

THE ROLE AND IMAGE OF THE POLICE IN A POST APARTHEID ERA

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ABSTRACT

"...Almost impregnable and insurmountable, however, is the invisible wall which separates many police departments and the citizens they serve. This wall, although not topped by barbed wire and embedded sliver of glass, still accomplishes the undesirable effect of thwarting communication between police and their communities."

Quinn Tamm (1965)

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my parents, Fani Timothy who could no longer witness this work, my mother, Nomandla Francelina, my children and all my friends whose inspirations have carried me thus far. I thank you.

UKWETHULA

Ngethula lomsebenzi kubazali bami oFani Timothy ongasakwazanga ukubona lomsebenzi, umama wami uNomandla Francelina, abantwana bami kanye nabobonke abangani bami, intshisekelo nogqozi lwabo okungenze ngaze ngaphetha lomsebenzi. Ngithi ngiyabonga.

DECLARATION

I, **Lungisa Henry Manzi**, declare that the MA Dissertation: **“The Role and Image of the Police in a post apartheid era”** is my own work from conception to the execution thereof and that all the work and sources consulted, have been acknowledged by means of complete references.



LUNGISA H MANZI

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SUMMARY

The South African Police Services in a post-apartheid era has adopted Community Policing as its philosophy (c.f. draft document on Community Policing). The Police Act, 1995 (Act No 59 of 1995) provides for the establishment of Community Policing Forums in all the Areas. Police in this study only refers to the South African Police Service in KwaZulu-Natal and it excludes the City Police and any other security formations.

It is assumed in this study that: "Age is related to the attitudes respondents hold towards the police in the Durban policing Area"; "there significant gender differences in the attitudes of the respondents towards the police" and "socioeconomic status (occupation) is related to the attitudes of the respondents towards the police."

A system of differentiated policing existed in South Africa before 1994. About eleven policing agencies operated and included the following, the South African Police Service and the Homeland Police Forces made up of the following agencies:

Bophuthatswana Police; Gazankulu Police; Qwaqwa Police; KwaZulu Police; Ciskei Police; Venda Police; Lebowa Police; KwaNdebele Police; and the KaNgwane Police.

Under the traditional method of policing, police agencies spend blindly and police accountability structures; police credibility and accompanying legitimacy. A Police service, which alienates itself as a profession and cannot rely on the principles of policing by consent was missing.

Substantive democratic policing concerns the range of social interests served and protected by the police. Lack of police accountability, impartially and transparency-particularly in relation to the human rights practices of the police is visited in this study.

A growing need for community – driven instead of incident – driven policing through community empowerment is clearly highlighted in this study. It was important for this study to include constitutional issues to look into the conduct of the police

Research on police image and community attitudes towards the Police shows that the police did not care about these crimes. Corruption among police officers (case docket disappearing, police officers involved in serious crime commission, etc.); negative attitude of the police with regard to crime in general were highlighted. The major factors, which shape the public's opinion about the police, are (a) experiences with the police (i.e. direct contact), and (b) perceptions about police behaviour.

Other specific types of experiences with police officers and the police organisation which may have a particular impact on the public image of the police, are the following; response time, traffic control, victimisation, asking police officers information, and going into a police station.

To the majority of people, it is a question whether community policing is proactive or reactive. Though the traditional mindset of policing always puts more emphasis on reactive policing, it does not mean that with the emerging of community policing which is proactive in character, reactive policing can be discarded completely. Community policing is a broad concept, which embraces a variety of proactive and reactive policing tactics and techniques. Therefore, it is important to note that no single type of policing (proactive or reactive) can be identified with community policing.

One of Sir Robert Peel's police principles: ... the police are the public and the public are the police can be regarded as the breeding ground of community policing, although the first modern police department (established in terms of the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829) was organised along para-military lines. From the perspectives of both community and police, community policing assumes that proactive policing needs to be added to and in some instances replace reactive policing .

Decentralised force-wide implementation of community-oriented policing is a prerequisite.

Police brutality is the most emotion - packed complaint against the police and appears to be omnipresent in police operations. Corruption is an endemic issue in policing. "Knee - jerking policing", which is totally unprofessional, as police officers become the instrument of partisan, conspiratorial, machine politics. Coercive policing, which is closely related to power. There is also a common perspective by the police that crime reported to the police and public calls for police service, usually define the kind of activities the police must perform. The police believe that citizens are basically unsupportive and unreasonably demanding and they all seem to know better than police officers how to perform the job of policing.

The following are the findings in this study: -

- Community should have a greater say in policing matters;
- Police and community to be jointly involved in problem identification;
- Specially trained community policing officers to improve policing;
- Community and the police should jointly improve quality of life;
- Police should be sensitive to needs of the vulnerable.

With regard to community trusting the police, both male and female respectively. Community policing especially the issue of specially trained community policing officers shows a significant gender difference. Police accountability shows gender differences, which are not significant. Education of the community regarding police work and crime shows a significant gender difference. For community policing to service social contact between the police and community becomes a necessity. The general finding for community policing is that despite the differences between male and female respondents but community policing is evaluated positively by both respectively. Police-community relations will probably be one of the most contentious issues in policing. The Community Policing Forum should therefore develop a Police Service Contract.

ISIFINGQO

Kulesisikhathi lapha ubandlululo selwedlule, amaphoyisa aseNingizimu Afrika azikhethele ukuphoyisa ngokwendlela yomphakathi. Umthetho owengamele amaphoyisa, isigaba 59, sika 1995, sigunyaza ukuphenjwa kwezimbizo zokudingida indlela okumele kuphoyiswe ngayo ezindaweni zonkana. Ukusetshenziswa kwegama “amaphoyisa” kuloluphenyo, kuqondene kuphela namaphoyisa aseNingizimu Afrika hayi amanye amaphoyisa njengamaphoyisa edolobha kanye nezinkampani zonogada.

Nakhu okuthi kuhlawumbeselwe kuloluphenyo: “Ubudala buhlobene nendlela abavivinywa ababona bemukele ngayo amaphoyisa eThekwini jikelele”; “Kunomehluko ogqamile ngokobulili babavivinywa endleleni abemukela bathathe ngayo amaphoyisa” futhi “Isimo somnotho (imisebenzi) sinomthelela kwindlela abavivinywa abathi babuke ngayo amaphoyisa”.

Loluphenyo lwehlukaniswe izahluko eziyisikhombisa ezenekwe ngedlela yokuthi isahluko sokuqala sendlalele uphenyo. Isahluko sesibili sona sibika ngalokhu esingathi ukuphoyisa ngokwentando yeningi. Isahluko sesithathu sona sihlola ukwamukeleka kwendlela amaphoyisa asebenza ngayo emphakathini. Ukuthi kahlekahle yini elindeleke emaphoyiseni yona itholakala esahlukweni sesine. Laphaya kwisahluko sesihlanu khona, kubhekwa imithelela yangaphandle ngamaphoyisa. Isahluko sesithupha sona siphonya ngokubambisana komphakathi namaphoyisa bese esesikhombisa sona sivivinye siphinde sihlaziye lezizingathekiso, siveze okuqukethwe uphenyo senze nezincomo.

Kuyaphawuleka ukuthi ngaphambi kuka 1994, lapha eNingizimu Afrika bekunohlelo oluhlukahlukene lokusebenza kwamaphoyisa. Beziyishumi-nanye izinhlelo zamaphoyisa zakhiwe amaphoyisa oMzansi Afrika kanye namaphoyisa eZabelo. Kumaphoyisa eZabelo bekukhona awaseBophuthutswana; Gazankulu; Qwaqwa; KwaZulu; Ciskei; Venda; Lebowa; KwaNdebele, nawakwaNgwane.

Ngaphansi kohlelo lwakudala lokusebenza kwamaphoyisa, izinhlelo zamaphoyisa zibonakale zichitha izimali ngokungenangqondo ziphunduleka ukubhekela lezizimo ezilandelayo: -

Izakhiwo ezamukelekile zamaphoyisa; ukwethembeka nokwemukeleka kwamaphoyisa; ukusebenza kwamaphoyisa okuzibalulayo ngokweqophelo eliphucukile olulandela imigomo emiselwe yokusebenza ngemvume.

Uhlelo lokuphoyisa ngokwentando yeningi luhlanganise zonke izinhlelo nezimfuno zomphakathi ezivikelwe amaphoyisa. Ukungabibikho kokuqikelela, ukungachemi nokwenza izinto obala ikakhulukazi kuMalungelo oLuntu kuye kwabuyekezwa ngesikhathi kwenziwa loluphenyo. Isidingo esiyangokwanda sokusebenza ngokomphakathi kunaleso sokusebenza ngokwezehlakalo nokunika umphakathi amandla ezindabeni ezithinta izindlela zamaphoyisa, konke lokhu kuye kwagqanyiswa kuloluphenyo. Kuye kwabaluleka futhi ukuba kwengezwe nangemigomo yoMthetho-sisekelo ukubheka izindlela zokuziphatha kwamaphoyisa.

