incessantly at warfare against middle-class adult institutions. In reality, most delinquency was petty and intermittent. By over-predicting delinquency, these theories could not account for its decline in adulthood, nor for the techniques of neutralization deployed in explanation by the young people involved (Sykes & Matza, 1957:664-700). Phrases such as 'I didn't mean to do it', 'They had it coming to them', 'Everybody does it', are not just rationalizations but attempts to neutralize a sense of guilt which, if the offenders were so righteously indignant about their social situation, they would not even feel. So what makes delinquency attractive in the first place? Here the stress is placed on what delinquents have in common with the rest of society, rather than on what sets them apart.

They are seen as sharing adherence to 'subterranean values' (Matza & Sykes, 1961), such as the equation of toughness with masculinity, the

search for excitement and a disdain for routine work. These are the values of gentlemen of leisure as well as delinquents. Delinquents differ, however, in acting them out without respect for time and place. Their accentuation makes for a 'sub-culture of delinquency', in which law breaking is an option not a necessity. Youths may drift into delinquency by a temporary loosening of controls rather than through commitment to a delinquent way of life (Matza, 1964). The more extreme forms of delinquency arise from desperation or 'compulsive' behaviour. In correcting for what he saw as positive defects (the scientific search for causes which override free will), Matza may have under predicted delinquency yet been obliged to retain a positivistic model for its most extreme forms (Taylor, 1999:238-239).

Another important contribution to the theory was made by Edwin Schur (1979:312) who expanded the concept of subculture beyond delinquency to include: group-based criminality, whether by "professional thieves" or delinquent gangs; those forms of "deviant consumption and selling" that are often engaged in on a repeated basis - as in the "drug scene" or prostitution; basic personal orientations - such as homosexuality and, perhaps in cases of extreme involvement, political or religious orientation; and other stigmatized behaviours that constitute generalized life-styles ... such as "skid row" patterns or bohemianism ("hippies", the youthful "counter cultures", etc.).

(iii) Lower class subculture - Walter B. Miller

Walter B. Miller's approach to deviance differs from those of Cohen, Cloward and Ohlin. Miller does not see a deviant subculture arising from the inability of members of lower social strata to achieve success.

Instead he explains crime in terms of the existence of a distinctive lower subculture.

Miller believes that lower class have had for centuries their own cultural traditions which differ significantly to those of higher strata. He claims that their values and ways of life which are passed on from generation to generation actively encourage lower class members to break the law. He describes six focal concerns of delinquent subcultures and these are:

- (a) trouble, arising from frequent conflict with teachers and police;
- (b) toughness, the value placed on physical size, strength, and athletic skills, especially among males. In practice this can lead to assault and battery in order to maintain a reputation for toughness;
- (c) smartness, the ability to succeed on the streets, to out think or “con” others, and to avoid being similarly taken advantage of;
- (d) excitement, the search for thrills, risk, or danger to gain needed release from a daily routine that is predictable and unsatisfying;
- (e) a concern with fate, derived from the lack of control these youths feel over their own lives;
- (f) lastly, autonomy, a desire for freedom often expressed as resentment toward figures of authority (Macionis, 1995:213).

It was Miller's view that these six focal concerns either directly or indirectly leads to criminal behaviour patterns, especially violence and theft. These patterns are customary in lower-class subcultures, part of the way of life of the urban poor. They are seen as deviant by lower-class persons only in the sense that middle-class authorities define them as deviant and react to them with hostility and punishment.

Miller was essentially providing an alternative to the cultural support explanation of crime and delinquency provided by Sutherland, Cohen, and Cloward and Ohlin. Cohen posited a subculture of crime set up outside lower-class who were thwarted in their striving for legitimate success goals. Miller argued in effect that there did not exist a separate criminal subculture. Rather, behaviour patterns which the middle-class defined as criminal were threaded through the subculture of the lower-class and were a functional part of lower-class everyday life (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:44-45).

(iv) Subcultures of violence: Wolfgang and Ferracuti

In the mid 1960s Marvin E Wolfgang, a sociologist, and Ferracuti (1967), a psychologist set forth a subcultural explanation of violent crime. This was really a return to Sutherland's position but confined to such forms of deviance as homicide and assault and, to a lesser extent, rape and robbery. The two researchers suggested that in some locales, certain neighbourhoods of urban areas, certain regions of a country, and certain countries, there existed bodies of customs, norms, and values that favoured violence as a solution to life problems. Individuals, especially males, learned and practised violence, that is, violent crime was seen as an institutionalized form of deviance. Violence was, in the Wolfgang-Ferracuti formulation, a customary form of response in certain social settings. A subculture of violence is characterized by a quick resort to physical combat as a measure of daring, courage, or defence of status appears to be a cultural expression, especially for lower socio-economic class males. When such a culture norm response is elicited from an individual engaged in social interplay with others who harbour the same response mechanism, physical assaults, altercations, and violent domestic quarrels that results in homicide are common.

Wolfgang and Ferracuti do not give sustained attention to how and why subcultures of violence develop. They do, however, suggest in passing that such subcultures are likely to arise when relative deprivation for economic goals is great, that is, in the lower socio-economic strata (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:41-42).

The relevance of Cloward and Ohlin's analysis on the types of delinquent subcultures in this research is that they both attribute delinquent behaviour to the inability of the society to provide adequately for its members. In view of this analysis, can we attribute the increasing rate of crime to the inability of the parents and the society in general to provide all the school material students need? Are students more likely to engage in deviant behaviour in order to get what they need? This will be investigated in this research.

In terms of Walter B Miller's analysis, the basic question we want to ask is that, to what extent does the new value brought by democracy increase the crime rate on our campus? For example, has the new value system where females now compete with males in the wearing of trousers on the campus contributed to the increase in rape cases? Has the new value system where both males and females share the same hostels contributed to the high rate of crime? This will be fully investigated in this research. In the analysis of Wolfgang and Ferracuti, they are of the view that in some locales, certain neighbourhoods who have been deprived of their economic goals and rights; are likely to favour violence as a solution to their life problems. These beliefs by Wolfgang and Ferracuti try to buttress the fact to us that if the University of Zululand had been located at Empangeni and not at KwaDlangezwa where the black community had been deprived of their economic rights

as a result of apartheid, the rate of crime would not have been high as it is today at our university.

(v) **Culture conflict: Thorsten Sellin**

Thorsten Sellin (1938) published his book, *Culture Conflict and Crime*. He argued that when individuals were exposed to and learned conflicting conduct norms, crime was likely to result. Individuals might first learn the norms of one culture, then move to another where what constituted crime was defined differently than in the first. They might be located at the borders between cultures and could then be caught between, conflicting definitions of crime. Again, changes over time within a given culture might mean that individuals behaved on the basis of earlier norms which conflicted with later definitions of what constituted crime.

Finally, differing ethnic, social class, urban-rural, and other subcultures within a given culture might at any time have conflicting conduct norms and criminal definitions. If individuals moved from one subcultural setting to another, they could be trapped, as it were, into crime. Also, one subculture might be dominant over another and so use its standards for judging the behaviour of those socialized in the other and persecute them for negative deviance. Although Sellin's formulation had no political bias in the usual sense, it provided in some respects the theoretical basis for social-class conflict explanations of deviance which were later to evolve (Palmer & Humphrey, 1990:43-44).

What these diverse groups have in common in their culture is:

- (1) General facilitation, learning, and sociability. The subculture provides general aid, such as access to supplies and settings, instructs members in key definitions and outlooks, and offers consolation and support in a hostile world. For example, marihuana use frequently occurs in groups as a form of congenial socializing (Goode, 1984; Johnson, 1973).
- (2) Defensive adaptation, status provision, and morale enhancement. Rejection by straight society implies that for many deviant members, only the deviant group can provide esteem and morale. The prostitute's dependency on the pimp is due in part to the protection he offers, as well as to the status of having an approved place in his stable (Davis, 1980).
- (3) Internal social control. Ever since Sutherland's study in the Professional Thief (1937), sociologists have recognized that deviants have their own rules, however informal.

Although subcultures thus provide many advantages for members, Schur reminds us they have their limitations as well. To commit deeply to a subculture can be as restrictive as it can be liberating.

Overall, the subculture notion was more than a logic extension of Sutherland's cultural transmission theory. It tried to explain what motivations and behaviours made deviants different from other people, what sustained their aberrance. It reminded us that even in their differences, deviants behaved like anyone else in desiring physical comfort, status and security. With their own world deviants retained notions of right and wrong (Davis & Stasz, 1990:40-42).

2.2.5 Social control theories

Edward A. Ross (1866-1951) was the first to use the term social control, using it broadly to include “the moulding of the individual’s feelings and desires to suit the needs of the group” (Ross, 1901). Here Ross refers to both informal relations - those moral nets again and supernatural beliefs, ceremonies, public opinion, art, and education. These cultural expressions maintain the normative structure of society in two ways:

- (1) by being the mechanisms through which society expresses its views over its members, and
- (2) by prodding the member’s conformity to the norms and values.

Ross’ Contemporary, William Graham Sumner (1840-1910), took a similar position in *Folkways* (1906) stressing that “habits and customs that become regulative for succeeding generations very largely control individual and social undertaking”.

Charles Horton Cooley (1864-1929) noted how our very view of ourselves was like a looking glass that reflected others’ views of us, along with our reactions, pride or shame to those opinions. George Herbert Mead (1863-1931) introduced the idea of significant others, those people whose opinions are most important in valuing our behaviour, typically our inmates, friends, and work partners. As their values influence us, they congeal into a generalized other, a social “conscience” created from the collective attitudes and expectations of society around us (Davis & Stasz, 1990:42-44).

Social control theorists, identify two forms of control: inner and outer. Inner control refers to those social norms and values which people internalize as their own. Inner control works because people experience satisfaction and balance when they behave consistently with internalized norms. Guilt, self reproach, and self-condemnation result when they violate them. From this

view, deviance is a result of a failure or lack of moral socialization. Outer control refers to the presence or absence of social rewards and punishments in response to conformity or disobedience. The theory predicts the highest level of deviance among those who lack both inner and outer controls, and the lowest level among those who have both (David & Stasz, 1990:42).

Hirschi's (Siegel, 1989:198), *Causes of Delinquency*, presents both a statement of the theory and empirical support based on a sample of some 2000 high school boys in the San Francisco-Oakland area. The boys were asked to fill out questionnaires covering a variety of attitudes and behaviour, including crime. Race and social class did not seem to be important factors in delinquency. Hirschi asked himself the question: why do people obey social rules? His answer was that there is a social bond that ties us to society. "Control theory assumes that delinquent acts result when an individual's bond to society is weak or broken". Hirschi specifies four elements in the abstract concept of the social bond and measure each. Then he correlates the boy's scores on each element with their delinquency. The four elements of the social bond correspond with four levels of analysis: feeling (called affect - accent on the first syllable), cognition (based on rational calculation), behaviour, and belief or values (see table below) (Livingstone, 1996:389):

Table 2.2: Elements of the Social Bond

LEVEL	ELEMENT	DESCRIPTION
Affective	Attachment	Emotional closeness to family, peers, school
Cognitive	Commitment	Rational calculation of the costs of lawbreaking for future goals
Behaviour	Involvement	Time spent in conventional activities (e.g. homework)
Evaluative	Belief	Ideas that legitimize delinquency

Source: Livingstone, 1996:389

Hirschi, building on Durkheim's analysis of deviance, suggests that conformity arises from the four types of social control mentioned in the above table.

(i) **Attachment**

The most important element of the social bond is the affective (emotional) component - what Hirschi called attachment. Strong social attachments to others encourage conformity, weak relationship in the family, peer group, and school leave people freer to engage in deviance.

(ii) **Commitment**

Commitment is the part of the social bond that involves a person's rational calculation of the costs and benefits of violating laws. Commitment links choices in the present to goals in the future. The higher one's commitment to legitimate opportunity, the greater the advantages of conformity. A young person bound for college, with good career prospects has a high stake in conformity. In contrast, someone with little confidence in future success is more likely to drift towards deviance (Macionis, 1995:215).

(iii) **Involvement**

Involvement is the component at the social bond. Extensive involvement in legitimate activities - such as holding a job, going to school, and completing homework, or pursuing hobbies, inhibits deviance. People with little legitimate involvement - who simply "hang out" waiting for something to happen, have time and energy for deviant activity.

(iv) **Belief**

Belief refers to abstract ideas people hold about conventional authority, on the one hand, and crime, on the other. Conventional beliefs damper the urge toward crime. Strong beliefs in conventional morality and respect for authority, figures also restrain tendencies toward deviance, people with weak beliefs are more vulnerable to temptations toward deviance (Macionis, 1995:213-215).

The variations in self-reported delinquency did not correlate much with differences of class, ethnicity or income, factors stressed heavily by strain and labelling theories, but did match those associated with social control, for example, children scoring highly on measures of communication and identification with their parents were signally less involved in delinquency than those who scored less well in these respects. Two decades later, Hirschi felt sure enough of this approach to present it, with Gottfredson, as a general theory of crime (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990). Low self-control stemming from poor socialization in families and schools, and inconsistent monitoring and punishing of deviance, is vowed as the main common denominator in offending behaviour (Taylor, 1999:242-243).

Wilson and Herbert (1978), in a broadly similar study in England, developed a concept of 'chaperonage' to explain differences in delinquency between children from much the same background. In a carefully chosen sample of 56 socially deprived families, all of whom were poor, overcrowded and similarly circumstanced, striking differences in the delinquency of their children correlated strongly with the extent to which the parents monitored their behaviours, for example, in accompanying them to and from school, setting play and bed times, and vetting children as companions. 'I blame the parents' was not, however, her conclusion, since the emotional costs involved in such chaperonage were too severe. She emphasized instead the priority

of ending social deprivation. However, parental supervision, at least of young children, was seen as a 'neglected feature' of delinquency control.

Control theory also emerged well from an important study on the gender gap in offending behaviour. Hagan *et al.* (1979) used Hirschi's methods in Toronto to explore what they termed the 'sexual stratification of social control'. Boys and girls reported strikingly different experiences of parental supervision, encouragement to take risks and involvement in delinquency. In brief, boys were encouraged to take risks far more than girls and were more subject to lax parental controls. They were also far more likely to be involved in delinquency than girls. But these links held within as well as between genders, suggesting the causal significance of socialization for delinquency regardless of gender. Nevertheless, the major finding was that the informal social control of girls is far more intensive and extensive than that of boys, who as a result are more subject to formal social control by the police and the courts. These findings also confirm the importance of cultural definitions of masculinity in delinquency, which field studies have shown to be most powerfully associated with machismo, the overriding stress on the tough, arrogant, combative image of the male (Taylor, 1999:244).

Another theory in this vein links crime with changes in 'routine activities' (Felson, 1994). Opportunities for 'motivated offenders' to commit crime consists of 'suitable targets' and the absence of 'capable guardians', and the commonplace structures of social life can multiply such opportunities in unforeseen ways. For example, the huge increase in car ownership not only creates millions of fresh opportunities for car-related crime, but also makes it far easier for motivated offenders to travel rapidly and anonymously, the 'quick getaway' on a mass scale. Similarly, the growth of single person households and women working part time expands targets for residential

burglary denuded of capable guardians. Such trends arguably increase the supply of motivated offenders, because rational offending is enhanced by easier gains for less risk.

Nye (1958), Briar and Piliavin (1965) suggest that because control theories emphasize an individual's bond to society, they look at the family as a source of or preventive to delinquency. After all, they say, most boys act delinquently at one time or other, but for only a minority does this delinquency become a primary focus of their everyday life. While peer groups can be powerful persuaders, even more powerful is the family that provides approval, love, protection, and material needs. A well-functioning family provides the outer controls that give the boy a stake in conforming to conventional norms.