Uphenyo ngobunjalo bamaphoyisa nomphakathi lwaveza ukuthi sengathithi amaphoyisa awabukhathalele nakancane ubelelesi. Ukungethembeki emaphoyiseni (ukulahleka kwamadokodo, amaphoyisa angene-shi ezenzweni zobugebengu, nokunye); ubumuncu uma kufanele amaphoyisa asebenze izinto ezithe zavela kuloluphenyo. Amaphuzu asemqoka akhuthaza imibono ngamaphoyisa yilawa, ukuxhumana-ngqo namaphoyisa; nalokho okucatshangwayo ngokuziphatha kwamaphoyisa. Ukuxhumana namaphoyisa nendlela amaphoyisa aziphatha ngayo yikho kanye okwakha imicabangu yomphakathi ngamaphoyisa. Okunye futhi okwenezezela ekwakheni imibono ngamaphoyisa isikhathi amaphoyisa afika ngaso ngemuva kokubikwa kwecala; ukulawula izimoto emigwaqeni; ukuhlukumezeka; ukuthola imininingwane emaphoyiseni, nokuya ezikhungweni zamaphoyisa.

Kubantu abaningi ukuphenywa kwamacala kubalulekile kodwa lokho akusho ukuthi ngohlelo lokusebenza ngokubambisana nomphakathi okuyindlela evimbela ukwenzeka

kwamacala, ukuphenywa kwamacala makubesekushaywa indiva. Uhlelo lokusebenza ngokubambisana nomphakathi lubanzi futhi luxube zonke izinhlobo zokusenza kwamaphoyisa ngakho kubalulekile ukuthi kungabikhona uhlelo olulodwa lokuphoyisa. Omunye yemigomo ka Sir Robert Peel yokuthi, ...amaphoyisa awumphakathi nomphakathi ungamaphoyisa iwonasisekelo sobambiswano phakathi kwamaphoyisa nomphakathi nomaphela kwaziwa ukuthi amaphoyisa ayakhelwe phezu kwesisekelo sezempi.

Ngokomphakathi kanye namaphoyisa, ubambiswano phakathi kwamaphoyisa nomphakathi kukhomba ukuthi ukuvimbela kufanele kwengezelelwe futhi ngesinye isikhathi kuthathe indawo yophenyo. Ukwehlisela amanndla okuphoyisa emazingeni asezansi kwenza loluhlelo lusebenze nngempumelelo. Ukuphoyisa ngokuxazulula izinkinga iyonandlela eyiyo yokuphoyisa. Unya emaphoyiseni iyonto enyantisa umoya nebikwayo ngamaphoyisa.

Nakhu okuvezwa yiloluphenyo: -

- Umphakathi kufanele ubenezwi ezindabeni ezithinta ukusebenza kwamaphoyisa;
- amaphoyisa nomphakathi kumele babambisane ekutholeni izinkinga;
- amaphoyisa aqeqeshwe ngendlela ethile angenyusa izinga lokusebenza kwamaphoyisa;
- umphakathi namaphoyisa kumele basebenze ngokubambisana ukuphucula izinga lempilo; futhi
- amaphoyisa kumele azwelane nezidingo zababuthaka.

Mayelana nokwethenjwa kwamaphoyisa ngumphakathi, amadoda nabesifazane bayavumelana ukuthi amaphoyisa kumele athenjwe. Amadoda nabesifazane abavumelani kahle mayelana nokufundiswa komphakathi ngezindlela zokusebenza kwamaphoyisa. Kuyacaca nokho ukuthi ukubambisana phakathi kwamaphoyisa nomphakathi iyonandlela okumelwe ukuphoyisa kuqhutshwe ngayo. Kubalulekile ukuba izimbizo zokusenza kwamaphoyisa ziqhamuke nesu lezibopho zomsebenzi.

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Policing in South Africa encapsulated the true nature of the relationship between the state and the majority population, the latter being regarded as an “enemy within” reigning suppression. Prior to the emergence of the democratic South Africa, policing found itself in a crisis which had been deepened by a number of factors relating, inter alia, to the lack of the following: -

- A proper redefinition of the role of the police in the light of a changing environment;
- Police accountability;
- Police credibility and accompanying legitimacy;
- Role acceptance among specific population groups and;
- Worst of all, partially while executing their duties (Brogden and Shearing, 1991: 45).

If policing in South Africa is to be transformed to meet the needs of the citizenry in a post apartheid era, democratisation needs to be addressed by the South African Police Services as well as the communities concerned. Scientific research could, however, play a vital role to determine the image of the police by means of identifying those factors that continue to influence the police role in society.

The present study is primarily aimed at focusing on the perceptions and attitudes of the public with special emphasis on the nature and extent of their image of policing as a social phenomenon.

1.2 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The rationale for the study is based on the following: -

The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa provides for effective policing that takes into account the requirements of the Provinces and needs of communities. Further, the constitution recognizes the importance of Provinces and provides for Provincial Commissioners who would work with the National Commissioner (South Africa, 1996: section 205-208). This function would only succeed in an environment where the relationship between the public and the police are good.

The South African Police Services in a post-apartheid era has adopted Community Policing as its philosophy (c.f. draft document on Community Policing). The Police Act, 1995 (Act No 59 of 1995) provides for the establishment of Community Policing Forums (CPF) in all the Areas. It is in this context that the public attitudes and perceptions in a post-apartheid era are important. Despite several investigations into the role and image of the police, none has been on the role and image of police in the post apartheid era. The present study will fill that shortcoming.

The following is a list of literature consulted by the researcher on the role and image of policing in the South African Police: -

Du Preez, GT 1978 The image of the South African Police Among the rural communities a comparative study. (Trans. Unpublished MA Dissertaton Pretoria: UNISA).

- Du Preez, GT 1991 The Image of the South African Police from the viewpoint of a group of Black University students. (Trans.) Unpublished Research Report Pretoria: UNISA.
- Mayet, HR 1976 The Role and image of South African Police in Society from the point of Coloured people in Johannesburg. Pretoria: UNISA.
- Van Heerden, TJ 1994 The Police role in society with reference to the South African Police in Johannesburg. Unpublished Report. Pretoria: UNISA.

Finally, the researcher works within the policing environment. Part of his functions includes advising the Police Management on policing and the managing of policing projects. It is thus important that the information to be passed on to the Police Management is to improve on policing strategies.

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to highlight the following: -

- 1.3.1 Differences with regards to gender, age, socioeconomic status and contact with the police as the strong determinants of the attitudes towards the police, and;
- 1.3.2 The attitudes that the public hold and the effect thereof in the functioning of the Police.

The present study will bridge the gap in the substantive knowledge regarding the role and image of the police in a post-apartheid era as a social phenomenon by pursuing the following:

- To identify factors that may exert influence on sound police-community relationships; and;
- To supply the police authorities with statistical information intended for more effective goal realisation.

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

1.4.1 Research Approach

In order to obtain factual information regarding the image of policing, use will be made of the social survey method. Data collected by means of closed-structured questionnaires will be quantified and analysed by means of the SPSS Computer Program. The study is, therefore, positivistic in nature, based on epistemological and ontological issues.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology is the study of a particular method used by a researcher. Methodology is the logic of scientific procedure, or the recipe for getting things done (Hy, Feig & Regoli, 1983: 7-8).

Vito, Latessa & Wison (1988: 4) regards research methodology as techniques for finding out what has taken place. It is a procedure for carrying out an inquiry. Van der Westhuizen (1982: 2), distinguishes at least four objectives of criminological research which can be listed with reference to the study of the role and image of the police in a post-apartheid era as: -

- Description;
- Explanation;
- Prediction; and
- Control.

1.5.1 Method of Case Analysis

Case analyses are relatively thorough examinations of specific social settings or particular aspects of social settings, including detailed psychological and behaviour descriptions of persons in those settings (Cain, 1973: 68).

It is when the researcher regards the phenomenon to be investigated as an individual-human aspect. In this study, case analysis will be used to test the relationship and attitude of specific persons towards the police.

1.5.2 Method of Mass Observation

According to Van der Walt et al. (1977: 15) the method of mass observation is used when the researcher regards crime as a mass phenomenon. This method is also known as the statistical method. Statistics are important and indispensable for the criminologist and their value lies at the descriptive level, that is, description of extent, increase and decrease of crime. Statistics are also valuable on the explanatory level for comparative studies. Statistics serve an important function at the applicative level for control purposes (Twala, 1995:11).

1.5.3 Analytical Method

According to van der Westhuizen (1982: 14), the analytical method has at least four general functions, namely goal achievement function, adaptive, integrative, and pattern

maintenance function. The analytical method is goal-directed and makes provision for descriptive investigations using descriptive techniques, explanatory investigations, and applications analysis and also using prediction and control techniques. Because the analytical method is regarded to the various objectives of investigation, the investigator can from the onset lay down a meaningful relationship between fact and theory (Futrell and Roberson, 1988: 87).

Van der Westhuizen (1982: 3-4) identifies four general functions of the analytical method, namely: -

- **Goal-achievement function.** The analytical method is goal-directed and through relevant techniques provides for descriptive, explanatory and applicative investigations.
- **Adaptive function.** Through the use of the analytical method, the investigator can lay down a meaningful relationship between a fact and a theory.
- **Integrative function.** It enables the investigator to be neutral and to study the phenomenon on both group and individual level.
- **Pattern maintenance function.** The analytical method respects recognized methodological principles and yet leaves room for change refinement and innovation. The analytical method is used in this study because it is essentially non-particularistic. It renders neutrality on the investigator thus enabling him to study his objective on the group or individual level, or both; and it gave him a golden opportunity of synthesizing his analysis into comprehensive generalization and systematic theories (Twala, 1995:12).

1.6 RESEARCH TECHNIQUES

Any social setting is a potential target for scientific investigation. It describes the diversity of the subject matter that researchers might study. All types of social scientific research are characterized by a limited number of types of research techniques (Van der Westhuizen, 1982: 10).