One feature of inner controls that have attracted much interest is neutralization techniques. These are rationalizations or illogical excuses deviants make to account for their violation of values, norms, and laws (Sykes & Matza, 1957:644-670). That is, rule breakers often accept the rules, but bend them. A murderer may claim legal justification of her act on the basis of self-defence or insanity (Liska, 1981). Studies have uncovered five common forms of justification:

- (i) Denying responsibility: The deviant argues that external forces caused the act, as in "he made me to do it".
- (ii) Denial of injury: The deviant writes off the extent of harm suffered, as when a rapist claims "she was asking for it".
- (iii) Denying a victim: The deviant claims the victim deserves injury, as when youth engage in "gay bashing".

- (iv) Condemning the condemners: The deviant shifts attention to attack authority, as when vandals destroy campgrounds to attack the government.
- (v) Appeal to higher loyalties: The deviant rationalizes deviance as superior to conventional behaviour, as when the Rajneeshees in Oregon harassed township people to make them leave their area.

Not all control theorists agree that these techniques are motives for deviance. For example, Hirschi thinks delinquent boys talk with neutralizations after the fact, but believes the real impetus for their misbehaviour comes from their poor social bonds to conventional society. So the way people talk about their deviance may have little to do with the real reasons they broke the rules. Whether or not attitudes cause actions, has long been debated by sociologists (Davis & Stasz, 1990:42-43).

2.2.6 Conflict theories

Merton's structural strain theory emphasizes that legitimate means are not equally available to all; conflict theory focus on this point. Lower-class persons, women, and many ethnic minorities simply do not have the same degree of access to the means of success as the more affluent. Access to legitimate means is, therefore, a valued resource over which there is conflict. Conflict theory also stresses that those who hold power are also able to define success goals, as well as legitimate and illegitimate means, in ways that favour them. It further assumes that the economic system of capitalism is responsible for the class divisions within a society. The norms which define deviance are, conflict theorists argue, those of the powerful. Laws and their enforcement emphasize the illegality of activities which are offensive to the morality of the privileged classes and which threaten their property and

affluence. Stated less stridently, the laws and their enforcement are greatly influenced by the distribution of power and privilege. Poor people who are more likely to steal, use drugs, and carry weapons must confront strict laws against them and harsh enforcement of these laws compared to affluent people who commit white-collar and corporate crimes like embezzlement, industrial pollution, health and safety violations, consumer fraud, election fraud, political dirty tricks, stock manipulation, and the like. And the more powerful can enlist the support of the broad middle class to support them. Indeed, by focussing enforcement energies on the crimes of the poor, there is less enforcement of those crimes committed by the non-poor, thereby enabling the rich to "get away" with their forms of crime (Turner, 1994:196).

Tucker (1978:70) states that this greed, self interest and hostility generated by the capitalist system, motivate many crimes at all levels of society. The dehumanization that is perpetuated by the ruling class shows the background to the causes that makes people to be antisocial. This opens the doors for hatred of one man from another man. Marx further stated that man no longer feels himself to be freely active in any but his animal functions - eating, drinking, procreating or at most in his dwelling and dressing up, etc., and in his human functions he no longer feels himself to be anything but an animal. What is animal becomes human and what is human becomes animal. Marx called this "alienation".

Most crimes therefore share a single important similarity. They represent rational responses to the competitiveness and inequality of life in capitalist society.

(i) **Power theory: Thio**

Alex Thio (1978) outlined his power theory of negative deviance. This theory attempts a broader explanation than Quinney's social reality theory of crime, since it applies to a wider range of deviance than crime and to societies everywhere, not only capitalistic and totalitarian societies. Thio contends that life is always unequal, that all do not possess the same power, that is, all are not equally able to control the behaviour of others.

Thio sets forth three propositions:

- (a) "The more power people have, the more likely they will engage in lower-consensus deviance, the less serious, more profitable, or more sophisticated type of deviance with lower probability of being labelled deviant". Lower consensus deviance is that which has relatively little societal-wide recognition as serious negative behaviour. The powerful control to a considerable degree which behaviours gain widespread recognition as seriously negative and as punishable. Thus, they arrange to have less consensus about the more profitable forms of deviance. These forms are less often punished and if they are, they are punished less harshly. Conversely, the powerful arrange to have more consensus about the less profitable forms of deviance. Thus higher-consensus deviance, which tends to be harshly punished, is left to the powerless (Humphrey, 1990:47).
- (b) "It is more likely that the powerful will engage in lower-consensus deviance than the powerless will commit higher-consensus deviance". That is, the powerful are more seriously negatively deviant, more criminal, than the powerless. The powerful, Thio reasons, have more opportunities, the range of possibilities for negative deviance is greater.

It is easier for example, for a businessman to defraud his customers or the revenue service than it is for a lower-class person to rob a bank.

Also, the powerful have a greater likelihood of feeling subjectively deprived than the powerless. The powerful person's goals are virtually unlimited.

Thio contends that, "The more power one has, the higher one's aspirations are, and the greater one's subjective deprivation is". The powerless, in contrast, do not expect much. Further, there are fewer social controls on the powerful. They are less vulnerable to exposure and punishment than the powerless and this encourages them in their negative deviance.

- (c) "Deviance by the powerful induces deviance by the powerless that, in turn, contributes to deviance by the powerful". In brief, the powerful influence the powerless to be deviant by leading them into illegal activities, by setting poor examples, and by reinforcing inequality in the society. The powerless aid and abet the negative deviance of the powerful by an unwillingness to prosecute them for their crimes. Agents of social control, being the tool of the powerful, are themselves without power and fear losing their jobs if they prosecute the powerful. The fact that the powerless commit "heinous" crimes makes the powerful self-righteous and tolerant of their own deviance. The powerless direct their criminal activities against themselves. The poor are largely the victims of violence and theft by the poor. This only compounds their oppression and perpetuates inequality, contends Thio (Humphrey, 1990:47-48).

(ii) **Political Conflict: Quinney**

Richard Quinney (1974, 1977, 1979) presented his social reality theory of crime. This went further than previous formulations in attempting to show that political and class power factors were the root explanations of crime. Quinney's control thesis was that the politically powerful created one form of negative deviance, crime and gave it its "social reality" as a means of social control. He extended Marxism in his analysis of criminal law as being an instrument of social control.

His major propositions are:

- (a) Criminal law is an instrument of the state and ruling class to sustain and perpetuate the existing social and economic order.
- (b) Crime control in capitalist society is accomplished through a variety of institutions and agencies established and administered by a governing elite namely, officials representing ruling class namely, private property interests.
- (c) The contradictions of advanced capitalism require that the subordinate classes remain oppressed by whatever means necessary, but especially through the coercion of the law.

In a strong expression of his view, Quinney argues:

The legal system provides the mechanisms for the forceful and violent control of the rest of the population. In the course of battle, the agents of the law (police, prosecutors, judges and so on) serve as the military force for the protection of domestic order... In other words, the military abroad and law enforcement at home

are two sides of the same phenomenon: the preservation of the interests of the ruling class (1974:136-138).

Quinney's propositions emphasize that the law, media, welfare system and state agencies combine to control the underclass. They typically accomplish this through complex and frustrating bureaucracies. When this administration fails, control agents will resort to violence.

Conflict theorists also remind us that those who carry out the rules are seldom the ones in power or the ones who make them. For example, the police, they swear to uphold the enforcement of the laws, but not all the laws are enforceable equally all the time. Just which laws are observed in which parts of the cities depends upon the top officials of the city and police department. When a precinct has a reputation for roughing up minorities during arrests, someone higher up is tacitly okaying this behaviour. Similarly, a social case worker may know she could be more effective by taking an individualized approach to her clients, but the city requires instead that she fill out identical paperwork for all cases.

Conflict theorists thus suggest the labelling researchers are wrong to spend too much time on these middle-level functionaries. Rather than point to the police or social workers as the bad guys, it is more important to address those who set the direction for implementing abusive and dehumanizing treatment of minorities or welfare women (Davids & Stasz, 1990:47-49).

In this discussion of conflict theory, the work of Karl Marx is still the most relevant analysis to this research. Today, both Marxists and neo Marxists still question how useful is the state force in controlling the general well being of the society. They see the use of force (control of crime) by the state as an instrument by which the dominant class exercises its domination over the other

social classes. In this way, to a certain degree, the use of force is closely linked to those of the dominant class and the state. Its justification and the use of force, be it police or security services depend on the dominant class and the state. The real task of the dominant class and the state; is to use force to consolidate and perpetuate class division and domination. The conclusion we can draw from this Marxian perspective is that the use of force to control the masses; does not occupy an organic position in the social structure; since the principal aim is to maintain the *status quo* and the privileges of the ruling class. Perhaps this Marxist idea can be linked to the use of force by the protective services to protect the interest of the management of their university. The argument is that, the principal task of the protective services is always to protect the interest of the university management. It is for this reason that during any crisis on the campus, the management of the university is heavily protected rather than the general interest of members of the university community. Although many theories have been discussed in this chapter, the four most relevant theories that are pertinent to this research are that of Emile Durkheim, Robert Merton, Karl Marx and Ohlin's. These theories are important to this research because they have a direct link with the principal aims of this research; and their relationship with the hypotheses to be tested will be fully discussed in our chapter on data analysis.

2.3 EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON CAMPUS CRIME

(a) PJ Potgieter

The principal aim of the research conducted by PJ Potgieter on campus crime in 1993 was to investigate crime trends in South African universities and Technikons. Potgieter specifically wanted to find out what part of the campus is immune from criminal activity. In terms of the trend, Potgieter wanted to find out the occurrence of crime in the respective months of the year and the

effects of the crime in terms of cost to the university and technikon campuses. With regard to the research method used by Potgieter in collecting the necessary information for this research, he used a mail survey from 42 South African universities and technikons, including the TBVS countries. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed envelope. All universities and technikons in this research constituted a purposive or accidental sample. A total of 25 questionnaires was collected, yielding a response rate of 59.52 per cent. A pre-coded questionnaire was used to collect data on campus crime for the period 1 January to 30 June 1992.

The general findings of the research are shown below in the following tables:

Table 2.3: Location of Tertiary Institution

Location or area	Frequency	
	N	%
Metropolitan ¹	15	60.0
Urban ²	4	16.0
Rural ³	8	32.0
TOTAL	25	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

¹ Example: Johannesburg, Pretoria, Cape Town and Durban

² Example: Port Elizabeth, Bloemfontein, Pietermaritzburg and East London

³ Example: Grahamstown, Potchefstroom, Pietersburg, TBVC countries Zululand

Table 2.3 shows that 15 (60.0 per cent) are located in metropolitan areas as indicated above, 4 (16.0 per cent) in urban areas, and 8 (32.0 per cent) in rural areas.

The mode of campus control security employed at the tertiary institutions applicable to this study are shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4: Mode of Campus Control/Security

Type of institution	Frequency	
	N	%
In-house campus control	19	76.0
Contract security	3	12.0
Both in-house and contract	3	12.0
TOTAL	25	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

Nineteen (76.0 per cent) of these institutions employ their in-house crime control officials. Three (12.0 per cent) contract their security services while 3 (12.0 per cent) make use of both in-house and contract security services.

Major Crime Trends in the Potgieter's Research

The data revealed major crime trends taking place in the South African universities and technikons. Results of this study show that no part of the campus is immune from criminal activity. Offices, class rooms, cafeterias, study areas, recreational venues, parking lots, campus bookshops, laboratories, etc. are the most vulnerable places. The various crime trends will be shown in simple frequency tables.

Theft on campus

Theft cases that occurred at tertiary institutions during the six-month period of this investigation is reflected in Table 2.5 below.

Table 2.5: Frequency Distribution of Theft Cases According to Month

Month in which theft occurred	Frequency	
	N	%
January	116	11.62
February	210	21.04
March	189	18.94
April	147	14.73
May	186	18.64
June	150	15.03
TOTAL	998	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

A total of 998 cases of theft was recorded. February showed the highest theft rate, namely 210 (21.04 per cent), followed by March (189 or 18.94 per cent) and May (186 or 18.64 per cent).

Table 2.6: Financial Loss Sustained Through Theft for the Period 1 January to 30 June 1992

Month in which theft cases occurred	Frequency	
	Financial loss sustained (rand)	Mean (\bar{x})
January	161 580	26 930
February	239 703	39 950
March	301 313	50 218
April	137 651	22 941
May	387 614	64 602
June	336 529	56 088
TOTAL	R1 564 390	260 729*

*Rounded off to nearest rand

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

Table 2.6 reveals a total financial loss of one and a half million rand that was suffered by tertiary institutions over a six-month period, with a mean average of R260 729. Table 2.6 shows clearly that during the month of May tertiary

institutions suffered the highest financial loss, namely R387 614, which is followed by June when the value of stolen property came to R336 529. March ranked third with R301 313, followed by February (R239 703), January (161 580) and April (R137 651).

Table 2.7: Description of Property* Stolen from the Period 1 January to 30 June 2000

Description category	Cases**
Computers (PCs)	17
Over head projectors, speakers, microphones	11
Video equipment, cassettes, etc.	14
Typewriters, telephone answering machines	17
Motor vehicles, bicycles, etc.	11
Office furniture and hostel furniture, etc.	12
Laboratory equipment	4
Staff/Student's private property	22
Musical equipment	7
Medical equipment	2
Library material (including textbooks)	12
Kitchen appliances	6
Cash (including purses)	11
Consumables	6
Firearms	1

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

* Only the most important categories of property were included

** Figures represent the number of institutions which reported theft cases and do not reflect the total number of theft cases.

Table 2.7 shows that staff and student's private property was the most vulnerable type of property reported to be stolen in the 25 institutions included in this research. Ranking second highest in the description of property stolen were personal computers and typewriters (including telephone answering machines) at 17 institutions respectively. Fourteen institutions reported the loss of video equipment, 12 reported the theft of library material (including textbooks in the library), and 12 reported the loss of office furniture. Eleven institutions recorded theft of motor vehicles and/or bicycles.

Table 2.8: Serious Assault Reported for Six Months Period at Tertiary Institutions by Month

Month in which serious assault was committed	Frequency	
	N	%
January	2	7.41
February	5	18.52
March	5	18.52
April	3	11.11
May	6	22.22
June	6	22.22
TOTAL	27	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

Table 2.8 reveals that during the months of May and June 6 (22.22%) of serious crimes of assault were reported respectively. Second were the months of February and March with each month having 5 (18.52%) of serious assault reported in the tertiary institutions taking part in this research.

In April 3 (11.11%) of serious assault was reported, followed by January with 2 (7.41%) of serious cases being reported.

Table 2.9: Types of Weapon/Instrument Used in Cases of Assault (both serious and common) During January - June 1992

Type of weapon/instrument used	Frequency	
	N	%
Knife	12	16.00
Assegai	1	1.33
Iron rod pipe	1	1.34
Bottle	5	6.67
Stick	6	8.00
Brick or rock	8	10.67
Fist	19	25.33
Open hand	15	20.00
Booted foot	6	8.00
Sjambok	1	1.33
Axe	1	1.33
TOTAL	75	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

In Table 2.9, 19 (25.33 per cent) cases victims fists had been used to settle disputes, while in 15 (20.00 per cent) cases victims were assaulted with an open hand. Knives were used in 12 (16.00 per cent) and bricks/rocks in 8 (10.67 per cent) cases.