Research techniques are detailed plans that specify how data should be collected and analysed. In this study, the researcher to achieve the goal, namely descriptive, explanatory application, and prediction and control will use four research techniques:

1.6.1 Sampling Techniques

A sample is a subset of the population and sampling is a technique of selecting a subset in a way that maximises the likelihood that it will serve as an adequate representative of the population as a whole (Weiss, 1968:220).

According to Van der Walt et al. (1982:40) a sample is the numerical reduction of the universe or population; a partial collection of the universe or population; and a valid representation of the universe or population. A sample consists of elements from a population that will be observed in order to learn about the entire population (Fitzgerald & Cox, 1987:71).

In this study a non-probability sampling technique was used namely the purposive or judgmental sampling procedure, due to the existence of informal settlements ("shacks") in all the areas selected for inclusion in this study. The main reason for having decided on a purposive sampling procedure is to be found in the researcher's desire to eliminate sampling bias which could have been generated as a result of these areas not appearing on street maps. According to Hy, Feig et al. (1983: 91-96) there are three commonly

used types of non-probability samples, namely, quota, purposive, and convenience samples. And there are four major types of probability samples, namely, simple random, systematic, stratified, and cluster samples. Use of field workers was made during the distribution and the collection of questionnaires. These field workers were only employed on temporary basis and were duly trained on what was expected of them when performing their responsibilities. A strong warning was carried over to them not to assist with the interpretation of the questionnaire to the respondents. Only assistance to enable respondents to understand the statements contained in the questionnaire could be offered.

1.6.2 Measuring Techniques

Likert-type scales is used in this study as an ordinal measuring instrument to measure the attitudes the respondents on a variety of aspects pertaining to the role and image of the police in a post apartheid era. Nominal scaling was also used for the coding of a closed-ended (forced-choice) question, such as asking respondents their gender (male or female), marital status (single, married, widowed or divorced) etc. Nominal scaling could, however, also be constructed at a multidimensional level by coding simultaneously a set of categories relating to demographic characteristics, e.g. age, gender, etc.

The Likert-type scale had been widely used in attitude measurement. Following are examples where this measurement scale has been used: -

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

Potgieter, P. J. 1982. Die invloed van die rasionaliteitsteorie op die ontwikkeling van die Suid Afrikaanse Polisie. Unpublished M. A. - dissertation. Pretoria: UNISA.

Likert-type scale was used for it's following advantages: -

- the scale is suitable the purposes of collecting a large number of responses;
- it simplifies the preparation of collected data;
- it is primarily based on empirical data forthcoming from responses (reactions) of a selected group of respondents rather than on subjective opinions and judgements;
- Likert-type scales ensure greater homogeneity as well as the unitary measurement of an attitude, thereby contributing towards a high level of reliability; and
- it provides complete information regarding respondents' attitudes which is based on an intensified reaction to each item in the questionnaire (Twala, 1995:27-28).

1.6.3 Structured Questionnaire

In this study a structured questionnaire was used to collect information from the respondents. A total of 600 questionnaires were prepared and sent out to the respondents from whom 504 were received back completed. Because of time constraints, the questionnaires could not be pretested.

1.6.4 Variables

Scientists classify variables into two types namely, continuous and discrete variables. Suppose one is interested in the variable "length" of wood. A particular wood can have

infinitely many measurement of length because one can always at least theoretically make the spaces between measurement units smaller (3.2 inches, 3.17 inches, etc.). Length, age and time can in principle assume infinitely many values (Fitzgerald et al. (1987:126). Understanding whether variables under investigation are continuous or discrete is important because the variable type is related to both the level at which one can measure the variable and statistical techniques available to describe and analyse data.

1.6.4.1 Dependent Variables

Dependent variables are those variables that are not under the researcher's control-the data (Howell, 1995:19). Common examples of dependent variables are running speed, scores on a test and number of aggressive behaviours.

1.6.4.2 Independent Variables

Independent variables are those variables that are manipulated by the researcher (Howell, 1995:19). In criminological research the researcher is interested in measuring the effects of independent variables on dependent variables. Basically what this study is all about is the independent variable, and the result of the dependent variable.

1.6.5 Measurement

If for example, one wanted to find out if a piece of lumber was long enough to use for a particular purpose, one could hold a yardstick up to it and measure its length. To determine the sex distribution or age in a given group of people, data can be obtained with a good degree of accuracy by birth certificates. Measurement in social science research is seldom so straight forward, and consequently own "yardstick" for obtaining required measurements must often be devised (Fitzgerald et al. (1987: 126).

1.6.6 Scaling Procedure

Van der Westhuizen (1977: 87) regards scaling as the construction of some sort of measuring scale. A scale (like attitude scaling) is the operational rule that is used in a measurement. When a researcher is interested in the contents or processes of people's mind they should be asked to respond to stimuli e.g. a Set of variables presented to them for an example by means of questionnaires. It is the peculiar problems involved in constructing scales to measure the contents of people's minds that make scaling so important in social science. The mere presence of a human being in a scientific measurement should not be singled out as being the primary source of the researcher's interest in scaling. Persons' (respondents') responses should rather be of interest to the researcher, especially the accumulation of variations in reactions to stimuli within or among persons (sample group) under changing conditions (Simon and Burstein, 1985:206 – 207).

1.6.6.1 Likert-type Scaling

For the purpose of this study, a Likert-type summated rating scale was used. This scale is an ordinal scale, Rensis Likert (1932) was primarily interested in ensuring that all items in the scale measure a single attitude. Ordinal scaling implies the allocation of numerical values to specific properties. The essence of the Likert technique is to increase the variation in the possible scores by coding from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The basic procedure for Likert scaling is as follows:

- A large number of statements should be selected to measure the dimension to be scaled.
- A sample of respondents which are representative of the population on which the scale will be used, should be selected.

- Code all responses so that a higher score on a particular attitude being scaled, that is, code 5 for either strong agreement with a positive statement or strong disagreement with a negative one, and code 1 for strong disagreement with a positive statement or strong agreement with a negative one. A scale score should then be computed for each person by summing his or her scores on all statements (Bailey, 1987: 87).

Babbie (1989: 405) opines that, in using a Likert-type scale, the respondent is presented with a statement or statements in the questionnaire and is asked to indicate whether he or she **“strongly agrees”**, **“agrees”**, is **“undecided”**, **“disagrees”** or **“strongly disagrees”**. Modifications of the wording of the response categories is permissible, e.g. **“always”**, **“often”**, **“undecided”**, **“sometimes”**, or **“never”**; **“very good”**, **“good”**, **“undecided”**, **“poor”**, or **“very poor”**. The Likert-type scale may also take the form of a 7-point scale, for example, **“extremely favourable”**, **“less favourable”**, **“favourable”**, **“undecided”**, **“unfavourable”**, **“less unfavourable”** or **“extremely unfavourable”**. The particular value of this format is the unambiguous ordinal response categories.

Sherif and Sherif (1965:233) are of the opinion that the aforementioned allocation of response categories is of crucial importance in the operational measuring of attitudes in order to accommodate the latitudes of acceptance, non-commitment and rejection (Warren and Jahoda, 1979: 396-397).

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

- Strongly agree
Agree : attitude of acceptance
- Undecided } latitude of non-commitment
- Disagree
Strongly disagree : latitude of rejection (Twala, 1995:25-26).

In this study numerical values have been allocated to each response category, namely, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. This continuum represents an ordinal scale.

1.6.7 Cronbach’s Individual Alpha Item Analysis

Cronbach (1951) developed the equation for the mean split-half reliability coefficient (based on the less restrictive assumption), a quantity which he called coefficient alpha. By using coefficient alpha, the mean split-half reliability coefficient can thus be obtained directly, that is, without first computing all possible split half coefficients. Coefficient alpha can be used with dichotomous items, that is items which can earn a mark of either 0 or 1 only, such as correct/incorrect items as well as multipoint items, that is, items which may be assigned more than two values, as in the case of rating scales (Huysamen, 1983: 31).

1.7 STATISTICAL TECHNIQUES

In this study percentages (%) and mean averages are primarily used to facilitate interpretations and deductions. Raw scores (indicated as N) are in themselves insignificant and actually unable to express the magnitude of a difference thereof between groups. Likewise, statistical techniques to assess rank order are equally minimal. Apart from statistical techniques applicable to nominal measurement such as percentages, modes, chi-square, etc., medians, arithmetic means and rank order correlation are also

important in attitude measurement. The easiest average to calculate is the mode, the most frequent value... the median represents the "middle" value: half are above it, half below (Babbie, 1989:370).

Percentile descriptions do not in all respects meet the requirement of indicating the general nature of an attitude or opinion to be measured. For this reason, percentages are supplemented by calculated arithmetic means (\bar{x}) to portray the data in the most manageable form as well the standard deviation (SD) – a more sophisticated measure of dispersion.

1.8 RESEARCH DELIMITATION

Van der Westhuisen (1982:39) argues that ... "the rationale for delimitation or reductions are perhaps that the researcher lacks the means or the time to analyse all cases."