Table 2.10: Analysis of Types of Injuries Sustained by Victims of Assault on Campuses

Type of wounds sustained by victims	Frequency	
	N	%
Stab wounds	11	17.19
Open wounds	12	18.75
Abrasions	8	12.50
Lacerations	7	10.94
Bruises	14	21.88
Incised wounds	7	10.94
Other	2	3.13
Unknown	3	4.67
TOTAL	64	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

Table 2.10 above shows 14 (21.88 per cent) of victims escaped with bruises. While 12 (18.75 per cent) victims sustained injury as a result of attack by offenders. Eleven (17.19 per cent) victims suffered stab wounds as a result of attack. Incised wounds were inflicted in 7 (10.94 per cent) cases. With lacerations 7 (12.50 per cent) victims suffered abrasions.

Table 2.11: Weapons/Instrument Used in Murder Cases

Type of weapon/instrument	Total
Firearm	2
Knife	-
Iron rod/bar/pipe	-
Kicked to death	1
TOTAL	3

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

Table 2.11 shows that three murder cases occurred at tertiary campuses; in two cases firearms were used and in one case the victim was kicked to death.

**Table 2.12: Frequency of Other Related Crimes on Campuses
(housebreaking and theft excluded)**

Description of crime	Frequency	
	N	%

Arson	9	1.79
Rape or attempted rape	9	1.79
Malicious damage to property	99	19.63
Trespass	206	40.87
Driving under influence of liquor	3	0.60
Drunk and disorderly behaviour	119	23.61
Possession of firearms	2	0.40
Public indecency	3	0.60
Riotous behaviour	34	6.74
<i>Crimen injuria</i>	3	0.60
Attempted abduction	1	0.20
Fraud	4	0.79
Bomb threats	2	0.40
Bomb explosions	2	0.40
Forgery and uttering	1	0.20
Possession of drugs (dagga, etc.)	7	1.38
TOTAL	504	100.0

Source: ACTA Criminologica, Vol. 6, No. 2, 1993

The frequency distribution of other related crimes committed on campuses for the six-month period of this research is shown on Table 2.12 above. The high rate of trespassing on tertiary campuses underlines the viewpoint of Bordner and Petersen (1983) that “off-campus” persons present the most formidable problem with regard to theft. On-campus thefts are committed by a small percentage of students. Drunk and disorderly behaviour rated second highest and it could be hypothesized that this kind of deviant behaviour occurs mainly over weekends.

Malicious damage to property also creates problems, because 2 institutions reported 99 cases where property was damaged - a mean average of 3.96 per institution over a six-month period (January - June 1992). Riotous behaviour is also a matter of great concern - especially during times of class boycotts. It could also be hypothesized that riotous behaviour has much in common with the present-day notion of a violent subculture (Cohen, 1956) and it seems that

whenever students demands are not met by decision-makers, this kind of behaviour appears to be the obvious solution.

Other crimes of great concern are arson and rape which have been reported on the 25 tertiary institutions participating in this research. Four cases of fraud were also reported. The nature or form of the cases is not known. It is also interesting to note that two cases of bomb threats and explosions were also reported.

A summary of Potgieter's research findings show that crime on campuses in South Africa is a reality. This study also confirms that tertiary institutions suffered severe financial losses, through housebreaking and theft.

The loopholes in Potgieter's research

- This research did not indicate clearly any classical or modern theory within which the study was conducted.
- The sample size: In my opinion, I do not think that his sample of 25 respondents is representative enough to enable him to generalize his findings to the 42 South African universities and technikons (including the TBV countries which he investigated).
- Sampling method: Potgieter never stated in his methodology his rationale for using purposive sampling. Since this is a non-probability sampling method, Potgieter cannot claim that his sample is representative of the larger population. This greatly limits him to generalize his findings beyond the specific sample he investigated.

- Lastly, Potgieter never stated in his methodology the rationale why he opted for the use of mailed questionnaires rather than other methods of data collection or a combination of them. I think the method of data collection that Potgieter used had the following disadvantages:
 - (i) Lacking in flexibility
 - (ii) His absence to observe non-verbal behaviour from his participants
 - (iii) He had no control over the environment in which the mailed surveys were taking place.

(b) Max H Bromely

Another research was conducted by Max H Bromely; at the University of South Florida; on the nature of campus crime. An attempt was also made in this research to describe the campus demographic and security features that might affect the number of crimes committed on large university campuses.

The demographic and security features in the Bromely's study were obtained from the 1992 edition of Barron's Profiles of American Colleges. The data source for the number of index crimes committed on campus was the 1991 Uniform Crime Report. The two largest universities from each state that reported data to the Uniform Crime Report were selected to comprise the sample analyzed in this exploratory study. Not all 50 states are represented in this study as universities are not mandated to report crime data to the Uniform Crime Report. Several of the UCR reporting institutions did not appear in Barron's. A total of 81 universities were used in this study.

Mean averages were computed for the following campus demographics for the 81 universities in this study: student population - 22 902; number of male students - 11 607; number of female students - 11 170; undergraduate student

age - 21.87; number of non-white students - 4 285; number of students living in dorms - 5 617; number of buildings on campus - 179; number of campus acres - 1 308; and number of index crimes - 680.

In addition, the following campus characteristics were identified for each institution: type of institution (public or private); the setting of the institution (small town, urban, suburban, rural); whether or not alcohol was allowed on campus; whether or not there was a large coliseum or football stadium on campus; and the level of security features.

The findings of Bromely's study are as follows:

A series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) tests for differences between the following independent variables were conducted to determine if they are associated with the number of index crimes on campus: setting, the presence of an on-campus stadium, whether or not alcohol was allowed, and level of security features. Significant differences were found for only one variable, the level of security ($F(5.66) = 2.50$ $p < .05$) (see Table 2.13 below).

Table 2.13: Select Variable ANOVA Analysis

Variable	df effect	df error	F-value	p level
Setting	3	74	2.00	.120645
Stadium	1	76	.891	.348194
Alcohol	1	74	2.05	.155704
Security	5	66	2.50	.038804*

* Statistically significant $< .05$ level

The results indicated that institutions having more security features also had more index crimes reported. However, institutions that were assigned the

highest level of security did not have the highest number of crimes reported on their campuses (see Table 2.14 below).

Table: 2.14: Level of Security and Number of Index Crimes

Level of Security*	Mean Number of Index Crimes
6	124
8	306
10	743
12	720
14	812
16	728

* 2 points were assigned for the presence of each security feature such as 24-hour patrol or an escort service. Higher scores indicate a greater number of security features.

Next, a correlation analysis was conducted to examine possible relationships between any of the independent variables and the overall number of campus index crimes. Several variables were highly correlated with the dependent variables at the .05 level of significance. Specifically: total student population ($r = 0.85$); number of male students ($r = 0.81$); number of female students ($r = 0.85$); number of non-white students ($r = 0.61$); and number of dorm students ($r = 0.66$). Table 2.15 below depicts each variable and its respective correlation.

Table 2.15: Correlations Between Campus Demographic Variables and Number of Index Crimes

Variable	Correlation (r)	Significant
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Population	.8465	yes
Number males	.8057	yes
Number females	.8495	yes
Average age	-.2513	ns
Number non-whites	.6078	yes
Number dorm students	.6556	yes
Type institution	.0088	ns
Number buildings	.4054	yes
Acreage	.3307	yes
Setting	.1203	ns
Stadium	-.1455	ns
Alcohol	.1317	ns
Security	.4194	yes

Yes = variable was statistically significant at the .05 level

Ns = variable was not statistically significant at the .05 level

Finally, a forward stepwise regression analysis was conducted. Results indicated that only two of the independent variables made a significant ($p < .01$) contribution to predicting the number of on-campus index crimes. The number of female students was the strongest predictor, accounting for almost 72% of the variation. The second variable, the number of dorm students, explained an additional 5% of the variation. Together these two variables accounted for almost 77% of the variation in the number of index crimes (see Table 2.16 below).

Table 2.16: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Predicting Number of On-Campus Index Crimes from Campus Demographics

Predictor Variable	R-Square	R ² -Change	F-Test	p-level
Number of female students	.721	.721	150.49	.0000
Number of dorm students	.769	.047	11.859	.0010

N = 81

In my personal view, the Max Bromely's study has the following loopholes:

Bromely never conducted the interviews in the 81 universities represented in his study but obtained the data from the Uniform Crime Report. I think that the findings of Bromley would not be the same if he had conducted the interviews in the 81 universities.

Again, not all 50 states are represented in this study, since universities are not mandated to report crime data to the Uniform Crime Report. This shortcoming makes it difficult for Bromley to generalize his findings to all universities in the 50 states.

(c) **Elizabeth H McConnel**

In another study conducted by Elizabeth H McConnell (1996), at Valdosta State University, on the fear of crime on campus: a study of a Southern University, the purpose of this research was stated as follows:

The purpose of the present research is to measure student fear of crime on the campus of a southern regional university. Data in the present research are limited to the following issues: (1) the characteristics of students, and (2) the characteristics of places on campus where students fear criminal victimization. By knowing the general characteristics of the students who are fearful, administrators can target them in campaigns to reduce the level of fear. Additionally, if one is aware of the physical characteristics of the environment

that enhances fear, changing the physical characteristics of the areas can also decrease fear of crime on campus. Present findings will be helpful in identifying specific on-campus safety concerns so that administrators can develop policies and programs to alleviate the fear of crime on campus among students.

The data were derived from a 50-item survey which was administered to a purposive sample of university students. The surveys were administered by trained persons who acquired permission from faculty to administer the survey to the professors' classes the third week of spring quarter, 1994. The university's Human Subjects Committee reviewed and approved the proposal to conduct the research. Students were guaranteed anonymity and advised that participation was voluntary. Less than 1% of the students elected not to participate and all professors agreed to requests to administer the questionnaire to their classes. The sample consisted of students attending classes listed in the Spring Quarter 1994 Schedule of Classes. The inability to survey a randomly selected sample resulted in the researcher identifying a purposive sample. The survey was personally administered to select classes, chosen on the rationale that the combination of classes which were selected would reflect a representative sampling of students attending the university.

The sample consists of 463 students, 253 (55%) females and 210 (45%) males, while the population is 62% (5,600) female and 38% (3,454) male. With regard to race, the sample is 73% (337) white and 27% (124) non-white, while the population is 79% (7,161) white and 21% (1,893) non-white. The age of the sample was collapsed into two age categories, younger than 25 (a traditional age student) and older than 24 (non-traditional age students). There are 363 (78%) traditional age students and 98 (21%) non-traditional age students in the sample. This compares to 68% (6,235) of the population who are younger than 25 and 23% (2,886) who are older than 24. In terms of

gender, race, and age, the sample is generally representative of the student body with age exhibiting the greater difference. The sample tends to be a little younger than the population. The age difference is best explained by the fact that surveys were not administered in graduate classes to students who tend to be older. (Note: the 13 graduate students in Table 2 (on page 103) are graduate students who were taking non-graduate courses to meet requirements of their conditional admission to graduate school). The sample consists of a disproportionately larger number of males, as well as African-Americans, than the population. Because the sample reflects 6% of the population and the proportional differences are minimal, it is argued that the sample is representative of the population in terms of gender, age, and race.

Other sample and population characteristics were compared, for example, academic classification, attendance status, and colleges in which students are seeking degrees. The greatest disproportion with regard to academic classification of the sample is in the senior and graduate class categories. As noted previously, graduate classes were not included in the sample. In terms of seniors, they comprise 150 (32%) of the sample, yet they represent 21% of the population. This means that the sample is characterized by an excess of seniors and not enough students from the freshman, sophomore, and junior classes.

In terms of attendance status, part-time versus full-time students, the percentage difference, when comparing the sample with the population is 10. In other words, there are a greater proportion of full-time students in the sample than in the population. This could also be an artifact of the absence in the sample of graduate students, since most graduate students attend the university on a part-time basis. As for the college in which the respondents are seeking degrees, the School of Education is the only school

that is characterized by a significant difference, for example, the students in this category comprise 34% of the population, while they reflect 11% of the sample. This constitutes a 23% difference. Even so, the researcher is convinced that when one considers the sample characteristics as a whole, the sample is representative of the population. Population data (see Table 2.17 and 2.18 below) were derived from the university's Quarterly Enrollment Report for Spring 1994 (Office of Research and Institutional Planning, 1994).

Table 2.17: Physical Attributes of the Sample and Population

Variable Percent	Sample	Population	#Cases	Percent	#Cases
Gender	Female	253	55	5.600	62
	Male	210	45	3.454	38
Race	Non-White	124	27	1.893	21
	White	337	73	7.161	79
Age	< 25 years	363	72	6.235	68
	> 25 years	98	21	2.886	32

Population N = 8.054 (does not include transient and joint enrolment students)

Sample n = 463 (include transient and joint enrolment students)

Table 2.18: Academic Characteristics of the Sample and Population

Variable Sample	Population	#Cases	Percent	#Cases	Percent
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Class	Freshman	96	21	2.615	29
	Sophomore	86	19	1.571	17
	Junior	119	26	1.567	17
	Senior	150	32	1.885	21
	Graduate	13	3	1.416	16
Attendance Status	Part-time	59	13	2.066	23
	Full-time	404	87	7.022	77
College	Arts & Sciences	143	31	3.060	34
	Business	93	20	953	10
	School of Art	52	11	544	6
	Nursing	20	4	695	8
	Education	42	9	3.091	34
	Miscellaneous	52*	11	746*	8

Population N = 8.054 (does not include transient and joint enrolment students)

Sample n = 463 (include transient and joint enrolment students)

* includes undecided majors

** does not include undecided majors

FINDINGS OF THE H McCONNEL'S RESEARCH

Students' fear of being a victim of crime on campus

The respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 to 10, how fearful or concerned they are about being a victim of crime on campus (VICTIMC). Ninety percent of the students (213 females and 205 males) reported that they experienced some VICTIMC fear. In fact, 50% of the students reported a fear level greater than five, 128 (30%) of which were females. When the relationship between VICTIMC fear and gender was analyzed, a statistical relationship resulted ($r = .4881$; $r^2 = .2382$; $p = .0000$). Interpretation of r^2 indicates that 24% of the variance in VICTIMC fear is explained by the independent variable, respondent's gender. The only other independent variable that was also discovered to be statistically related to VICTIMC is vicarious victimization, knowing a friend who has been a victim of crime on campus ($r = .1306$; $r^2 = .0171$; $p = .0052$). Although vicarious victimization and VICTIMC are statistically related, the association is negligible, for example

vicarious victimization explains only 1.7% of the variance in respondent's VICTIMC fear.

Fear of being a victim of a property crime on campus

Three independent variables, gender, victim of property crime on campus, and vicarious victimization, were determined to be statistically related to respondent fear of being a victim of a property crime on campus (VICTIMPC). Analysis indicated the following: (1) gender and VICTIMPC fear ($r = .2326$; $r^2 = .0541$; $p = .0000$); (2) victim of property crime on campus and VICTIMPC fear ($r = .1113$; $r^2 = .0128$; $p = .0150$); (3) vicarious victimization and VICTIMPC fear ($r = .1963$; $r^2 = .0385$; $p = .0000$). An examination of the results indicates that respondent gender explains more of the variance in VICTIMPC fear (5%) when compared to victim of property crime on campus, which explains 1.5% of the variance in VICTIMPC fear, and vicarious victimization which explain 4% of the variance in VICTIMPC fear.

Fear of crime when going out alone on campus

Fear of crime when going out alone on campus was measured by asking the sample to indicate on a scale of 1 to 10 the number that was the best indicator of their level of fear. Respondents provided information about their fear of crime when they went out alone on campus during the night (ALONEN) as well as during the day (ALONED). Thirteen percent of the students (11 females and 50 males) reported that they experienced no ALONEN fear while a majority of the sample, 258 (56%) reported no ALONED fear. In fact, only five percent (23 females) of the sample reported moderate to high ALONED fear (scale scores that ranged from 6 through 10). Because females tend to report higher levels of this type of fear, correlation analysis was conducted to determine if statistical relationships exist between ALONEN fear, ALONED

fear and respondents' gender. Statistical relationships were established for ALONEN fear ($r = .5998$; $r^2 = .3598$; $p = .0000$); and ALONED fear ($r = .3016$; $r^2 = .0909$; $p = .0000$). As expected, the relationship between students' ALONEN fear and gender was much stronger than the relationship with students' ALONED fear.

For example, gender explained 36% of the variance in ALONEN fear as opposed to gender only explaining 9% of the variance in ALONED fear. One other independent variable, victim of violent crime on campus, was found to be statistically related to ALONED fear ($r = .1028$; $r^2 = .0106$; $p = .0276$). Even so, the relationship between the victims of violent crimes on campus and ALONED is very weak with victims of violent crime on campus explaining only 1% of the variance in ALONED fear.

Fear of crime when jogging alone on campus

Students were asked to report the degree to which they feared being a victim of crime while jogging on campus during the night (JOGN) as well as during the day (JOGD). Respondents' level of fear was again measured using a 0 to 10 scale with 0 equalling no fear and 10 the highest level of fear. Sixty-nine students (15%) reported that they experienced no JOGN fear compared to 256 (60%) of the students who reported no JOGD fear. Ninety-eight females, as compared to 159 males, reported no JOGD fear. Examination of the relationships between gender and JOGD fear and JOGN fear resulted in the following: JOGN fear ($r = .5968$; $r^2 = .3562$; $p = .0000$) and JOGD fear ($r = .3129$; $r^2 = .0979$; $p = .0000$). Analysis indicated statistical relationships between JOGD fear and gender as well as JOGN fear and gender. Respondents' gender explained 36% of the variance in students' JOGN fear while respondents' gender explained 10% of the variance in students' JOGD fear.

Two other independent variables, respondents' hometown size and ever been a victim of a property crime, exhibited statistical relationships to JOGN fear. For example, Pearson's r results for respondents' hometown size and JOGN fear is $r = .0926$; $r^2 = .0086$; $p = .0483$, see Table 4. Although the two variables are statistically related, the association is weak as respondents' hometown size explains less than 1% of the variance in JOGN fear. The other independent variable, ever been a victim of a property crime, found to be statistically related to JOGN fear is characterized by the following results $r = .0957$; $r^2 = .0092$; $p = .0418$, see Table 4. This relationship is also weak in that the independent variable explains less than 1% of the variance in respondents' JOGN fear.

Fear of crime when walking from library to parking lot

Students' fear of crime when walking from the library to the parking lot was assessed by asking students to rate their level of fear on a scale of 0 to 10. Eighty-three (18%) respondents, 17 females and 66 males, reported that they experienced no fear of crime while walking from the library to the parking lot during the night (WLIBRARYN). Fifty-eight percent (266) of the respondents, 107 females and 159 males, reported no fear of crime while walking from the library to the parking lot during the day (WLIBRARYD). In fact, 98% of the sample reported less than a moderate level of this type of fear (5 and below). Examination of these fear variables with gender resulted in the following: (1) both WLIBRARYD fear and WLIBRARYN fear and gender were characterized by statistical relationships; (2) WLIBRARYN fear and gender is characterized by a stronger relationship ($r = .6000$; $r^2 = .3600$; $p = .0000$) and WLIBRARYD fear ($r = .2706$; $r^2 = .0732$; $p = .0000$) and gender. In fact, gender explains only 7% of the variance in students' WLIBRARYD fear while explaining 36% of the variance in students' WLIBRARYN fear.

Fear of crime when playing tennis on campus

Students also reported their fear of crime levels (0 to 10) while playing tennis on campus during the night (TENNISN) as well as day (TENNISD). As expected, the number of students (147 or 33%) reporting an absence of TENNISN fear was considerably less than the number of students (313 or 68%) who reported an absence of TENNISD fear. And as usual, males were the largest group to report an absence of TENNISD fear and TENNISN fear when compared to female students. Interpretation of Pearson's r indicates that both tennis fear variables are statistically related to respondents' gender. For example, TENNISN fear and gender is characterized by a probability value of .0000 while TENNISD fear and respondents' gender is characterized by a probability value of .0005. TENNISN fear exhibits a stronger relationship to gender ($r = .4343$; $r^2 = .1886$) and TENNISD fear and gender ($r = .1891$; $r^2 = .0356$). Respondents' gender explains 19% of the variance in TENNISN fear while gender explains only 4% of the variance in TENNISD fear.

Fear of crime when talking to a friend in front of one's dormitory

Eighty percent of the respondents indicated less than a moderate (0 - 5) fear of crime while talking to a friend in front of one's dormitory during the night (DORMN), while 98% reported less than a moderate (0 - 5) fear of crime while talking to a friend in front of one's dormitory during the day (DORMD). Examination of the two fear of crime variables for statistical significance to gender resulted in the following: (1) DORMN fear is statistically related to respondents' gender ($r = .4328$; $r^2 = .1795$; $p = .0000$); (2) DORMD fear is also statistically related to respondents' gender ($r = .2143$; $r^2 = .0459$; $p = .0000$); (3) gender explains 17% of the variance in DORMN fear yet gender explains only 5% of the variance in DORMD fear.

Fear of crime while walking from the classroom to the parking lot alone

Forty-nine percent (266) of the respondents indicated more than moderate levels (6 - 10) of fear of crime while walking to the parking lot from class alone during the night (PARKINGN), while only one percent (five) of the students reported more than moderate levels (6 - 10) of fear of crime while walking from the classroom to the parking lot alone during the day (PARKINGD). An examination of respondents' PARKINGN fear and gender indicates that the two are statistically related ($r = .5867$; $r^2 = .3442$; $p = .0000$). R^2 is interpreted as follows: 34% of the variance in respondents' PARKINGN fear is explained by gender. PARKINGD fear and gender are also statistically related ($r = .3186$; $r^2 = .1015$; $p = .0000$). However, this relationship is much weaker than PARKINGN fear and gender. For example, gender only explains 10% of the variance that is statistically related to PARKINGN fear is ever been a victim of a property crime ($r = .1255$; $r^2 = .0158$; $p = 0.074$). Although these two variables are statistically related, the association is weak, as ever been a victim of a property crime explains only 1.6% of the variance in respondents' PARKINGN fear.

Fear of crime while studying in the library alone

Fear of being a victim of crime while studying in the library alone at night (SLIBRARYN) is reported by 308 (204 females and 84 males) respondents. Even so, 44% of those reporting SLIBRARYN fear, indicate that their levels of fear are less than moderate (ranging from 1- 5). Of the 147 respondents reporting being fearful of crime while studying in the library alone during the day (SLIBRARYD), only 31 report more than a moderate level of fear (a range of 6 - 10). When gender and SLIBRARYN fear were analyzed using Pearson's r , the following results were derived: $r = .4594$; $r^2 = .2110$; $p = .0000$. When gender and SLIBRARYD fear were analyzed, the results indicate that the two

variables are statistically related ($p = 0.0001$) and that gender explains 4% ($r = -.2049$; $r^2 = .0420$) of the variance in respondents' SLIBRARYD fear. This is a much weaker relationship than SLIBRARYN fear and gender, as gender explains 21% of respondents' SLIBRARYN fear. Victim of a property crime was also found to be statistically related to SLIBRARYN ($r = -.1062$; $r^2 = .0113$; $p = .0232$), see Table 4. Even so, the strength of the relationship is weak as victim property crime explains only 1% of the variance in SLIBRARYN fear.

Fear of crime off campus

Students' fear of crime while off campus was also assessed. This was done to determine if fear of crime off campus is characterized by similar relationships when compared to fear of crime on campus. Students were asked to report their level of fear while off campus alone during the day (OFFD) and night (OFFN). These variables were then analyzed to determine if they were statistically related to students' gender, race, age, academic classification, hometown size, residence, class schedule and level of activity on campus. Gender was the only independent variable found to be statistically related to OFFN fear. For example, gender explains 36% of the variance in OFFN fear ($r = -.6062$; $r^2 = .3645$; $p = .0000$).

Three independent variables were found to be statistically related to OFFN fear. They are age ($r = .1002$; $r^2 = .0100$; $p = .0321$), gender ($r = -.3493$; $r^2 = .1220$; $p = .0000$), and size of hometown ($r = -.0940$; $r^2 = .0088$; $p = .0443$). Even though age and size of hometown are statistically related to OFFD fear, the relationships for both are negligible. For example, age explains only 1% of this OFFD fear. As was the case with the previous fear of crime variables, subjects' gender exhibits the strongest relationship to the dependent variable. Gender explains 12% of the variance in OFFD fear.

The significance of the three empirical studies that of PJ Potgieter, MH Bromley; and Elizabeth H McConnell in our literature review; is to show clearly that the crime rate is on the increase on university campuses. In addition to this, it also highlights one of our research problems which indicates that there is a relationship between the lack of proper paramilitary training among the security officers and their inability to control crime effectively in our campuses. This problem is indicated because the three empirical studies reviewed in this study fully recommend the urgent need to give proper paramilitary training to security officers to enable them to perform their duties efficiently, timeously and expeditiously.

Furthermore, the three empirical studies reviewed also indicate the need for the university management to establish a university “task force” to review strategies for effective crime prevention.

In view of the above literature review, we now derive the following hypothesis:

- Lack of co-operation from members of the university community is likely to hinder the role of the Protective Services Department in crime control.
- There is a relationship between the lack of proper paramilitary training among the Protective Services Officers and their inability to control crime effectively.
- The structured characteristics of the Protective Services in relation to the organisational structure of the university is likely to hinder their effectiveness.
- Lack of legal knowledge among staff of the Department of the Protective Services is likely to hinder their performance.

2.4 CONCEPTS USED IN THIS RESEARCH - OPERATIONAL DEFINITION

Conceptualization is necessary to enable the researcher to study, organize and differentiate the variables of the study. An operational definition is a series of instructions describing the operations that the research must carry out in order to demonstrate the existence, or the degree of existence, of an empirical occurrence represented by a concept. In other words, the meaning of every scientific concept must be specifiable by indicating a definite testing operation that provides a criteria for its application (Nachmias & Nachmias, 1976:17-18).

2.4.1 Protective services

In this research, this is the department which ensures safety and protection to the university community and its property. Almost all universities have protective units within their premises for the purpose of protection.

2.4.2 University community

For purposes of this research, the university community will be defined as the community of the University of Zululand.

2.4.3 Student

Funk & Wagnalls (1980:669) defines a student as one engaged in a course of study, especially in a college or university. In this research, a student is a

registered student at the University of Zululand regardless of the level of study which an individual is taking.

2.4.4 Staff member

For purposes of this research, a staff member will be defined as an employee of the University of Zululand whether employed temporary or permanent.

2.4.5 Protective service official

In this research, the protective service official is an employee of the Protective Services Department of the University of Zululand whether male or female.

2.4.6 Crime

Crime refer to a wide range of activities which include violent personal crime, property crime, organized crime and political crime. Van der Walt *et al.* (1982:22) distinguishes between crime defined juridically and crime defined in a non-juridical sense.

Juridically, crime can be defined as “ ... a contravention of the law to which a punishment is attached and imposed by the state” (Van der Walt *et al.* 1982:24). In other words, crime is any act which is forbidden by law, and, if detected is likely to be punished.

Van der Walt *et al.* (1982:31) defined crime in a non-juridical sense as “ ... an antisocial act entailing a threat to and a breach or violation of the stability and security of a community and its individual members”.

CHAPTER THREE

3. THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICES UNIT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

Table 3.1: The Organizational Structure of the Protective Services Department of the University of Zululand

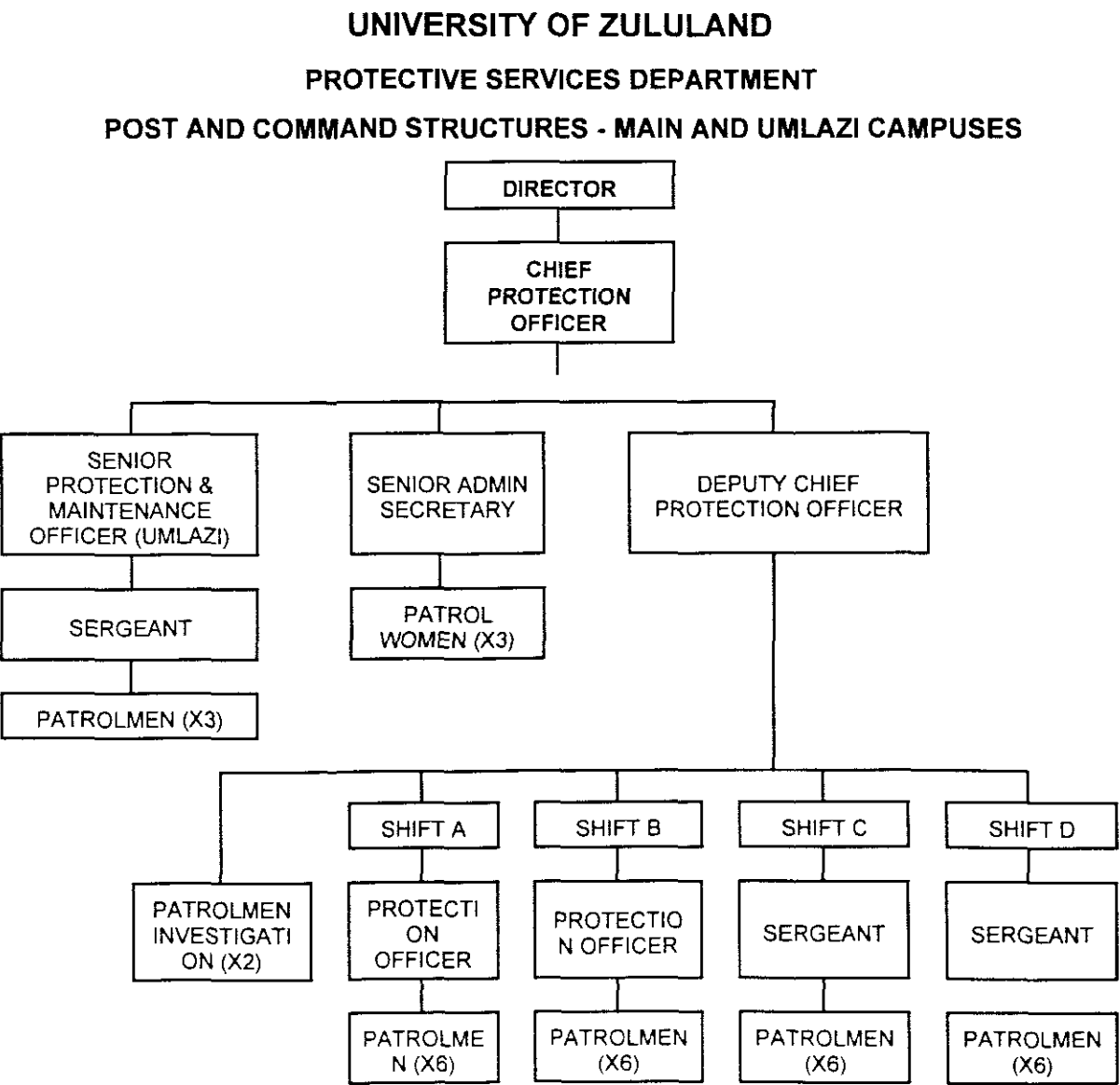


Figure 3.1: Organisation chart showing the post and command structure of the Protective Services Section of the University of Zululand

The above organizational structure shows that at the top of the hierarchy is the Director. Below the director is the chief protection officer. Below the chief protection officer are the senior protection and maintenance officer, the senior admin-security and the deputy chief protection officer. They all have the same

status in terms of authority in the department. However, below the senior protection and maintenance officers are the sergeant officers and below the sergeant officers are the patrolmen. In the same vein, below the senior administrator are the patrol women who are three in number. The structure of the organisation shows that the deputy chief protection officer has the largest number of officers to control in the organisation. A large number of the sergeants and patrolmen are directly under the deputy chief protection officer.