1.8.1 Spatial Delimitation

The study was conducted in KwaZulu Natal and further demarcated to concentrate in the Durban policing area to eliminate long distances, exorbitant costs and delays. The areas covered were the following: -

- Umlazi

- Umbumbulu

- Isipingo

- Chesterville

- Cato Manor
- KwaMashu

TABLE 1.1
DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONNAIRES TO SELECTED AREAS
(N=600)

AREA	DISTRIBUTED		COLLECTED	
	N	%	N	%
Umlazi	100	16.7	100	19.8
Umbumbulu	100	16.7	99	19.6
Isipingo	100	16.7	84	16.6
Chesterville	100	16.7	91	18.1
Cato Manor	100	16.7	66	13.1
KwaMashu	100	16.7	64	12.7
TOTAL	600	100	504	84

The Table indicate that one hundred (16.7%) questionnaires were distributed in Umlazi and from that number only hundred (19.8%) were received back completed. One hundred (16.7%) questionnaires were again distributed in Umbumbulu and ninety-nine (19.6%) were received back. In Isipingo, one hundred (16.7%) questionnaires were distributed and eighty-four (16.6%) were received back. A total of one hundred (16.7%) questionnaires were distributed in Chesterville, but only ninety-one (18.1%) were received back. From the total of one hundred (16.7%) questionnaires distributed in Cato Manor, sixty-six (13.1%) were received back. Finally, one hundred (16.7%) questionnaires were distributed in KwaMashu and only sixty-four (12.7%) were received back.

Although there low responses fromKwaMashu and Cato Manor, the responses were

acceptable because they were above the 50% of the total expected responses.

1.8.2 Qualitative Delimitation

Qualitative delimitation means the nominal reduction of the research group, that is the group is refined in respect of certain characteristics (qualities) which are present or in each group member. Characteristics such as age, sex, race are usually the major refining criteria but any other human characteristics or social distinction could also be used, for example, socio-economic status, I. Q., income, occupation, family status and others (Van der Westhuizen, 1982:39). In this study, the aim has been to select a sample of six hundred (600) respondents from the Durban policing area.

1.8.3 Quantitative Delimitation

A total of 600 respondents were chosen for this study, constituting the expected frequency. However, the observed frequency only amounted to 504. Of the 504 questionnaires received back, 19 had to be rejected due to incomplete information. The sample group, therefore, consists of 485. Six residential areas within the Durban policing area were included in this study and a sample of each research group is not proportionate to the total universe. It would be unrealistic for this study to include the total population. Van der Westhuizen (1982:39) and Mayet (1976: 8), argue that it is not the size of the sample in relation to the total population, which determines the reliability, and validity of a research, but whether the sample is a reasonably true representative of the population. The selected residential areas were included for their previous experiences with the police due to the ongoing violence, instability and high rate of crime in those areas.

1.9 CONCEPTUALISATION

The following concepts need some definition: -

1.9.1 African

African is used in this study to make a distinction between the Black group of people. Use of African will only refer to persons other than Indians, Whites and Coloured people - the Nguni people (free conception).

1.9.2 Police

Groups of people who keep law and order in a country (Active English Dictionary, 1980: 338). Police in this study only refers to the South African Police Service in KwaZulu-Natal and it excludes the City Police and any other security formations.

1.9.3 Apartheid

Afrikaans word meaning literally "apart-ness"; applied to the system of policies maintaining the domination of South Africa's white majority over non-white populations. The system built on existing patterns of segregation and was established after the election in 1948 of the National Party (Bullock, Stallybrass and Trombley, 1988:44).

1.10 STATISTICAL PROFILE OF SAMPLE GROUP

Given below is the statistical description of the respondents selected for this study. It is important to note that this analysis and description are based on unknown factors, which could not be compared with any theoretical frequency from the total population. The use of these demographic factors does not imply negative or positive perceptions and attitudes the public holds for the police in KwaZulu-Natal, but a general description of the

composition of the sample group. The following demographic factors (independent) variables relating to the characteristics of the sampling groups will be analysed and described: -

- Gender;
- Age; and
- Socioeconomic status (occupation).

Language, marital status and educational qualification were ignored because the researcher felt these attributes could be accommodated within socioeconomic status. It will be easy to judge whether or not one has enough understanding of how the police operate judging from the type of occupation he or she does. It is important again to stress the fact that it was not the intention of the researcher to investigate the influence of these attributes on how the police are perceived, but highlight them as factors influencing the role of the police.

TABLE 1.2
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS (N=485)

GENDER	FREQUENCY	
	N	%
Male	220	45.4
Female	265	54.6
TOTAL	485	100

The above Table depicts gender distribution of respondents. Two hundred and twenty (45.4 %) respondents are males, two hundred and sixty five (54.6%) females.

TABLE 1.3**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS (N=485)**

Age Category	FREQUENCY	
	N	%
18-24	217	44.7
25-34	125	25.8
35-44	91	18.8
45-54	33	6.8
55-64	16	3.3
65+	3	0.6
TOTAL	485	100

In the above Table, the age distribution is as follows: -

- Two hundred and seventeen respondents (44.7%) are between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four (18 – 24).
- One hundred and twenty-five (25.8%) is between ages of twenty-five and thirty-four (25 – 34).
- Ninety-one (18.8%) are between the ages of thirty-five and forty-four (35–44).
- Thirty-three respondents (6.8%) are between the ages of forty-four and fifty-four (44 –54).
- Sixteen (3.3%) respondents are between fifty-five and sixty-four (55 –64).
- Lastly, three (.6%) of the respondents are above the age of sixty-five (65+).

TABLE 1.4**OCCUPATION DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS (N=485)**

TYPE OF OCCUPATION	FREQUENCY	
	N	%
Unemployed	113	23.3
General labour	34	7
Semi-skilled	11	2.3
Professional work (doctors, lawyers, teachers, etc.)	43	8.9
Technical work (mechanics, electricians, etc.)	16	3.3
Business or sales work	15	3.1
Administrative, executive or manager	4	0.8
Work in transport (driver, dispatcher, etc.)	10	2.1
Communication work (journalist, PRO, etc.)	2	0.4
Craftsman and production work	2	0.4
Student or scholar	188	38.8
Service works (nursing, social work, etc.)	17	3.5
Work in sport and recreation	1	0.2
Work in agriculture and related work	11	2.3
Armed forces (army)	15	3.1
Security services	2	0.4
Unknown employment	1	0.2
TOTAL	485	100

The above Table presents the distribution of respondents with regard to their occupational status. One hundred and thirteen (23.3%) is unemployed. Only thirty-four (7.0%) are general labourers. Eleven (2.3%) are semi-skilled workers. Forty-three (8.9%) are professional workers. Sixteen (3.3%) respondents are technical workers. Fifteen (3.1%)

respondents are in the business environment. Respondents doing administrative, executive or managerial work add up to only four (.7%). Ten (2.1%) of the respondents work in transport environment. Respondents doing communication work, for an example journalism, etc., make up to (.4%). Craftsman and production workers are two (.4%). The majority of the respondents (38.8%) are students or scholars. Respondents responsible for services or services workers add up to seventeen (3.5%). Only one (.2%) respondent is engaged in sports or recreational work. Those respondents engaged in agricultural and other related work are eleven (2.3%). Respondents attached to the armed forces add up to fifteen (3.1%). Those respondents doing unknown work are two (.4%). Lastly, one (.2%) respondent has other occupation.

1.11 HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses are statements suggesting the relationship researchers believe will help explain some phenomena. They generally deal only with a portion of reality (Hy, Feig & Regoli, 1983: 5).

According to Van der Westhuizen (1982: 45), by research hypotheses we understand general statements relating to an expected result and formulated as a guideline and rationale before research is begun. He defines a research hypothesis as a formal statement or expectation about the outcome of a study. Research is based on testing hypotheses. Basically a hypothesis consist of two hypotheses, namely the research hypothesis and the null hypothesis. The research hypothesis states what one expects to find. It is the one the researcher wants to confirm. The null hypothesis is the contradiction of the research hypothesis. It is the null hypothesis that is actually tested. The present study is designed to statistically test the following hypotheses: -

1.11.1 Hypothesis One

“There are significant gender differences in the attitudes of the respondents towards the police.”

1.11.2 Hypothesis Two

“Age is related to the attitudes respondents hold towards the police in the Durban policing Area.”

1.11.3 Hypothesis Three

“Socioeconomic status (occupation) is related to the attitudes of the respondents towards the police.”

1.12 CHAPTER DIVISION

This study is divided into seven chapters and they are arranged as follows: -

- Chapter 1 is the orientation of the study.
- Chapter 2 is the Democratic Policing.
- Chapter 3 deals with acceptance of the police role.
- Chapter 4 is about role expectations.
- Chapter 5 looks into the external image of the police.

- Chapter 6 is about community alliance.
- Chapter 7 is reserved for hypotheses testing, conclusions and recommendations.

1.13 SUMMARY

The present study is primarily aimed at focusing on the perceptions and attitudes of the public on policing with special emphasis on the nature and extent of the image of policing as a social phenomenon. Factors, namely, gender, age, socioeconomic status and contact with the police were analysed as determinants of attitudes and perceptions of the public. It was important for the researcher to determine these attitudes and perception and relate them to the post apartheid era. The finding could be a clear indication of how the public feel and perceive the police and this information would assist in introducing new policing strategies that can guarantee legitimate, acceptable and democratic police service. All the findings in this investigation are based on the responses of random selected groups. Efforts were made to reflect the true attitudes and perceptions of the respondents regarding the police in a post apartheid era, but this could not be certain because the selected areas are not representative of the population of KwaZulu-Natal.

CHAPTER 2

DEMOCRATIC POLICING

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Policing in South Africa must be viewed in the broader context of a democratic society. The process of building a democratic society should encompass an earnest endeavour to abandon the institutions of tyranny and to replace them with institutions capable of engendering unity, nation building and reconciliation. The liberation of South Africa requires more than the dismantling of apartheid. It requires the establishment of new forms of governance that will promote the liberty assets of those susceptible to discriminations. Manipulations of policing are central to the conception of liberty as a civic asset. Any discussion of democracy and policing in South Africa today must take place within the context of the recent political changes.

Indeed, the 1994 elections represent a watershed between the new order based on a democratic principles and constitutional, and an old apartheid era which was characterised by massive violations of human rights, of which police brutality was a significant feature (Nel & Bezuidenhout, 1997:24).

This chapter examines the challenges that face the police in the new democratic dispensation and the attempts to refashion and shape the Police Service to align it with democratic ideas.

2.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The South African Police have been strongly influenced by the British system. This is seen from the composition, the character and functions of the South African Police. Before 1994, the South African Police force had a centralized command structure. The four provinces used to have separate systems for maintenance of order and eventually the different police units were welded together to form the South African Police (Van Heerden, 1986:27-28).

2.2.1 Military - Style Police

In 1910, the various existing police forces were incorporated into one National Police Force and the first Chief Commissioner, Colonel Gustaff Truter was appointed on 15th October 1910. The headquarters was set up in Pretoria staffed with diligent and determined officers to assist the newly appointed Commissioner to monitor and coordinate the activities of the National Police Force (Dippenaar, 1988:4 - 6).

Successive South African governments have relied on security forces, especially the police, to enforce their laws. At the time of Union there were various autonomous colonial, rural and urban police forces in different territories that had existed prior to Union. These police forces were independent of each other and there was no single national police force. After Union Parliament, which had sovereign authority in and over the Union and had full powers to make laws for the peace, order and good governance of the Union began exercising these powers. One such law passed by Parliament was the Police Act 14 of 1912. This Act was passed in the main to provide for the establishment of the South African Police (SAP). At the time, even though the SAP had been formed, the task of policing was shared between the SAP and the South African Mounted Riflemen who were essentially military forces-empowered to perform police functions in the rural areas in peace times (Nel & Bezuidenhout, 1997:25).

It is interesting to speculate how a community might be if like shakers in America it did not have any police at all. The term itself derives from "polities" - the Greek word for a city-state which also gave the English language "policy" and "polities". A constable on the other hand was originally a stable room a "count of the stable". Only in comparatively recent times has policing been linked mainly to law and order, in earlier times it was synonymous with all non-ecclesiastical administration (Whitaker, 1979:35).

A system of differentiated policing existed in South Africa before 1994. About eleven policing agencies operated and included the following: -

2.2.3 The South African Police

Established on 1st April 1913 in terms of the Act 13 of 1912 (Police Act). It must be noted though that when the South African Police (SAP) was established, ranks to be used by the members were specified under Section 17 (a) of the "Zuid-Afrikaanse Politie – Regulasies" "South African Police Regulations" (Dippenaar, 1988:12). These ranks underwent various changes and just before 1994, the police ranks were nothing different from those used in the South African National Defence Force.

- General
- Lieutenant-Generals
- Major-Generals
- Brigadiers
- Colonels
- Lieutenant-Colonels

- **Majors**
- **Captains**
- **Lieutenants**
- **Warrant officers**
- **Sergeants**
- **Lance-Sergeants**
- **Constables**

2.2.4 Homeland Police Forces

In an attempt to decentralise the police services to the various Black Communities in the promotion of separate development policy, the under-mentioned police agencies were established. These police forces were community-based in character in that they were ethnicity-oriented and they relatively displayed features of community policing. It is worth noting that these forces emanated from the South African Police and it is because of this background that they had administrations and organisational structures similar to that of the erstwhile South African Police.

These forces are hereunder listed in accordance to their years of established:

- **Bophuthatswana Police established by Bophuthatswana Police Act, 1979 (Act No. 7 of 1979);**
- **Transkei Police, established by the Transkei Act (Act No. 16 of 1979);**

- **Gazankulu Police, established by the Gazankulu Police Act, 1980 (Act No.5 of 1980);**
- **Qwaqwa Police, established by Qwaqwa Police Act, 1980 (Act No.7 of 1980);**
- **KwaZulu Police, established by the KwaZulu Police Act, 1980 (Act No.14 of 1980),**
- **Ciskei Police, established by the Ciskei Police Act, 1983 (Act No. 32 of 1983);**
- **Venda Police, established by the Venda Police Act, 1985 (Act No.6 of 1985);**
- **Lebowa Police, established by the Lebowa Police Act, 1985 (Act No. 6 of 1985);**
- **KwaNdebele Police, established by the KwaNdebele Police Act, 1986 (Act No.11 of 1986);**
- **KaNgwane Police established by the KaNgwane Police Act, 1988 (Act No. 4 of 1988) (Twala, 1995: 68).**

The past reluctance of most police agencies to break away from their reactive, incident-driven methods-and the resulting lack of efficacy with respect to their goal of providing "law and order" has greatly affected citizens' feelings of security. Crime has reached epidemic proportions in this country; indeed, today crime is viewed as an important public health problem (Peak & Glensor, 1996: xvii).

The conventional style of incident-driven policing has several drawbacks: -

- **It is reactive most of the worked of patrol. Officers and detectives consist of handling crimes that have already been committed, disturbances in progress,**

traffic violations, and so forth. The exceptions - crime prevention and narcotics investigations make up but a small position of police work.

- Incident -driven police work relies on limited information gathered primarily from victims, witnesses, and suspects. Only limited information needed because the police objective is limited to resolve the incident at hand. The primary means of resolving incidents is to involve the criminal justice process. Arrests, or threats of arrest, are the keys to resolution. Seldom are alternative means of resolution involved.
- Incident-driven policing uses aggregate statistics to measure performance. The department is doing a “good job” when the citywide crime rate is low or the arrest rate is high. The best officers are those who make many arrests or service many call (Peak et al. 1996:50).
- Rewarding Failure. Under the traditional method of policing, police agencies spend blindly. For example, studies show that doubling the number of patrol officers or vehicles on the streets has no effect on the level of serious crime or the public’s fear of crime; yet, when crime rates rise more patrol officers and vehicles are purchased. One writer described this situation, certainly not unique to the police sector, as follows:“ In as much as we have lost sight of our objectives, we are going to redouble our efforts” (Peak et al. 1996:51).

2.3 ROLE OF THE POLICE IN SOCIETY

If policing in South Africa is to be transformed to meet the needs of the citizenry in a post apartheid era, the police themselves must address the following issues: -

2.3.1 A proper redefinition of the police role in the light of a changing environment;

2.3.2 Police accountability structures;

2.3.3 Police credibility and accompanying legitimacy;

2.3.4 Role acceptance among specific population groups; and

2.3.5 Most of all partiality while executing their duties (South African Police Service, 1995:5).

The task of upgrading the new police service and restoring credibility has been complicated by efforts of the South African Police who have embarked upon a process of reform that puts the institution in the centre stage without recognising the capacities existing in the various communities for the regulation and ordering of society. Communities hostile towards the police have continued to develop mechanisms for ordering their lives in opposition to the State without taking account of their limitations, particularly when redressing serious crimes such as violent actions which are still rampant in society. The complexity and dynamic of role-fulfillment in modern society is brought about by the fact that policing is being fulfilled in a heterogeneous society. The Police do not exist in total isolation from the populace (Manzi, 1993:32).

The principles of policing which Lord Scarman identified in his report emphasized the need, widely recognized by police officers, to secure the trust, confidence, respect and support of the public. Only by insisting in high standards of professional conduct at all levels can these objectives be met since anything which falls short of the high standard expected by the public will lead to a lack of confidence, respect and support. Police service, which alienates itself as a profession and cannot rely on the principles of policing by consent (Pike, 1985:41).

FIGURE 2.1

Icommit myself to the creation of a safe and secure environment for all the people in South Africa by participating in endeavours to address the root causes of crime in the community; preventing action which may threaten the safety or security of any community; investigating criminal conduct which has endangered the safety or security of the community and bringing the perpetrators thereof to justice.

In realization of the aforesaid commitment, I shall at all times-uphold the constitution and the law, be guided by the needs of the community; give full recognition to the needs of the South African Police Service as employer; and co-operate with the community, government at every level and all other related role-players.

In order to achieve a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa I undertake to with integrity, render a responsible and effective service of high quality which is accessible to every person and continuously strive towards improving this service; utilize all the available resources responsibly, efficiently and cost effectively to maximize their use; develops my own skills and participate in the development of my fellow members to ensure equal opportunities for all; contribute to the reconstruction and development of, and reconciliation in our country; uphold and protect the fundamental rights of every person; act impartially, courteously, honestly, respectfully, transparently and in an accountable upon me in a responsible and controlled manner; and work actively towards preventing any form of corruption and bring the perpetrators thereof to justice.

Signature..... Date.....

The above Figure 1 represents the Code of Conduct for the SAPS, which must be signed and adhered to by every member of the South African Police Service (see **Annexure B**).

The role of the police is a mechanism for the distribution of non-negotiable coercive force employed in accordance with the dictates of an intuitive grasp of situational exigencies (Whisenand, 1976:17). The objectives and priorities for police role include the following: -

- To identify criminal offenders and criminal activity and, appropriate, to apprehend offenders and participate in subsequent court proceedings.
- To reduce the opportunities for the commission of some crimes through preventive patrol and other measures.
- To aid individuals who are in danger of physical harm.
- To protect the constitutional guarantees.
- To facilitate the movement of people and vehicles.