One of the striking features of this organisation structure is that it was created during the apartheid era; and it has not yet been transformed to reflect the present democratic South Africa. The structure does not allow for transparency. The director who is at the top of the hierarchy still here; veto over most of the internal decisions made by the staff members. The director has power to override majority opinion. The junior staff members still have to wait for the final decision of the director on burning issues. Thus, individual initiatives and creativity among the junior staff of the protective unit is virtually non-existence. What effect has the ultimate power over the junior staff member? Does this hinder the general performance of the unit? However, this will be fully investigated and discussed in our chapter on data analysis since it is one of the hypothesis to be investigated.

3.2 THE ORGANIZATION AND GENERAL DUTIES OF THE PROTECTIVE STAFF MEMBERS

3.2.1 General duties

The general duties and responsibilities of the Director, PSD and all ranks of the University of Zululand, PSD are as follows:

- (1) To maintain peace and order and public safety on the property of the University of Zululand, or property over which it has jurisdiction. The PSD will not usurp the functions and powers of the South African Police Service (SAPS). Members of the Department are in effect private citizens. They have no special powers conferred upon them other than the powers detailed for ordinary citizens and landowners in the Criminal Procedure Act 51 of 1977 and other relevant legislation.
- (2) To prevent criminal acts and contraventions of the statutory law, as well as violations of University regulations and rules.
- (3) To prevent sabotage, theft and traffic accidents.
- (4) To prevent all unauthorised persons from entering upon University property which is under PSD control.
- (5) To take all necessary steps to prevent the theft or misuse of the University's property, and to investigate all thefts of such property and endeavour to recover such property.
- (6) To promote goodwill and understanding between the University Management, staff, students and the general public.
- (7) The Director, PSD and all ranks of the PSD, will assist the SAPS in the execution of their duties when called upon to do so (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.2.2 Duties and responsibilities of the Protection Officer or Senior NCO

He is directly responsible to the D/C/P/O for the efficient performance of his duties, which include:

- (1) Assisting the D/C/P/O in the posting of men to their various duties.

- (2) Inspecting of men before mounting duty to ensure that they are smartly and properly dressed and in possession of the correct equipment.
- (3) Advising the D/C/P/O of any absentees through sickness or other cause in good time to allow for a relief to be found.
- (4) Reporting all cases of disobedience of orders to the D/C/P/O or his deputy.
- (5) Supervision of the running of the PSD Control Room and of men posted at their place of duty.
- (6) The correct behaviour of Patrolmen occupying University housing and ensuring that the rules in connection with such housing are properly observed.
- (7) Assisting the D/C/P/O in every way to improve the efficiency of the PSD.
- (8) Attending fires when necessary. The immediate reporting of all fire hazards to the D/C/P/O.
- (9) He will be responsible to the D/C/P/O for the proper induction of all new engagements to the PSD (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.2.3 Duties and responsibilities of shift NCOs

The Senior NCO on each shift, who may be a Protection Officer or a Sergeant, will be responsible for:

- (1) Leading, supervising and controlling his shift staff to allow them to be efficient in their security duties.
- (2) Parading and posting his staff to all posts as set out in the Duty Roster.
- (3) Inspecting the men at their place of duty during his shifts.
- (4) Reporting to the Deputy Chief Protection Officer all breaches of discipline by men on his shift.

- (5) Dealing with all complaints received at the Protective Services Office during the shift, such complaints will be further investigated with enthusiasm and intelligence until the end of duty times allow no further such work.
- (6) Taking immediate action to answer all fire calls.
- (7) Ensuring that the records and registers at the Protective Services Control Room are correctly kept during the shift.
- (8) Ensuring that the PSD vehicles are used only on authorised duty and that any misuse of, or accident to, such vehicle is reported. In order to conserve fuel, the vehicles are used only when absolutely necessary. Ensuring that the vehicles' "Daily Check Sheet" is completed before 10:00 hrs on the morning shift.
- (9) Arrange for the Alcotesting of Patrolmen suspected or reported to be under the influence of alcohol or drugs, and to complete the Examination Report.
- (10) When the two NCOs are on duty on the same shift the junior NCO will be responsible to the Senior NCO and will assist in performing the duties set out above. In the absence of the Senior NCO he will act on his behalf (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.2.4 Patrolmen (investigator)

The Patrolmen (Investigator) is directly responsible to the Chief Protection Officer for:

- (1) Any and all matters relating to the investigation of crime.
- (2) Ensuring that all investigation reports are submitted to the Chief Protection Officer.
- (3) Ensuring that the next senior member of the Investigation Section is at all times kept sufficiently conversant with the duties of the section so

that he will be able to take charge of the section efficiently and effectively if required.

- (4) He will perform any special duties that he may be called upon to do (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.2.5 Duties and responsibilities of patrolmen and trainee patrolmen

The main function of a Patrolman is to provide protection for the property, staff and students of the University of Zululand at all times and in all circumstances.

A Patrolman shall:

- (1) Carry out all beats, patrols, static guards and any other duties at any place or any time as the exigencies of the service may require and as may be designated by a superior.
- (2) At all times be alert and take all possible legal action to ensure the safety of the property, staff and students of the University. To apprehend, or endeavour to apprehend, any person who commits an offence in his presence or who is believed to be responsible for any offence listed in the First Schedule of the Criminal Procedure Act of 1977 (Section 42).
- (3) Report immediately to his NCO or officer any act of dereliction of duty on the part of a University staff member or student which might endanger the security of University property or the safety of University staff or students.
- (4) Parade for duty at the place designated 15 minutes before the commencement of such tour of duty.
- (5) Not in any circumstances leave his place of duty, beat or patrol without authority or sufficient reason, or until a relief has been properly posted.
- (6) Be trained in firefighting and be available for fire engine duties and practices when required.

- (7) Report to his superior any incidents or matters of protective interest.
- (8) At all times conduct himself in a proper manner that will bring credit to the PSD.
- (9) Maintain a notebook in which he must record all matters of interest and importance (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.3 MISSION STATEMENT OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICES DEPARTMENT

In co-operation with the various sections and departments and all other stakeholders of the University it is our mission to protect lives, property and reputation and create a campus environment wherein effective teaching, learning, research and community work can take place.

From this mission statement our objectives are:

- To protect persons through pro-active law enforcement and promote a safe and secure environment.
- To address issues that impede and disrupt the orderly operation of the academic effort.
- To protect the University's property by initiating police action (enforcing laws, regulations, staff discipline code, student discipline code and arresting offenders where lawful) and the education of the campus community concerning crime prevention methods.
- To protect the University's reputation by initiating action to deter acts or omissions than can, or have the potential to, damage to the good name of the University.
- To minimise liability and hazards to the University (Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand).

3.4 PRINCIPLES OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICES DEPARTMENT

It is the duty of every member of the University of Zululand PSD to cultivate good relations with all sections of the public, staff and students. They must always bear in mind that where such relations do not exist, members work under a severe handicap and cannot therefore be fully efficient. As it is essential that all members of the PSD conduct themselves in exactly the same way when confronted with problems, it is required that all members conform to a set of rules. These rules are called "Principles of the University of Zululand PSD". There are six main principles divided into two groups, namely:

- a) What we expect the public to do for us, and
- b) What we must do ourselves.

1.1 (What we want the public to do for us)

Co-operate - We require the willing co-operation of the public at all times. To try and force people to behave themselves and to do what we want them to do by threats of force and serious punishment is wrong. We want them to help us willingly because they respect us and are satisfied that we are there for a good purpose. We want the public to assist us without having to be asked or forced to do so.

1.2 **Respect** - This depends entirely upon our own behaviour, civility and consideration when dealing with the public and a high standard of personal cleanliness and turnout is essential if we are to obtain respect. But it should always be remembered that respect has to be earned. The public sees us in uniform and therefore judge us all on the standards of each one. One bad member of the PSD will give a bad name to the Department in

general. It is up to each member to ensure that his conduct is of the highest standard.

- 1.3 **Obedience** - To get the public to obey the law, rules and regulations which we enforce, we have to educate them into accepting that regulations are necessary, and have been instituted by the University for their safety, security and benefit. Most of all these are in place to ensure that the University achieves its objectives - that of turning out educated and cultured people who will in turn be of benefit to all of South Africa. The PSD does not make the laws, rules or regulations, but enforces existing University instructions for the mutual benefit of staff, students, management and the public.

The successful implementation of these regulations depends to a large degree on the manner in which they are enforced.

To obtain the co-operation and respect of the general public and students, it is necessary to show that the PSD exists not just for the benefit of the University, but also ensures that their safety, security and property is safeguarded.

The PSD does not exist for the purpose of inconveniencing or harassing the general public, staff or students.

- 1.4 (What we have got to do ourselves)

Lawful Force - We must remember to use force only when it is absolutely necessary. Only if force is used fairly and justly in the eyes of the public will we obtain their respect, willing obedience and co-operation. Unnecessary force of any kind will condemn us

in the eyes of the public and bring the PSD into disrepute. Only sufficient force should be used to achieve the required objective and as soon as the reason for the use of force falls away, then the use of that force should be stopped immediately.

- 1.5 **Impartial Service** - We must treat all persons in exactly the same way, no matter what their wealth, political views, personal relationship to us or their station in life may be. We have got to deal with those who are in the lowest positions in exactly the same way as we deal with those in the highest positions. Always remember that the public is always watching us and any unfair treatment will condemn us in their eyes. We must always avoid getting ourselves into a position where we are indebted to anyone. We must always perform our duties without fear or favour, malice or ill will.
- 1.6 **Self-Discipline** - Quite often we are going to be placed in positions where we are going to be abused or insulted by members of the general public, staff or students, even to the extent of them using force against us. We must at all times keep a cool head and maintain a high standard of discipline. A man who cannot control his own feelings cannot expect to control others, nor obtain the respect, willing co-operation and obedience of the public who are watching him. A member must remember at all times that a great trust and responsibility has been placed upon him by the University Management, and it is up to each member to maintain that trust in everything he does. To lose one's temper in trying conditions is very easy, but to keep it takes great willpower and strength of character. Remember that the best type of Security Officer is one who is always alert, observant,

firm but good humoured, discreet, but friendly, and above all fair and impartial in all his dealings with University employees, students and the public. He is also always ready to protect anyone who is in danger and to be helpful to anyone who is in difficulty.

- 1.7 **Complaints against members of the department** - Complaints against the PSD by University employees, students or members of the public made to any member of the PSD must be reported to a superior office without delay (*Policies & Procedures: PSD, University of Zululand*).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The principal aim of this chapter is to illustrate the method used by the researcher in soliciting the necessary information and data needed to investigate the research problems. The research problems as we have earlier highlighted are as follows:

- (a) To investigate if lack of co-operation from members of the university community is likely to hinder the role of the protective services in crime control.
- (b) To find out if there is any relationship between the lack of proper paramilitary training among protective services officers and their inability to control crime effectively.
- (c) To investigate if the structural characteristics of the protective services in relation to the organisational structure of the university is likely to hinder their effectiveness.
- (d) To examine critically if lack of legal knowledge among protective staff members is likely to hinder their performance.

4.2 POPULATION FOR THE STUDY

This study covers a total population of 110 respondents. The distribution of the respondents are as follows: students 64; academic and administrative staff 18; and the general staff 28. Members of the protective services interviewed are included among the general staff. We used the cluster system of sampling. The university study population for the research was divided into three main clusters, namely the student population, the academic and administrative staff and the general staff. The administrative staff includes all those involved in the administrative and academic work, while the general staff

includes staff members of the protective service unit, those in the maintenance, bookshop, kitchen hall, wardens and library departments.

The student population include both post-graduate and undergraduate students. Since the various departments were already divided into clusters, a purposive sampling technique was used to select the respondents from the respective stratum.

4.3 THE QUESTIONNAIRE

We used questionnaires to solicit the necessary information from the respondents. In the development of the questionnaire, we used closed-ended questions.

The rationale for this include the following:

- Answers obtained make comparisons between respondents easier.
- Answers are easier to code and analyse.
- The meaning of closed-ended questions is clearer which minimises the chance of respondents not answering questions.
- Respondents have minimal writing to do which makes it easier to fill in the questionnaire (Bailey, 1987:118).

The questionnaire was constructed in order to obtain information about the following:

- (i) Demographic characteristics of respondents: Question 1 - 7.
- (ii) Contact with Protective Services: Questions 8 - 10.
- (iii) Role of Protective Services: Questions 11 - 15.
- (iv) Effectiveness of Protective Services: Questions 16 - 70.
- (v) Crime reporting: Questions 71 - 99.
- (vi) Future of Protective Services: Question 100 - 110.

4.4 ETHICS OF THE STUDY

Collection of data in this research has been facilitated by the permission to undertake the investigation which was obtained from the Faculty Board of Arts of the University of Zululand.

Such permission constitutes an important element among the ethical issues in sociological research, i.e. the issue of informed consent of the subject(s) to be investigated. Vito *et al.* (1988:42) view informed consent as important to the research process in the following aspects:

- (a) Informed consent increases the ability of subjects to make a decision to participate.
- (b) It screens out those subjects who believe might be harmed.
- (c) Trust and respect is increased by showing the subject(s) that they are valued.
- (d) It reduces the legal liability of the investigator (Vito *et al.* 1988:42-43).

In this study, consent from subjects was obtained after the purpose of the study had been fully explained, and that included what would happen to the results, and also how would the subjects benefit from the study. Anonymity of the subjects was maintained and subjects were not forced to participate.

4.5 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Social science is often referred to, quite unfairly, as the study of the obvious. However, it is desirable, if not necessary, to test hypotheses about the nature of social reality, even those that seem logical and self-evident. Our everyday commonsense observations are generally based on narrow, often biased

preconceptions and personal experiences. These can lead us to accept without criticism invalid assumptions about the characteristics of social phenomena and behaviour.

The researcher used the chi-square (X^2) nonparametric test which is applicable to a wide variety of research problems. The chi-square allows us to test the significance of the difference between a set of observed frequencies (f_o) and expected (f_e), that is, between the given facts and the theoretical anticipation, in order to assess whether the facts support the theoretical considerations.

The chi-square statistic focuses directly on how close the observed frequencies are to what they are expected to be (represented by the expected frequencies) under the null hypothesis. Based on just the observed and expected frequencies, the formula for chi-square is:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(f_o - f_e)^2}{f_e}$$

Where f_o = observed frequency in any category

f_e = expected frequency in any category.

To interpret the chi-square value, we must still determine the appropriate number of degrees of freedom. This can be done for tables that have any number of rows and columns by employing the formula:

$$df = (r - 1)(c - 1)$$

where r = number of rows in the table of observed frequencies

c = number of columns in the table of observed frequencies

df = degrees of freedom

The degree of freedom of the problem must be defined, and the X^2 -table must be consulted.

To test the null hypotheses, any convenient level of significance will be used. This is the criterion for deciding whether the observed difference is significant or not, that is, whether the null hypothesis (H_0) has to be rejected or not. Obviously, the greater the differences between the observed and the expected frequency the more likely we have a significant difference, suggesting that the null hypothesis is unlikely to be true.

4.6 FIELD EXPERIENCE

Although informal observation of the Protective Services Department took place over a period of several years, formal data collection was conducted late in the year 2000.

Field work was conducted in two phases. The first phase consisted of informal contacts and conversations with officers. Gaining the confidence of officers did not prove to be problematic. Good rapport was established with most members of the Protective Services Department. Care was taken to avoid the appearance of a close alignment with anyone individual or group over another.

Time spent by the researcher with officers provided an opportunity for them to express their thoughts and opinions about their work - both positive and negative - to someone who was willing to listen in an objective non-judgmental manner.

On a more general level, acceptance of the researcher by senior officers was enhanced by their knowledge about research *per se*. For example, the Director, and Chief Protection Officer of the University Protective Services

provided the researcher with printed materials (e.g. Departmental organograms, mission statement of the Protective Services Department, crime statistics and manuals on policies and procedures of the department).

Upon completion of formal and informal conversations with officers, this resulted in the researcher formulating some hypothesis and questions for the construction of the questionnaire.

The second phase of the research consisted of the administration of the questionnaire to students and staff members. Informed consent was obtained from participants. Prior to administering the questionnaire, the nature and purpose of the study was explained to the subjects.

In short, all university students and staff who participated in the research were friendly, cordial and co-operative throughout the period of data collection.

For ethical reasons, it is necessary to point out some limitations and problems encountered which included the following:

- Lack of sufficient literature and studies on campus crime in Africa.
- The questions had to be translated to Zulu for some of the respondents.
- Some respondents refused to answer certain questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to analyse and discuss fully the research findings of those problems that we have earlier identified in the introductory part of chapter four of this study.

In order to test the hypotheses; simple percentages, Chi-Square analysis, official records of the protective services unit, oral interviews; and personal observation were used to investigate the identified research problem.

5.2 DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO SEX

Table 5.1: Distribution of the respondents according to sex

Sex	Frequency Distribution	
	N	%
Male	68	61.80
Female	42	38.20
Total	110	100.00

Table 5.1 above shows that 68 (61.8%) of the respondents were males while 42 (38.2%) of the respondents were females. Both males and females were represented on the sample, although the males were on the majority. The rationale for interviewing both sexes was on the assumption that there are significant differences on the attitudes of males and females towards the Protective Services Department.

Table 5.2: Distribution of the respondents according to race

Race of the respondents	Frequency Distribution	
	N	%
English	4	3.6
Afrikaans	1	0.9
Zulu	91	82.7
Xhosa	5	4.6
Swazi	9	8.2

Total	110	100.00
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Table 5.2 above reveals that the majority of respondents 91 (82.7%) were Zulu speaking people. 9 (8.2%) of the respondents were Swazi speaking. Table also shows that 5 (4.6%) of the respondents were Xhosa speaking, while 4 (3.6%) were English with only 1 (0.9%) being Afrikaans speaking respondent.

The above findings show that the University of Zululand has a population which is predominantly Zulu. Although in 1979 the University of Zululand opened its doors to other black tribal groupings with the addition of Whites, Asians and Coloureds, the fact of the matter is that the University of Zululand like all other historically Black universities was established for Zulu-speaking African people. The establishment of other universities was also based on ethnicity. For example, the University of the North was established for Sotho's, Venda's and Tsonga's, while the Western Cape University was for Coloureds, Durban-Westville for Indians, and Fort Hare and Unitra restricted to Xhosa speaking Africans. Hence, we have such a high number of respondents who are Zulu speaking in this research.

Table 5.3: Co-operation from members of the university community and the role of protective service

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff		Students		General Workers	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes, it hinders the role of protective services	15	83	60	93	26	93

No, it does not hinder the role of protective services	3	17	4	7	2	7
Total	18	100	64	100	28	100

The above Table 5.3 shows that among the administrative and academic staff interviewed on whether lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the protective services department from performing its roles effectively. 83 percent are of the view that lack of co-operation hinders the protective service from fulfilling its roles effectively. Only 17 percent of the administrative and academic staff do not agree that lack of co-operation from members of the university community is capable of hindering the protective services from achieving their roles effectively. When the same question was asked among the selected student population, 93 percent of the student population agreed that lack of co-operation from members of the community hinders the protective services from performing their roles. Only 7 percent of the students are of the view that lack of co-operation from members of the university community does not hinder the protective services unit from performing its role effectively. Among the general workers, 93 percent of them are of the view that lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the protective service unit from performing their roles effectively. While only 7 percent of them saying that lack of co-operation from members of the university community does not hinder the protective services in performing their roles effectively. For us to be able to establish the fact that lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the protective service unit from performing their roles effectively, we have to use the Chi-square (X^2) to fully establish the facts.

Hypothesis: Lack of co-operation from members of the university community is likely to hinder the role of the protective services unit.

H_0 : Lack of co-operation from members of the university community does not hinder the role of the Protective Services unit from performing their duties.

H_1 : Lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the role of the Protective Services unit from performing their duties.

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff	Students	General Workers	Total
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N
Yes, lack of co-operation hinders performance	15 (16.5)	60 (58.8)	26 (26.0)	101
No, lack of co-operation does not hinder performance	3 (1.4)	4 (5.2)	2 (2.3)	9
Total	18	64	28	100

Observed $X^2 = 2.3$

Df = 2

Critical value at 0.50 level of significance = 1.4.

Since $X^2 = 2.3$ and the critical value at 0.50 level of significance is 1.4 which is less than the observed X^2 , we reject H_0 (null hypothesis) and accept H_1 (alternative hypothesis).

This study therefore confirms that lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the protective services unit from performing its functions effectively. Furthermore, this study supports the functionalist analysis of the social systems especially the perspective of Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton. In their analysis of the social systems they are of the view that for any social system (society) to function properly, there must be full integration and co-operation of all the social structures that make up the social system. If we consider the university in its microcosm as a social system; and the various units or departments like the administrative staff, academic staff,

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student population, maintenance staff and protective services unit as the social structure, then there is a need for each unit to co-operate and be fully integrated.

The importance of co-operation within any social system is also seen in the work of Emile Durkheim in his analysis on the division of labour. Durkheim's chief interest in the division of labour in society was the role it plays in promoting or contributing to the maintenance of social order. He argues that the division of labour in society was the role it plays in promoting or contributing to the maintenance of social order. He argues that the division of labour in our society which lead to a high level of interdependence; is responsible for the existence of the society. In the same vein, we are arguing here that the division of labour at our university campus, that is, the different work performed by different units of the university; is responsible for the existence and smooth running of the university. All the departments are interdependent, for example, the academics depend on the administration, in the same way the administration depends on the academics to be able to function. In the light of this, the protective services needs the co-operation of other departments to be able to function effectively.

For the protective services unit to achieve its goals and objectives, the other units of the university need to co-operation with the protective services by giving them information where necessary and other possible assistance the protective services might need from them from time to time.

With regard to what must be done for the protective services unit to achieve a degree of efficiency in its operation, this will not be discussed in this research mainly because it is beyond the scope of this work.

Table 5.4: The relationship between proper paramilitary training among protective service officers and their ability to control crime

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff		Students		General Workers	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes, lack of proper paramilitary training hinders their performance	16	88	62	97	25	89
No, lack of proper paramilitary training does not hinder performance	2	12	2	3	3	11
Total	18	100	64	100	28	100

Table 5.4 confirms that lack of proper paramilitary training hinders the protective services unit from not performing their roles effectively. Among the academic and administrative staff members, 88 percent of them agreed that lack of proper paramilitary training hinders the protective services unit from performing its roles effectively. Only 12 percent are of the view that proper paramilitary training was not a hindrance. Among the student population, 97 percent are of the view that lack of proper paramilitary training was a hindrance to the protective services unit from performing their duties effectively. Only 3 percent are of the view that it is not a hindrance. In the case of the general workers, 89 percent agreed that lack of proper paramilitary training among the protective services unit was a hindrance in performing their roles. 11 percent are of the view that lack of proper paramilitary training is not a hindrance.

Hypothesis: The relationship between the lack of proper paramilitary training among protective services officers and their ability to control crime.

H_0 : Lack of proper paramilitary training among protective services officers does not hinder their ability to perform their roles.

H₁: Lack of proper paramilitary training among protective services officers hinders their ability to perform their roles.

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff	Students	General Workers	Total
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N
Lack of proper paramilitary training hinder their performance	16 (16.9)	62 (59.9)	25 (26.2)	103
Lack of proper paramilitary training does not hinder their performance	2 (1.1)	2 (4.1)	3 (1.8)	7
Total	18	64	28	110

Observed $X^2 = 2.78$

Df = 2

Critical value at 0.50 level of significance = 1.4.

Since $X^2 = 2.78$ and the critical value at 0.50 level of significance is 1.4 which is less than the observed X^2 , we reject H₀ (null hypothesis) and accept H₁ (alternative hypothesis).

This research confirms that lack of proper paramilitary training hinders the ability of the protective services unit to perform their duties. The importance of training cannot be over-emphasised here. Past empirical studies on organisations have shown that both on-the-job training and off-the-job training is an essential part of an organisational process. For example, the work of Mondy (1981:196) shows that training and development programmes must take priority as a management task. He is of the view that management must give full support to training programmes. The support must be real and it should be communicated, to all concerned in the organisation. True support becomes evident when the top management provides the resources needed for the training and development function. Workers in the organisation must

constantly update their skills and they also need to develop an attitude that permits them not only to adapt to change but also to accept future challenges.

Staff of the protective services unit must be encouraged by the management of our university to improve their skills so as to be able to perform their roles effectively. It is also the responsibility of the university management to provide all the necessary resources that would enable its workers to improve their skills. The university management must realise that the purpose of training is to effect change in worker's behaviour, and information must be learned if change is to take place.

Straus (1980:397) in his empirical study on training, he argues that the efficiency of any organization depends on how well its members are trained. He showed clearly that newly hired employees usually need some training before they take up their work, other employees require training to keep alert to demands of their present jobs and be prepared for transfers and promotions. Training also motivates employees to work harder. Employees who understand their jobs are likely to have higher morale. Effective managers recognize training as an on going continuous activity and not a close ended activity. Straus is of the view that at the one extreme training consists of a few hours of induction by the supervisor who gives the new employee a skeleton outline of company policies. Training consists of several years of formal courses designed to develop both qualified and unqualified personality. Straus further buttressed the fact that almost everything that happens to employees after they join any organization serve as a training experience. Supervisors may train subordinates without even being aware of it in many companies. He finally submitted in his research on training that for any visible progress to be made in any organization, members or staffers of that organisation must be trained from time to time and that periodic training also permits systematic introduction of new methods and techniques.

Recent research by BJ Erasmus (1996) on training also emphasized the importance of training in an organisation. He stated clearly in his research findings that South Africa is in a position where a large percentage of its population is unskilled. Therefore, the task of providing training, whether career oriented or not, cannot be borne by the formal education system alone as it is simply not possible in practical terms to deal with vast numbers. Enterprises therefore also have a responsibility to contribute towards effective training of their employees and in so doing to counter the national illiteracy problem. The summary of his study show that training creates a better co-operate image, and improves the relationship between superior and subordinate. It contributes to increased productivity and quality of work. It helps to keep costs down, it improves the organizational climate, and it helps employees adjust to change and also creating a positive climate for growth and communication.

Our research findings on the need for proper paramilitary training for the protective services unit also confirm with the earlier studies on training by Mondy (1981), Straus (1980) and Erasmus (1996). The inference we can draw from our research and the above past studies on training is that training is the building block of any organisation. It must be encouraged at all levels. Any attempt by management to neglect training will not only affect the level of productivity of that organisation but it will lead to the decay of the organisation.

Table 5.5: The effects of the organisational structure of the protective service unit on the staff performance

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff	Students	General Workers
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	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes, the organizational structure affects the staff ability to perform their duties properly	14	78	58	91	23	82
No, the organizational structure does not affect the staff ability to perform their duties properly	4	22	6	9	5	18
Total	18	100	64	100	28	100

Table 5.5 shows that 78 percent of both the administrative and academic staff are of the view that the organizational structure of the protective services unit affects the ability of the staff to perform their duties effectively. Only 22 percent of them disagreed with the view that the organizational structure affects the staff ability to perform their duties effectively. Among the student population, 91 percent of them agree that the organizational structure affects the staff ability to perform their duties effectively. 9 percent disagreed that the organizational structure affects the staff ability to perform their duties effectively. With regard to the general workers, 82 percent of them are of the opinion that the nature of the organizational structure affects the ability of the workers to perform their duties, only 18 percent disagreed. To be able to establish a valid argument that the nature of the organizational structure affects the staff performance of the protective staff unit, we have to use the chi-square (X^2) analysis to establish the facts.

Hypothesis: The organisational structure of the protective services unit is likely to hinder the effectiveness of the staff.

H_0 : The organisational structure of the protective services unit has no effect on the workers performance.

H_1 : The organisational structure of the protective services unit has an effect on the workers performance.

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff	Students	General Workers	Total
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N
Yes, organisational structure affects performance	14 (15.5)	58 (55.3)	23 (24.2)	95
No, organisational structure does not affect performance	4 (2.5)	6 (8.7)	5 (3.8)	15
Total	18	64	28	110

Observed $X^2 = 2.43$

Df = 2

Critical value at 0.50 level of significance = 1.4.

Since $X^2 = 2.43$ and the critical value at 0.50 level of significance is 1.4 which is less than the observed X^2 , we reject H_0 (null hypothesis) and accept H_1 (alternative hypothesis).

This research shows that the organisational structure of the protective services unit adversely affects the performance of the staff. It can still be recalled that the organisational structure of the protective services unit was set up during the apartheid era and it has not changed to reflect the present day democratic South Africa.

It was mentioned in chapter three of this research that the present structure of the protective services does not allow for any transparency. A careful analysis of the present structure shows clearly that in terms of its hierarchy, the Director who is on top of the hierarchy, has the power to veto decisions made by junior members of his department. The findings of this research show that this absolute power invested in the Director, negatively affects the performance of junior staff members; who might be afraid to say anything with regard to their work for fear of victimisation.

Table 5.6: Legal knowledge and staff performance in the protective service department

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff		Students		General Workers		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Yes, lack of legal knowledge affect the staff performance	12	67	50	78	18	64	80
No, lack of knowledge does not affect the staff performance	6	33	14	22	10	36	30
Total	18	100	64	100	28	100	110

Table 5.6 shows that 67 percent of both the academic and administrative staff are of the view that lack of legal knowledge among members of the protective service unit affect them in performing their duties effectively. Only 33 percent of both the academic and administrative staff disagree with the view that lack of legal knowledge affects the protective service unit in performing its duties effectively.

Among the student population, 78 percent of them agree that lack of legal knowledge affects the performance of the protective services unit. Only 22 percent of the student population is of the view that lack of legal knowledge does not affect the performance of the protective service unit.

With regard to general workers, 64 percent of those interviewed are of the view that lack of legal knowledge among members of the protective service unit affects their work performance. Only 36 percent of the general workers are of the view that lack of legal knowledge does not affect the performance of the protective service unit.