- To assist those who cannot care for themselves.
- To resolve conflict.
- To identify problems which are potentially serious law infringement or government problems.
- To create and maintain a feeling of security in the community.
- To promote and preserve civil order.
- To provide other services on an emergency basis (Twala, 1995:100).

According to Vanagunas and Elliot (1980: 15) the role of the police is to address all sorts of human problems when and in so far as their solutions do or may possibly require the use of force at the point of their occurrence.

Clift (1970: 19) argues that the role of the police is therefore a combination of a variety of tasks that he divides into five broad categories as follows: -

- Preservation of the public peace.
- Protection of life and property.
- Prevention of crime.
- Enforcement of the laws.
- Arresting of offenders and recovery of property.

According to Van Heerden (1986:41), police role may be defined as something that is done by a person in a particular position, or as the pattern of actions expected or required of a person in a particular social situation. Two different conceptions of role are presented, namely objective and subjective. The objective concept of role is an unprejudiced definition of its purpose. It is not a product of personal sentiments or preconceived ideas, but a reality consistent with the delegated objective within the framework of the aims of society as a whole. On the other hand, a subjective concept of a role is highly personal, since in this case the purpose of the role is determined by personal experiences, expectations and needs.

A good policeman will settle a wide variety of social difficulties through authority and relations with the community. In areas where he is known and can count on an unspoken consensus, he can deploy his authority with confidence that his bluff is unlikely to be called. Although the informal controls of small-knit communities fade as society becomes more metropolitan and mobile, a policeman's advice often still carries weight and is respected in disputes even when he has no legal *locus standi*. But coping with humanity from birth to death can cause problems of identification. Too close a relationship with the locality can invite suspicion of partiality and endanger his other role of law officer. "If a policeman is too involved, he forfeits respect. If he is too detached, people resent his implied claim to moral superiority." His service functions – inspecting, counseling - can create ambiguities about his law-enforcement work (Whitaker, 1979:61).

Community involvement gives the police a chance to improve their image and to achieve a new status for them in future society. Some social workers and probation officers are understandably jealous of their territory, but both are at present badly overworked: probation officers, whose case-load should be forty to fifty, are frequently each having to deal with double that number of cases. Many policemen, because of the respect in which they are generally held because of their ability to share in the interests and language of a variety of people, have been highly successful in such work. The real need would seem to be for more training of at least some, and preferably all, police officers-as is recognised

in many continental and American forces. To those who regret the “blurring image” it can be answered that it does nothing but good for policeman to be seen as someone other than a bogeyman. It is particularly desirable that parents in delinquent parts of the community should be persuaded to view the police as allies rather than enemies (Whitaker, 1979: 71).

A considered development of the role of the police work should be welcomed if it increases its satisfaction and value in human terms, instead of making it the repository of unwanted jobs of society. Such move will encourage the cooperation of the public at the same time as it improves the interest and morale of the police.

Barnett (1974: 97) has offered an important explanation of why the “problem” of relationship between the police and the public exists. It would seem, therefore, that the contamination of the policeman’s private roles by his occupation is accentuated by two factors. First, in respect of income he lives at a class level which offers him less protection (i.e., than other authority figures have). Second, the authority vested in the police evoke a distinctive response from the public such that they find it harder to accept him (the policeman) as an ordinary sort of person (Cain, 1973:84).

2.4 PRINCIPLES OF SERVICE DELIVERY

According to *Batho Pele* (South Africa 1997:4), a White Paper on Transforming Service delivery the following eight principles were extracted and found to be relevant to policing in general: -

2.4.1 Consultation

Citizens should be consulted about the level of quality of service they receive and, wherever possible, should be given a choice about the services that are offered.

2.4.2 Service Standards

Citizens should be told what level and quality of services they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect.

2.4.3 Access

All citizens should have equal access to the services to which they are entitled.

2.4.4 Information

Citizens should be given full, accurate information about the services that they are entitled to receive.

2.4.5 Courtesy

Citizens should be treated with courtesy and consideration.

2.4.6 Openness and Transparency

Citizens should be told how National and provincial departments run, how much they cost, and who is in charge.

2.4.7 Redress

If the promised standard of service is not delivered, citizens should be offered an apology, and when complaints are made, citizens should receive a sympathetic, positive response.

2.4.8 Value for Money

Services should be provided economically and efficiently in order to give citizens the best possible value for money (South Africa, 1997:15).

2.5 DEMOCRACY AND POLICING

Democracy originated in Greece and the democratic ideal can be traced back to the Athenian City State or polis, some 2 500 years ago. The term democracy derives from the Greek word demos, meaning “the people” and kratos, referring to “rule” or “power”. Democracy can therefore be interpreted as “popular rule” or “rule by the people” (Cochran, 1977:49). Policing that supports the values of political pluralism, the promotion of social justice and guarantees of human and constitutional rights, including the free flow of information, is democratic. Policing can be democratic or undemocratic both in style and substance. Procedural democratic policing abides by the norm that the police are subject to laws, rules and professional codes and do not act arbitrarily, capriciously, corruptly or brutally when they enforce the law. Undemocratic policing, i.e. violations of procedural rights include a variety of abuses ranging, from common technical errors to torture and murder. Substantive democratic policing concerns the range of social interests served and protected by the police. In this sense, policing is democratic when a wide range of individuals and groups is protected in their lives, property and sensibilities and especially when all groups of people have legitimate access to police services. Also, in this context, equality of individuals and groups is respected. Differential application of police power and authority, designated to serve specific interests and groups, amounts to undemocratic policing (Cheatham & Errickson 1984:92).

2.6 FORCES OF CHANGE

The process of change within policing context (i.e. culture, management style, service quality, etc.) which had been preceded by and based on the development of a common vision was firmly rooted in the collective need for fundamental political transition in South Africa. Prior to the democratic elections in 1994, bilateral negotiations between the leadership of the erstwhile South African Police (SAP) and the African National Congress (ANC) in the form of its Police Policy Group took its course. Two significant aspects were prioritised on the negotiation agenda: (1) the establishment of a process mandated with the task of creating new legislation, and (2) focussing on a new organisational structure for the police service. These early negotiations (which also revolved around the retention of certain occupational positions) ultimately culminated into the emergence of a so – called Change Management Team which legitimised the process of change management onwards (Marais, 1990:3).

At the heart of democratic policing in South Africa, lies the issue of change and transformation in political and socio – economic spheres. In his address to the 12th European Policing Executive Conference in Belgium in 1994, Marais (1995:2-3) pointed out that the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) provided inter alia for the following forms of change:

2.6.1 Restructuring of policing into a single, national police service with nine provincial constituencies responsible for the maintenance of law and order based on a community policing model under direction of a national Commissioner in whom all authority is vested in regard to policing in South Africa.

2.6.2 Adoption of a Bill of Human Rights in which fundamental rights were enshrined (and which called for radical changes in police legislation and practice).

2.6.3 Assumption of responsibility by the National component of the police service for serious, organised and specialised crimes as well as public orders problems and high-risk operations.

2.6.4 Implementation of a process of affirmative action in respect of certain disadvantaged groups in the police service as a result of past “ apartheid” policies and practices.

Apart from Constitutional requirements for change, the history and development of the erstwhile South African Police, since its inception on April 1, have created a wide range of issues, which required functional and organizational changes. Following are some of the most important aspects, which necessitated change within the Service under a new political dispensation: -

2.6.4.1 Lack of credibility of the police among most of the country’s population as a result of the “political role” played by the police in a “apartheid era”. The majority non-white population groups as agents of an illegitimate white “minority” government especially perceived the erstwhile South African Police.

2.6.4.2 Low level of service delivery-especially to the oppressed population segments of the country; lack of democratic police management and operational practices; lack of police professionalism and wasteful use of resources.

2.6.4.3 Differential policing and unequal distribution of resources which resulted in a perception of “elitist policing”, reserved only for white people.

2.6.4.4 Lack of police accountability, impartially and transparency- particularly in relation to the human rights practices of the police.

- 2.6.4.5 Increasing levels of crime and violence, which retarded development efforts, due to high levels of fear and insecurity among non-white population groups and which required greater police effectiveness.
- 2.6.4.6 A growing need for community – driven instead of incident – driven policing through community empowerment.
- 2.6.4.7 The existence of rigid bureaucratic structures characterized by inflexible hierarchical command levels which contributed towards the police being viewed as a “military force”; exclusion of non – white police officials from the higher echelons of the police structure.
- 2.6.4.8 The reactive nature of policing in general, based on coercive actions.
- 2.6.4.9 Changes in the labour relations environment in the Public Sector generally, and the prominent emergence of trade unions such as the Congress of South African Trade Unions (COSATU) in particular, which had a profound influence on the creation of police unions such as the Police and Prisons Civil Rights Union (POPCRU) and the South African Police Union (SAPU) (Potgieter, 1993: 8).

2.7 POLICING AND THE CONSTITUTION

The adoption of both the 1993 and 1996 Constitution, especially the Bill of Rights has set the firm basis for the protection of human rights. The individual can now not only challenge laws that unreasonably infringe individual rights but can also approach the courts for a remedy. In relation to the Police, the protection being sought by an individual will invariably be protection against state interference with individual human rights. The way the Police exercise their powers and how the organisation as a whole is accountable

for its actions are bound to have far-reaching constitutional and human rights implications (Nel & Bezuidenhout, 1997: 55).