Hypothesis: Lack of legal knowledge among the protective services unit is likely to hinder the performance of the staff.

H₀: Lack of knowledge does not hinder the performance of the staff members in the protective services unit.

H₁: Lack of knowledge hinders the performance of the staff members in the protective services unit.

Response	Academic and Administrative Staff	Students	General Workers	Total
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N
Yes, lack of knowledge hinders the staff performance	12 (13.0)	50 (46.5)	18 (20.3)	80
No, lack of knowledge does not hinder the staff performance	6 (4.9)	14 (17.5)	10 (7.6)	30
Total	18	64	28	110

Observed $X^2 = 37.8$

Df = 2

Critical value at 0.50 level of significance = 1.4.

Since $X^2 = 37.8$ and the critical value at 0.50 level of significance is 1.4 which is less than the observed X^2 , we reject H₀ (null hypothesis) and accept H₁ (alternative hypothesis).

This study confirms that the majority of the staff members of the department of the protective services unit lack legal knowledge and this affects their performance.

This finding supports the work of Rycroft and Jordaan (1992:156) who recognized the need for consistency in the application of disciplinary rules, without being rigid or inflexible. Rycroft and Jordaan are of the opinion that like cases should be treated alike - not by reference to the technical

classifications of the relevant offences, but with regard to their substance, the circumstances under which they were committed and the position of the offender.

It would, for example, be unfair of the Protective Services Department to start enforcing disciplinary rules which had not been enforced consistently in the past, without prior warning to the university community. Similarly, the Protective Services Department is not allowed to act selectively or to discriminate in respect of employees who are guilty of the same crime.

The protective services officials hired to protect persons and university property are expected to act in a reasonable and rational manner. If they do not, the employers may be held civilly liable for their unreasonable actions. For example, if the protective services officer is carrying a firearm, his or her unreasonable action may have deadly consequences. A case in point: *Gulf Oil Corporation vs Williams*, [647 SW 2^d (1982)] seems to properly set the stage for an examination of employer's liability for the improper use of firearms by their security personnel.

Williams had purchased gas at a Gulf Station in Houston and after paying was returning to his car. Gory, a security guard employed by Empire Security Agency and furnished to Gulf under contract, for some unexplained reason believed Williams had robbed, or was attempting to rob, the cashier. As Williams left the cashier, Gory followed him to his car. Two witnesses testified Gory walked up to the car, stuck a gun through the window and shot Williams in the head and hand.

The court upheld the finding that Gory was incompetent and unfit to be a security guard. They said the testimony of the eye witnesses, as to Gory's arbitrary and capricious action, was sufficient to support such a finding. The

employer of such a person is liable for damages for injury he causes to others while in the performance of his duties.

In short, legal knowledge of substantive fairness and procedural fairness is important for the Protective Service Department to enable it to handle different criminal offenses.

Table 5.7: Frequency of rape on campus of the University of Zululand

Description of Crime	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Rape on Campus	110	100.0
Total	110	100.0

Table 5.7 above reveals that 110 (100%) of the respondents interviewed in this research are of the opinion that rape on campus is definitely not a problem at all. In terms of the statistics obtained from the Protective Service Department of the University of Zululand, the statistics indicate that, in 1997, no rape cases were recorded by the Protective Service Department. In 1998, 2 rape cases were recorded by protective services and in 1999, no cases were reported to the Protective Service Department.

The inference we can draw from the above statistics is that although there were only two cases recorded from 1997 - 1999, this does not mean that there were no other incidents of either attempted rape, or rape, as some people would prefer not to report the crime at all for reasons better known to them. While others would prefer to report the crime to the South African Police Service rather than to the Protective Services Department of the University.

For example, Territo (1984:9) tells us that rape is one of the most under-reported of all serious crimes on campus, for the reasons listed hereunder:

- lack of belief in the ability of campus police to apprehend the offenders.
- concern that the victim would receive unsympathetic treatment from campus police officials and would have to go through discomforting procedures;
- embarrassment of publicity; and
- fear of reprisal by the rapist.

5.3 THEFT OF VEHICLES

Table 5.8: Frequency of vehicle theft on campus of the University of Zululand

Theft of Vehicles	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Definitely a problem	17	15.5
More of a problem	9	8.2
Less of a problem	25	22.7
Not a problem	59	53.6
Total	110	100.0

Respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view the theft of vehicles on campus as a problem. Table 5.8 above reveals that 59 (53.6%) of the respondents view car theft on campus of the University of Zululand as no problem at all. The table also shows that 25 (22.7%) of the respondents view car stealing as less of a problem, while 17 (15.5%) of the respondents view car theft as definitely a problem, with only 9 (8.2%) of the respondents viewing car theft as more of a problem.

In terms of the statistics obtained from the Department of Protective Services, there were three stolen vehicles in 1999 with a total estimated loss of R61 000.00 in value.

5.4 THEFT ON CAMPUS

Table 5.9: Frequency of theft on campus of the University of Zululand

Theft of Campus	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Definite problem	97	88.2
More of a problem	13	11.8
Total	110	100.0

Respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view theft on campus as a social problem. Table 5.9 above shows that 97 (88.2%) of the respondents view theft on campus as a definite problem, while 13 (11.8%) of the respondents view theft on campus as more of a problem.

According to the statistics obtained from the Protective Service Department, for example, in 1997, there were 30 recorded cases of theft on campus. From 1997 - 1998, a total estimate value of loss was R135 349.71. From 1998 - 1999, the total number of thefts increased from 30 to 39 recorded cases, with an estimate loss of R36 347.99 in value.

In their survey of campus crime in the United States, Bordner and Petersen (1983) found that "off-campus persons" presented the most formidable problem with regard to theft.

Powell (1981:26) points out that students are frequently the victims of campus theft, with dormitories and parked vehicles as the principal target.

The inference we can draw from the above table is that on-campus thefts are committed by a very small percentage of students and staff. Outsiders

contribute to the escalating of the theft on campus of the University of Zululand.

5.5 PROPERTY DAMAGE

Table 5.10: Frequency of property damage on campus of the University of Zululand

Property Damage	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Definitely a problem	42	38.2
Not a problem	33	30.0
More of a problem	35	31.8
Total	110	100.0

The respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view damage to property as a problem on campus. Table 5.10 above shows that 42 (38.2%) of the respondents view damage to property as definitely a problem, with 35 (31.8%) of the respondents viewing damage to property as more of a problem, while 33 (30.0%) of the respondents indicated that damage to property is not a problem at all.

In terms of the statistics obtained from the Protective Service Department of the University, during 1997, the number of recorded break-ins reported to the protective service was 69. In 1998, the number of recorded cases dropped to 34. The estimate value of loss as a result of the break-ins (with or without theft) was R155 071.55. In 1998, the number of recorded break-ins increased from 34 - 36 cases. The estimate value of loss from 1998 - 1999 was R163 079.23.

The above statistics from the Protective Service Department shows clearly that staff, students and university private property suffered a great financial loss as a result of crime to their properties.

5.6 ROBBERY ON CAMPUS

Table 5.11: Frequency of robbery on campus of the University of Zululand

Robbery on Campus	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Definite problem	44	40.0
More of a problem	38	34.5
Uncertain	5	4.5
Less of a problem	23	21.0
Total	110	100.0

The respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view robbery on campus as a social problem. Table 5.11 shows that 44 (40.0%) of the respondents indicate that robbery on campus is definitely a problem. The table also shows that 38 (34.5%) of the respondents indicated that robbery is becoming more of a problem on campus. Further, the table reveals that 23 (21.0%) of the respondents indicated that robbery on campus has become less of a problem, with only 5 (4.5%) of the respondents indicating their uncertainty whether robbery is definitely a problem, more of a problem, less of a problem or no problem at all.

According to the statistics obtained from the Protective Service Department, in 1997, only two cases of robbery were reported to the protective services and in 1998, only 3 cases of robbery were reported to the protective services. The total estimated value of loss from 1997 - 1998 was R9 849.00. In 1998, the number of robbery cases increased to 8, and in 1999 the number of robberies

increased further from 8 - 11. The total estimated value of loss from 1998 - 1999 was R19 267.00.

The above statistics shows clearly the financial losses sustained as a result of robbery.

5.7 OTHER RELATED CRIMES ON CAMPUS

Table 5.12: Frequency of other related crimes theft on campus

Description of Crime	Frequency Distribution	
	N	Percentage
Physical assault		
Definitely a problem	18	16.4
More of a problem	1	0.9
No problem	91	82.7
Total	110	100.0
Arson		
Less of a problem	8	7.3
More of a problem	18	16.4
Uncertain	6	5.5
Definite problem	5	4.5
No problem at all	73	66.4
Total	110	100.0
Drunk and disorderly		
Definitely a problem	73	66.4
Uncertain	10	9.1
More of a problem	27	24.5
Total	110	100.0

The frequency distribution of other related crimes are shown on Table 5.12 above. With regard to physical assault, respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view physical assault as a problem on campus of the University of Zululand. The table shows that 18 (16.4%) of the respondents view assault on campus as definitely a problem, while 91 (82.7%)

of the respondents view physical assault as no problem at all, with only 1 (0.9%) of the respondents view physical assault as more of a problem.

In terms of the statistics obtained from the Protective Service Department, in 1998, a total of 18 cases were recorded. Of these cases, 6 consisted of females who had been assaulted on campus, while 12 of the cases consisted of males. In 1997, the number of recorded cases of physical assault was 30. In 1998, the number of recorded cases of physical assault on campus was 18. In 1999, the number of recorded cases of physical assault increased from 18 - 25. Out of the 25 cases, 10 consisted of females who have been physically assaulted, and the other 15 consisted of males' who have been physically assaulted.

Arson, which is destructive in nature like rape, calls for a higher demand for sufficient security measures.

Drunk and disorderly, alcohol is not an illegal substance, and for this reason, policing revolves mostly around the aftermath of its abuse - especially in the form of antisocial behaviour, vandalism and personal injuries. Most of the consequences of overindulgence are rather petty in nature, do not merit an arrest, and can even be handled where necessary through the disciplinary process (Powell, 1981:14-15).

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter intends to draw some conclusions on the basis of the findings made in this research. Thereafter some recommendations will be made and a plan of action proposed. The primary aim of this study was to find out by

means of empirical investigation the role of the protective service and crime control on campus of the University of Zululand.

Several important conclusions are derived from the data analysis of this research. The preceding findings indicate clearly that crime exists on campus of the University of Zululand, and it must be controlled.

It is concluded that the sample characteristics reflect the characteristics of the population, therefore the findings can be generalised to similar universities whose populations are similar to the population at the Research University and have a campus environment similar to the Research University.

The hypotheses that were formulated for statistical testing revealed the following:

Lack of co-operation from members of the university community hinders the role of the protective services in controlling crime.

The findings of this research support the functionalist perspective especially the work of Talcott Parsons and Robert Merton's analysis of social systems. Looking at the university community as a social system, its parts consists of: the student population, academics, administration staff and the protective services, to mention a few. In terms of this perspective, each part of the university exists because it has a vital function to perform in maintaining the existence of stability of the university community as a whole. A disturbance in any part of the university tends to bring about adjustments elsewhere in order to restore the state of harmony or stability.

Since all the parts of the university community are interrelated and interdependent; it is therefore important for the other parts of the university to co-operate with the protective services unit (part) from time to time. This co-

operation with other parts of the university community will assist the protective services unit to achieve its goals and objectives effectively.

On the issue of whether lack of paramilitary training among the protective services officials results in their inability to control crime effectively.

The research findings supports the work of Mondy (1981) in which he argues that training and development programmes should be considered as a priority by management in any organisation. Supporting Mondy in this argument are (De Cenzo & Robbins, 1994:255) who are of the opinion that training is a learning experience in that it seeks a relatively permanent change in an individual that will improve his or her ability to perform on the job.

Further, De Cenzo and Robbins suggest that development focuses on future jobs in the organization. As the individual's career progresses, new skills and abilities are required.

Straus (1980) in his research also argued that the efficiency of any organization depends on how well its members are trained. Straus emphasized that periodic training of employees is necessary since it permits for the systematic introduction of new methods and techniques.

Arguing in the same vein, BJ Erasmus (1996) stated in his research findings that a large percentage of the population in South Africa is unskilled. Erasmus also stated that training whether career orientated or not, should not be the sole responsibility of formal education alone. Enterprises also have the responsibility to contribute towards training and development of its employees.

In the light of the above, it is therefore important for the management of the University of Zululand to support the protective services department by

providing the necessary resources that would permit the staff of this department not only with the skills to adapt to change but also with the skills to accept future challenges.

Lastly, training for the protective services officials must be result-orientated, it must focus as well as aim at enhancing those specific skills and abilities to perform their jobs. It must also be measurable and make a real contribution to improving both goal achievement and the internal efficiency of the university.

On the issue of whether lack of legal knowledge among members of the protective service department at the University of Zululand hinders their performance on crime control.

The findings of this research support the work of Rycroft and Jordaan (1992:156) who recognized the need for consistency in the application of disciplinary rules. As a result, the protective services department is not allowed to act selectively or discriminate in respect of employees who are guilty of the same crime. Knowledge of substantive fairness and procedural fairness is important for the protective services to enable it to handle different criminal offenses successfully.

The findings of this research also revealed that the present structure of the protective services unit has an effect on the worker's performance since it does not allow for transparency. It should be recalled that the present structure of the protective services unit was established during the apartheid era and has not changed to reveal the new democratic South Africa.

Tables presented in Chapter Five revealed that in all cases respondents who had negative views on the quality of the services being rendered by the

protective services, considered crime to be more serious problem than other respondents.

On the issue of theft where respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view the theft of vehicles on campus as a problem. 53% of the respondents view car theft on campus of the university as a serious problem. These findings were supported by the statistics obtained from the protective services department which gave an estimated of loss as a result of vehicle stealing in 1999 at R61 000.00

On the issue of theft on campus respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view theft on campus as a problem. 88.2% of the respondents view theft on campus as a definite problem. These findings were supported by the statistics obtained from the protective services department which indicated that from 1997 - 1998, a total estimate value of loss was R135 349.71. From 1998 - 1999 the estimated loss was R36 347.99 in value.

Of note is the finding that high rate of trespassing at the University of Zululand underlies Bordner and Petersen (1983), that 'off-campus' persons present the most formidable problem with regard to theft.

In situations where respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view damage to property as a problem on campus. 38.2% of the respondents view damage to property as a definite problem. These findings were supported by the statistics obtained from the protective services department which gave an estimated loss of R163 079.23 in value from 1998 - 1999.

On the burning issue of recent robbery on campus, the respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 0 - 5, how they view robbery on campus as a

problem. 40.02% of the respondents view robbery on campus as a definite problem. These findings were supported by the statistics obtained from the protective services department which gave an estimated loss in value of R9 849.00 from 1997 - 1998, and an estimated loss in value of R19 267.00 from 1998 - 1999 as a result of robbery on campus.

In terms of physical assault the respondents were asked to indicate on a scale of 0.5 how they view physical assault as a problem on campus. 82.7% of the respondents view physical assault as no problem at all. While 16.4% of the respondents view assault on campus as definitely a problem. In terms of the statistics obtained from the protective services department, in 1997 the number of recorded cases of physical assault was 30. In 1998 the number of recorded cases of physical assault was 18. In 1999, the number of recorded cases of physical assault increased from 18 - 25.

The study therefore recommends the following:

Crime prevention programs

For example, it might be useful to establish a University 'task team' to review strategies for effective crime prevention on campus. This team could comprise of the representatives from the campus departments such as officials from the Protective Service Department, Dean of Students, representative from the PP & W section, and representatives from the Administration staff and students. This team would be responsible for developing a list of steps to be taken to help reduce opportunities for crime on campus of the University of Zululand.