Section 205 of the Constitution of 1996 states that the National Police Service must be structured to function in the National, Provincial and, where appropriate, local spheres of Government. National legislation must establish the powers and functions of the police service and must enable the police service to discharge its responsibilities effectively, taking into account the requirements of the Provinces. The objects of the Police Service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law (South Africa, 1996:205),

The Constitution demands that a member of the Cabinet must be responsible for policing and must determine national policing policy after consulting the provincial governments and taking into account the policing needs and priorities of the Provinces as determined by the provincial executives. The National Policing policy may make provision for different policies in respect of different provinces after taking into account policing needs and priorities of these provinces. Each province is entitled: -

- To monitor police conduct;
- To oversee the effectiveness and efficiency of the Police service, including receiving reports on the police service;
- To promote good relations between the police and the community;
- To assess the effectiveness of visible policing; and
- To liaise with the Cabinet member responsible for policing with respect to crime and policing in the Province.

A Provincial executive is responsible for policing functions: -

- (a) vested in it by this Chapter;**
- (b) assigned to it in terms of national legislation; and**
- (c) allocated to it in the national policing policy (South Africa, 1996:section 206).**

In order to perform the functions set out in this sub-section above a province:

- (1) May investigate, or appoint a commission of inquiry into, any complaints of police inefficiency or breakdown in relations between the police and any community; and**
- (2) Must make recommendations to the Cabinet member responsible for policing.**
- (3) On receipt of a complaint lodged by a provincial executive, an independent police complaint body established by national legislation must investigate any alleged misconduct of, or offence committed by, a member of the police service in the Province.**
- (4) National legislation must provide a framework for the establishment, powers, functions and control of municipal police services.**
- (5) A committee composed of the Cabinet member and members of Executive Councils responsible for policing must be established to ensure effective coordination of the police service and effective cooperation among the spheres of government.**

- (6) A provincial legislature may require the provincial Commissioner of the police to appear before it or any of its committees to answer questions (South Africa, 1996: Section 206).

2.8 THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR POLICE CONTROL IN SOUTH AFRICA

To Africans, particularly the formerly disenfranchised, the police are still regarded with suspicion and sometimes with outright hostility. During the apartheid era the police were used to suppress basic human rights. In the past the police force, as it was then called, was used more as an instrument to perpetrate violence than as an agent to promote peace. The police testimonies in the De Kock trial and before the Truth and Reconciliation Commission (TRC) have shown beyond any shadow of doubt that the police were a power unto themselves. There were no clear mechanisms to exact accountability, and even where such mechanisms existed, they were flouted with impunity (Nel & Bezuidenhout, 1997:56).

Not only were the Police not punished for abusing their powers, they were often congratulated and promoted for work "well done". Over the years police accountability has been lacking. The apartheid era was characterised by a failure to make police institution as responsible as other institutions of the state. It is partly because of these considerations that the control of the Police has been specifically provided in the 1993 and 1996 Constitutions (Nel et al. 1997: 56).

The Constitution provides for the establishment and regulation by Act of Parliament of a South African Police Service to be structured at both National and Provincial levels such a service should function under the direction of the National government as well as the various provincial governments. Thus at the level of government structure, the Police Service is under the Department of Safety and Security (South Africa, 1996:section 207).

Under the South African Police Service Act of 1995 which provides for the establishment, organisation, regulation and control of Service, the Minister is charged inter alia, with the following function: -

- To establish the Secretariat for Safety and Security.

The Secretariat is responsible for the following: -

- (1) To advise the Minister in the exercise of his or her powers and the performance of his or her duties and functions;
- (2) To promote democratic accountability and transparency in the Service;
- (3) To promote and facilitate participation by the Service in the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP);
- (4) To perform such functions as the Minister may consider necessary to ensure civilian oversight (South Africa, 1995).

By bringing the Police Service directly under civilian responsibility, it has been subjected to the normal processes of political and constitutional accountability. Under individual and collective responsibility both the Minister and the Government as a whole are responsible to Parliament for the conduct of the Police Service. This makes it possible to monitor on continuous basis the behaviour as well as the performance of the Police.

2.9 HUMAN RIGHTS

All the functional aspects of Policing need to revolve around Human Rights. The following are the instruments of Human Rights: -

2.9.1 The Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

2.9.2 The International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.

2.9.3 The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (Nel et al. 1997:87).

2.10 GENERATION OF RIGHTS AS PART OF HUMAN RIGHTS

This reference to the generations of rights is one of the many classifications of human Rights. The following are other classifications: -

2.10.1 Classical and Social Rights

Classical rights include civil and political rights and are directed at restricting the powers of the state over the individual. Social rights include economic, social and cultural rights. They require the active intervention of government in order to create the conditions necessary for human development, such as employment, education and health care. In other words, classic rights oblige the government to refrain from certain actions while social rights oblige it to provide certain guarantees. We may refer to classic rights as a duty to achieve a given result, and social rights in terms of a duty to provide the means (Nel et al. 1997:87).

2.10.2 Civil Rights

This term is often used to refer to the rights set out in the first eighteen articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. A further set of “physical integrity rights” is identified from this group relating to the right to life, liberty and security of the person, and offering protection against physical violence against the person, torture and inhumane treatment by the government, arbitrary arrest, detentions or exile, slavery and servitude, interference with one's privacy and right of ownership, restrictions of one's freedom of movement, and the freedom of movement, and the freedom of thought conscience and religion (Nel et al. 1997:87).

2.10.3 Political Rights

In general, political rights are held to be those set out in articles 19 to 21 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They include freedom of expression freedom of association and assembly, the right to take part in the government of one's own country and the right to vote and stand for election at genuine periodic elections held by the secret ballot (Nel et al. 1997: 89).

2.10.4 Economic and Social Right

Socio-economic rights are listed in articles 22 to 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and are rights, which provide the conditions necessary for prosperity and well being. They chooses or accepts, the right to a fair wage and reasonable limitation of working hours, trade union right to medical care, the right to an adequate standard of living and to education (Nel et al. 1997: 88).

2.10.5 Cultural Rights

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights lists cultural rights in articles 27 and 28 as they are the rights to freely participate in the cultural life of the community, to share in scientific advancement, and the right to the protection of the moral and material interests resulting from any selection from any scientific, literary or artistic production of which one is the author (Nel et al. 1997:88).

2.10.6 Fundamental Rights

A separate group of rights has been established within the broad category of Human Rights and referred to as “elementary”, “essential” and “fundamental” human rights. Basic rights include the right to life, the right to a minimum level of security, the inviolability of person, freedom from slavery and servitude, torture, unlawful deprivation of liberty, discrimination and other acts which impinge on human dignity. They also include freedom of thought, conscience and religion, as well as the right to suitable nutrition, clothing, shelter and medical care and other essentials crucial to physical and mental health (Nel et al. 1997:89).

In policing society today, among the more pressing issues for debate are those of containing public disorder and the growing difficulties of policing the inner-city areas, especially where both issues have super-imposed upon them the added difficulties of race relations. In what is now clearly a period of world recessions, with its inevitable effects on employment and government spending, the social conditions in the inner-city areas must degenerate and the plight of residents, especially young people, must worsen. This will inevitably bring increasing pressure to bear on the “front line” of the establishment, that is the police. To deal with this pressure the police must develop separate and unfortunately sometimes conflicting solutions. The long-term and most effective solution is the development of their relationship with all sections of their public. In the short-term

however, the police must be able to deal effectively with disorder when it occurs and it is with this aspect that their role is seen (Watts-pope & Weiner, 1981:11).

2.11 SUMMARY

Whereas most people seem to have a favourable view of the police most of the time, many people frankly prefer to avoid contact with them if at all possible. The outright hostility of some groups toward the police is a well-established reality. There seem to be something peculiar about the police relationship with the community that makes it the object of special study by scholars interested in such social processes as human and intergroup relations, governmental operations, bureaucratic organisations, and the administration and management of public service agencies.

Police and community relations is a subject that has come to the forefront in South Africa and elsewhere. The problematic side of the relationship has been dramatised by the civil rights movement, by frequent and often volatile testing of the principle of equal protection of the law, and in a broader yet more basic sense by widely publicised confrontations of the powerful and the powerless. Police-community relations are thereby a political phenomenon, and a good bit more. It is also a sociological phenomenon since it evokes complex organisations, roles and goals of community mental health. It is psychological and ethical, because it treats the nature of authority and the mainsprings of law. It is social work to the extent that community organisation and community action are components. Finally, it is inevitably economic since one of its essential requirements is cost-effective service to the taxpayers. This, then, is the topic with which this chapter dealt: democratising the police.

CHAPTER 3

ACCEPTANCE OF THE POLICE ROLE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The choices made by the police are only one element in the differential impact of law, and the consequent allocation of deviant statuses and roles. Indeed, different levels of the social control process may operate in different directions. So the values and interests which colour the policeman's world view and enforcement decisions may be different from those of the legislators. Recognition of this has underlain many of the arguments for and against the police service in this country. It is important to bear the possibilities of such discrepancies in mind, and to examine both the reasons for them and their consequences.

This chapter aims at investigating those areas justifying the police role. Various issues, like the necessity of the police role, police role as a threat to liberty and privacy of individuals, role execution, partnership in policing, as well as reporting of crime are evaluated in order to understand how the public justify the existence of the police.