This program could include the following aspects (Bordner & Petersen, 1983:199-203):

- Operational identification
- Premise surveys
- Provision of general information to the University community.

Operational identification: This is an anti-theft program designed to deter burglary on campus and, failing that, to aid police determining ownership of recovered and stolen property.

Premise survey: A premise survey is a security analysis of an existing facility at a specific location on campus (e.g. student accounts area, physical education building, physical science lab, transport section, PP & W section, and so forth). The basic purpose of analysis is to point out existing physical and procedural security deficiencies in and around the facility and suggests courses of action to correct problems.

Thirdly, General information, provision of general information to the University community in an attempt to make the community itself more security conscious. For example, warning signs are strategically located in the library providing information as to individual responsibility for personal belongings.

In addition to the above three aspects of crime prevention identified by Bordner and Petersen, the establishment of a university 'task team', could also explore the feasibility of developing support resources to assist those who have been victims of crime.

It could also be appropriate for the university 'task team' to review the physical environment of the whole campus with specific attention being paid to hostel areas (Jeffrey, 1971) has long argued that buildings should be built with safety and security features in mind.

Another step that the protective services department could take would be to assign protective services officials to the student residence and university houses on campus 24-hours a day. This step would reflect the concept of community-orientated policing now being practised by many universities in the USA.

Another step might involve establishing a paid student dorm patrol. People hired for these jobs should be carefully screened and trained. These people could serve as eyes and ears for suspicious persons and activities. If equipped with some two-way radio, they could assist other members of the university community by contacting the protective services department in emergency situations.

Internal and external lighting systems should be sufficient, from a security stand point. Trees and shrubbery adjacent to hostels, campus houses and lecture halls should be kept cut back to reduce the opportunities for prevention of would be assailants.

On 25 January 2001, the Department of Protective Services of the University of Zululand issued a very important memorandum entitled: **“CRIME IS EVERYBODY’S BUSINESS”**. This memorandum gives hints about the **DO’s** and **DON’TS**, in the prevention of crime at the University of Zululand. It is recommended that this memorandum could be developed into a protection brochure and be made available to students especially during the orientation period for first years at the University. It is also recommended that the Human Resources Department of the University could also give the same brochure to all new staff members.

It is also recommended that the Government of South Africa could also adopt the Campus Security Act of 1990. At the Federal level, former President Bush

signed this Crime Awareness and Security Act of 1990. This law requires almost all public and private colleges and institutions of higher learning to collect and report information about crime that occurs on their campuses.

According to this law, College students and their parents are entitled to receive campus crime data, according to regulations issued by the US Department of Education. 'Consumers have a right to know what they are buying', and campus crime statistics and safety procedures provide critical information for any parent or student when selecting a college. If consumers can find out the safety records of motor vehicles, surely they should have access to the same information for college campus.

According to this law, Colleges and Universities are required to distribute an annual security report to all current students and employees. Any prospective student or employee should receive a summary and, upon request, the complete report, which must include the following:

- Statistics on the number of on-campus murders, rapes, robberies, aggravated assaults, burglary, motor vehicle thefts, and arrests for weapons possessions and liquor and drug abuse violations.
- Policies regarding security, access to campus residences and other facilities, and campus law enforcement.
- Procedures providing for reporting of crimes and other emergencies.
- Information on campus sexual assault and rape awareness programs, guidelines to follow when a sex offence occurs, disciplinary action procedures, counselling opportunities, and notification to students that the school will make reasonable changes to a victim's academic and

living situation (USA Today Magazine, August 1994, vol. 123, issue 2591, p.14, 1 bw).

In conclusion, it can be stated that crime is one of the most serious problems facing South Africa today. The University community can be better able to cope with crime and the University authorities can also be in a better position to assist once there is great understanding between the protective services and University community about the impact of crime on people's daily lives.

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UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIOLOGY

**PROTECTIVE SERVICE AND CRIME CONTROL IN THE UNIVERSITY
COMMUNITY: A STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND
PROTECTIVE SERVICE UNIT**

Dear Respondent

The purpose of this research is to investigate the role of the Protective Service Department in controlling crime at the University of Zululand. Please kindly answer all the questions. All information supplied will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Mark your answer with an "X" where appropriate.

Thanking you

A: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

Q.1 WHAT IS YOUR SEX?

Male	1	
Female	2	

Q.2 WHAT IS YOUR HOME LANGUAGE (mother tongue)?

English	1	
Afrikaans	2	
Zulu	3	
Xhosa	4	
Swazi	5	
Other	6	

Q.3 WHAT IS YOUR MARITAL STATUS?

Married	1	
Single	2	
Divorced/Separated	3	
Widow/Widower	4	

Q.4 WHAT IS YOUR AGE (at last birthday)?

Under 18	1	
18 - 20	2	
21 - 25	3	
26 - 30	4	
31 - 35	5	
36 - 40	6	
Over 40	7	

Q.5 IN WHICH FACULTY ARE YOUR REGISTERED FOR THIS ACADEMIC YEAR?

Arts	1	
Theology	2	
Education	3	
Commerce	4	
Science	5	
Law	6	

Q.6 WHAT IS YOUR PRESENT ACADEMIC YEAR LEVEL?

First year	1	
Second year	2	
Third year	3	
Fourth year	4	
Post-graduate	5	

Q.7 WHERE DO YOU RESIDE?

Residences (on campus)	1	
Off campus University Residence	2	
Own home (off campus)	3	
Renting a room (off campus)	4	

B: CONTACT WITH PROTECTIVE SERVICES

Q.8 WHAT TYPE OF CONTACT HAVE YOU HAD WITH PROTECTIVE SERVICES ON CAMPUS?

No contact	1	
As an accused in a disciplinary hearing and found guilty	2	
As an accused in a disciplinary hearing and found innocent	3	
As a suspect in a criminal case (interrogated)	4	
As a witness in both criminal and disciplinary cases (questioned)	5	
As an informant	6	
I was asked to assist protective services in maintaining order and/or crime prevention on campus	7	
I was guilty of a traffic violation on campus	8	
Other (Specify)	9	

Q.9 WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING HAS HAD THE GREATEST INFLUENCE ON YOUR PERCEPTION OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES?

Juridical contact (i.e. accused, witness, informant, etc.)	1	
Social contact (friends, functions)	2	
Experience of other students with protective services (i.e. what you have been told by other students)	3	
Isigini (newsletter)	4	
Comparisons between protective services and other similar services of other tertiary institutions	5	
Presence of protective services (observed activity of members)	6	

Q.10 ON THE GROUNDS OF WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING PERSONS HAVE YOU FORMED YOUR PERCEPTION OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES?

Only male protective services officials	1	
Only female protective services officials	2	
Both male and female protective services officials	3	

C: ROLE OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES

Q.11 HOW IMPORTANT DO YOU RATE THE ROLE OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES IN COMPARISON TO OTHER SUPPORT SERVICES AT THE UNIVERSITY (Residences, PP&W, Printing, Administration, Computer Services, Academic Support)?

Most important	1	
Important	2	
Undecided	3	
Less important	4	
Not important at all	5	

Q.12 WHICH ONE OF THE FOLLOWING DO YOU PERSONALLY CONSIDER THE MOST IMPORTANT JUSTIFICATION FOR THE EXISTENCE OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES ON CAMPUS?

Juridical grounds (upholding law and order, protection of lives and property on campus, etc.)	1	
Political grounds (protection of human rights/handling of property on campus, etc.)	2	
Service delivery to students and staff	3	
It has no right of existence	4	

Q.13 HOW DO YOU PERSONALLY RATE THE IMPORTANCE OF THE ROLE OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES ON CAMPUS?

Most important	1	
Important	2	
Undecided	3	
Less important	4	
Not important at all	5	

Q.14 DO YOU THINK THE UNIVERSITY CAN FUNCTION WITHOUT THE PROTECTIVE SERVICE DEPARTMENT?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Uncertain	3	

Q.15 DO YOU THINK THAT PROTECTIVE SERVICES WILL PLAY AN IMPORTANT ROLE IN THE FUTURE PROTECTION OF THE CAMPUS?

Yes	1	
No	2	
Uncertain	3	

D. EFFECTIVENESS OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES

PLEASE INDICATE YOUR OPINION ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES IN CARRYING OUT THEIR DUTIES. (N.B. Mark each one with an X)

		HIGHLY EFFECTIVE	EFFECTIVE	UNDECIDED	INEFFECTIVE	TOTALLY INEFFECTIVE	
Q.16	Investigation of crime and misconduct	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.17	Finding law breakers	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.18	Patrolling campus	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.19	Protecting staff and students	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.20	Preventing crime	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.21	Gathering of evidence to prove guilt	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.22	Gathering of evidence to prove innocence	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.23	Informing staff and students of crime on campus	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.24	Maintenance of law and order on campus	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.25	Protection of parking areas	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.26	Protection and safekeeping of university property	1	2	3	4	5	

Q.27	Guiding students and staff through high crime risk areas	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.28	Enforcement of rules and regulations	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.29	Protection of staff and students' democratic rights	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.30	Traffic control	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.31	Access control at main gates	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.32	Settling of quarrels between students	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.33	Promoting of better relations between protective service staff and students	1	2	3	4	5	

HOW WOULD YOU EVALUATE THE FOLLOWING CHARACTERISTICS OF PROTECTIVE SERVICES?

		VERY GOOD	GOOD	UNDECIDED	WEAK	VERY WEAK	
Q.34	General appearance	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.35	Treatment of complaints	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.36	Handling of unrest on campus	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.37	Respect for complaints	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.38	Treatment of visitors on campus	1	2	3	4	5	

		Yes	No	
Q.39	There is a relationship between lack of proper training and inability to control crime	1	2	
Q.40	There is no relationship between lack of proper training and the inability to control crime	1	2	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO THE FOLLOWING CHARACTERISTICS OF PROTECTIVE SERVICE OFFICIALS COME TO THE FORE, IN THEIR PERSONAL CONTACT WITH STUDENTS AND STAFF?

		DEFINATELY	TO A LARGE EXTENT	UNCERTAIN	TO A LESSER EXTENT	NOT AT ALL	
Q.41	Insolence	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.42	Superior attitude	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.43	Lack of insight	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.44	Suspicion	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.45	Misuse of power/authority	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.46	Disinterest	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.47	Arrogance	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.48	Competence	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.49	Aggressiveness	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.50	Rudeness	1	2	3	4	5	

HOW IMPORTANT DO YOU RATE THE FOLLOWING ATTRIBUTES OF PROTECTIVE SERVICE OFFICIALS WHEN EXECUTING THEIR DUTIES?

		VERY IMPORTANT	IMPORTANT	UNCERTAIN	LESS IMPORTANT	UNIMPORTANT	
Q.51	Intelligence	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.52	Good judgement	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.53	Law abiding	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.54	Respectfulness	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.55	Helpfulness	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.56	Friendliness	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.57	Honesty	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.58	Objectivity	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.59	Courage	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.60	Self-control	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.61	Discipline	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.62	Competence	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.63	Impartiality	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.64	Capability/Efficiency	1	2	3	4	5	

Q.65	Leadership	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.66	Loyalty	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.67	Ambition	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.68	Appearance	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.69	Qualifications (educational)	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.70	Physical fitness	1	2	3	4	5	

E: CRIME REPORTING

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU CHOOSE TO REPORT CRIME AND MISBEHAVIOUR ON THE CAMPUS TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE RATHER THAN PROTECTIVE SERVICES?

		ALWAYS	OFTEN	UNCER- TAIN	SOME- TIMES	NEVER	
Q.71	As a victim	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.72	Incident of which you have knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU CHOOSE TO REPORT CRIME AND MISBEHAVIOUR ON THE CAMPUS TO PROTECTIVE SERVICES RATHER THAN SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICES?

		ALWAYS	OFTEN	UNCER- TAIN	SOME- TIMES	NEVER	
Q.73	As a victim	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.74	Incidents of which you have knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	

IF YOU DO NOT REPORT ALL INCIDENTS OF CRIME AND MISBEHAVIOUR TO PROTECTIVE SERVICES, INDICATE YOUR REASONS. (You may indicate one or more reasons)

		YES	NO	
Q.75	I do not want to burden them unnecessary	1	2	
Q.76	The incident would not receive the proper attention	1	2	
Q.77	Protective Service Officials are incompetent (incapable of handling any incident)	1	2	
Q.78	I do not want to become involved in disciplinary cases	1	2	

Q.79	Protective Service officials are negative toward crime and misconduct	1	2	
Q.80	I may be treated as the guilty party by protective services officials	1	2	
Q.81	Protective Services do not investigate incidents properly	1	2	
Q.82	Protective Services officials are arrogant	1	2	
Q.83	Protective Services do not keep the students or staff informed about incidents of crime and misconduct on campus	1	2	

Q.84 DO YOU FEEL THAT YOU HAVE AN OBLIGATION TO COMBAT CRIME ON CAMPUS?

Definitely	1	
To a large extent	2	
Undecided	3	
To a lesser extent	4	
Not at all	5	

Q.85 DO YOU THINK THAT LACK OF CO-OPERATION FROM MEMBERS OF THE UNIVERSITY IS LIKELY TO HINDER THE ROLE OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICE DEPARTMENT IN CONTROLLING CRIME?

	Yes	No	
Lack of co-operation is factor	1	2	
Lack of co-operation is not a factor	1	2	

DO YOU THINK THAT STUDENT AND STAFF INVOLVEMENT IN CAMPUS PROTECTION SHOULD BE

Q.86	Voluntary	1	
Q.87	Compensated (for payment)	2	

TO WHAT EXTENT DO YOU VIEW THE FOLLOWING CRIMES AS A PROBLEM ON YOUR CAMPUS?

		DEFINITELY A PROBLEM	MORE OF A PROBLEM	UNCERTAIN	LESS A PROBLEM	NO PROBLEM AT ALL	
Q.88	Murder	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.89	Rape	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.90	Physical assault	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.91	Sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.92	Robbery	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.93	Arson	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.94	Theft of property	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.95	Car theft	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.96	Car hijacking	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.97	Property damage	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.98	Traffic violations	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.99	Drunk and disorderly conduct	1	2	3	4	5	

F: FUTURE

IN WHAT WAYS CAN THE IMAGE OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICES BE IMPROVED?
(Indicate more than one)

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UN-CERTAIN	DIS-AGREE	STRONGLY DIS-AGREE	
Q.100	Protective Services can be more informative about crime and misconduct on campus	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.101	Officials should improve their academic qualifications	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.102	Officials should receive more practical training	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.103	The relationship between protective services and students should be improved	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.104	Protective Services officials should be more sympathetic and fair	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.105	Protective Services should implement a more active crime prevention strategy	1	2	3	4	5	

Q.106	Protective Services should use their power and authority more wisely	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.107	Increased patrolling of campus grounds	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.108	Involvement of students in campus protection	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.109	Protective Services should be more positively involved in the orientation programme for first year students	1	2	3	4	5	
Q.110	Protective Services should be more visible	1	2	3	4	5	

Q.111 DO YOU THINK THAT THE STRUCTURE OF THE PROTECTIVE SERVICE DEPARTMENT IN RELATION TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE UNIVERSITY HINDERS THE PROTECTIVE SERVICE DEPARTMENT IN EXECUTING THEIR DUTIES EFFECTIVELY?

If yes, why _____

Thank you for your wonderful co-operation