3.2 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE EXISTENCE OF THE POLICE ROLE

A good policeman will settle a wide variety of social difficulties through authority and relations with the community. In areas where he is known and can count on an unspoken consensus, he can deploy his an armed authority with confidence that his bluff is unlikely to be called. Although the informal controls of small-knit communities fade as society becomes more metropolitan and mobile, a policeman's advice often still carries weight and is respected in disputes even when he has no legal locus standi. But coping with

humanity from birth to death can cause problems of identification. Too close a relationship with the locality can invite suspicion of partiality and endanger his other role of law officer. "If a policeman is too involved, he forfeits respect. If he is too detached, people resent his implied claim to moral superiority." His service functions – inspecting, counselling - can create ambiguities about his law-enforcement work (Whitaker, 1979:61):

TABLE 3.1
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS REGARDING JUSTIFICATION
OF THE POLICE ROLE (N=485)

Response Category	FREQUENCY	
	N	%
Absolutely necessary	248	51.1
Necessary	125	25.8
Undecided	43	8.9
Unnecessary	27	5.6
Absolutely unnecessary	42	8.6
TOTAL	485	100.0

Table 3.1 above indicates the frequency distribution of respondents regarding justification of the police role. It is observed from the Table that out of 485 respondents, 248 (51.1%) feel that police role is absolutely necessary. One hundred and twenty-five (25.8%) feel police role is necessary. Only 43 (8.9%) are undecided. For 27 (5.6%) respondents, police role is absolutely unnecessary. Looking at both response categories (absolutely necessary and necessary), the Table indicates that police role is generally accepted. The possible explanation for this finding may be seen from the fact that there is not country with a formal police formation. The police happen to be everywhere during times of crises.

TABLE 3.2**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF NECESSITY OF THE POLICE SERVICE (N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		t-value
	SD	x	SD	x	
Necessity of the police	2.02	1.24	1.89	1.29	-6.399*
Threat to liberty and privacy	3.49	1.5	3.39	1.47	-26.356*
Assistance to the police	3.07	1.64	2.77	1.57	-17.375*
Stimulation of assistance	4.58	2.38	4.37	2.31	-26.602*

* $p \leq 0.05$

According to Table 3.2, female respondents ($\bar{x} = 1.89$) are significantly more in favour of the necessity of the police role in society, than their male counterparts ($\bar{x} = 2.02$). Likewise, female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.77$) are significantly more inclined to assist the police in upholding law and order, than is the case with male respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.07$). Although both male ($\bar{x} = 4.58$) and female respondents ($\bar{x} = 4.37$) have negatively evaluated the stimulation of assistance, it appears that female respondents are significantly less inclined in this regard. This trend also applies to the negative evaluation of threat to liberty and privacy of individuals by both male ($\bar{x} = 3.49$) and female respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.39$). This difference appears to be significant.

By nature women are come out weak and for them a country with no police service, they would find it very hard to cope with some of criminal deeds. The police to most women are a guarantee to the protection of their vulnerable rights which can easily be violated.

TABLE 3.3**AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF NECESSITY OF THE POLICE SERVICE (N=485)**

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Necessity of the Police role	2.05	1.32	1.89	1.25	1.8	1.15	1.55	0.97	2.25	1.34	4.33	1.15	0.657
Threat to liberty and privacy	3.56	1.45	3.38	1.47	3.35	1.43	3.27	1.66	2.94	1.77	3	2	-16.181*
Assistance to the police	3.05	1.64	2.84	1.53	2.67	1.67	2.73	1.59	3	1.67	4.33	0.58	-9.921*
Stimulation of assistance	4.42	2.32	4.7	2.33	4.27	4.39	4.39	2.45	4.25	2.67	4.33	2.89	-20.755*

Table 3.3 above presents a common feeling among respondents between ages of 55 – 64 ($\bar{x} = 2.25$) and 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 4.33$). Both age groups negatively evaluate the police role in society. Except for respondents falling between 18 – 24 ($\bar{x} = 2.05$) whom to a lesser extent also share the same feelings with the same respondents. Respondents between 25 – 34 ($\bar{x} = 1.89$), 35 – 44 ($\bar{x} = 1.80$) and 45 – 54 ($\bar{x} = 1.55$) are in favour of the police role in society. Respondents between ages 55 – 64 and 65 years and above evaluated the following categories significantly less: -

- Threat to liberty and privacy ($\bar{x} = 2.94$)
- Assistance to the police ($\bar{x} = 3.00$)
- Stimulation of assistance ($\bar{x} = 4.25$)

It is clear from the Table that young people are more in favour of the police role in society. The violence that has taken charge in KwaZulu Natal in the late '80s and the early '90s landed heavily on young people since they were in the forefront. They are the ones who were doing all the dirty work for whoever was fighting for political reasons. This has of course left them insecure. The schools were burnt down and after the war nothing could secure their place in any decent civil society. Their focus is as from the findings of this study directed at the police as the only hope of bringing safety and stability. This was seen during the partial lifting of moratorium on recruiting. Young people came in their numbers to enlist as new recruits despite the fact that some lacked requirements.

TABLE 3.4

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF NECESSITY OF THE POLICE SERVICE (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Necessity of the Police role	2.10	1.40	1.93	1.15	1.93	1.29	1.80	1.03	1.80	1.22	12.651*
Threat to liberty and privacy	2.53	1.54	2.90	1.48	3.64	1.51	3.60	1.51	3.46	1.39	-2.675*
Assistance to the police	3.13	1.69	3.00	1.59	2.51	1.57	2.90	1.60	2.95	1.55	2.480*
Stimulation of assistance	4.18	2.42	4.35	4.44	4.16	2.20	3.20	2.10	4.80	2.30	-10.560*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

Table 3.4 thus indicates that respondents in occupation category 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.10$) evaluated necessity of the police role in society less. The rest of other categories, that is, category 2 ($\bar{x} = 1.93$); category 3 ($\bar{x} = 1.93$); category 4 ($\bar{x} = 1.80$) more in favour of the police role in society and their evaluation is significant. Although respondents from categories 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.64$), category 4 ($\bar{x} = 3.60$) and category 5 ($\bar{x} = 3.46$) have evaluated threat to life and privacy significantly negative, respondents in category 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.53$) and category 2 ($\bar{x} = 2.90$) have evaluated this attribute positively. This shows a significant difference. The Table further shows that category 3 ($\bar{x} = 2.51$), category 4 ($\bar{x} = 2.90$) and category 5 ($\bar{x} = 2.95$) respondents are significantly in favour of assisting the police. With regard to stimulation of assistance to the police, respondents in category 1 ($\bar{x} = 4.18$), category 2 ($\bar{x} = 4.35$) and category 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.44$) are significantly discouraged by certain characteristics of the police in KwaZulu-Natal.

KwaZulu-Natal, especially Durban policing area saw the worst of the pre-election violence and the picture is perhaps still embedded in the peoples' minds. This kind of mixed feelings about the role of the police may somehow be attributed to all the incidents which occurred during those violent days. The people who were heavily affected were students and scholars is category 4.

3.3 REPORTING OF CRIME

TABLE 3.5

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF REPORTING OF CRIME (N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Did not want to burden the police with trivial matters	1.57	0.63	1.59	0.76	0.601
The case would not receive necessary attention	1.40	0.52	1.40	0.50	0.000
Case cannot be solved	1.44	0.55	1.45	0.50	0.008
Police unable to solve criminal cases	1.45	0.50	1.47	0.50	0.227
Personal nature of the case	1.64	0.48	0.53	0.50	5.402*
Case should not be reported	1.55	0.50	1.60	0.49	1.674
Case settled personally	1.50	0.50	1.52	0.50	0.405
Attending court time consuming	1.43	0.50	1.48	0.50	1.503
Negative attitude of the police	1.49	0.50	1.40	0.49	3.711*
Treatment as a guilty party when reporting	1.47	0.50	1.42	0.49	1.618
Lack of transport for the police to attend to complaints	1.40	0.49	1.43	1.53	0.394
Arrogant attitude of the police	1.45	0.50	1.42	0.49	0.345

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 3.5 above shows that all attributes are evaluated positively by both male and female respondents respectively. Regarding personal nature of the case, the positive evaluation by female respondents ($\bar{x} = 0.53$) is more significant than their male ($\bar{x} = 1.64$). Again with regard to the negative attitude of the police, female respondents ($\bar{x} = 1.40$) more significantly feel police have a negative attitude with regard to crime.

It can be assumed from the Table that reporting of crime has some influences that allow or prevent people from reporting. In the above Table two things are noticed, firstly that when the case is personal, for example rape and assault females are rather unwilling to report to the police. This of course may be attributed to a number of factors, namely, the fear of retaliation by the perpetrator or the fear of being known as a victim of that kind of crime, or any other factor. In the case of domestic violence, women are quick to withdraw charges against family members.

Again it is seen from the Table that police have a negative attitude and this causes people not to report crime. Too many things are being said about the police and how they react when crimes are reported and these perhaps are viewed as negative attitudes by the larger community.

TABLE 3.6

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF REPORTING OF CRIME (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		f-test
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Did not want to burden the police with trivial matters	1.64	0.65	1.63	0.88	1.47	0.52	1.42	0.79	1.44	0.51	1.00	0.00	1.74
The case would not receive necessary attention	1.43	0.52	1.42	0.51	1.35	0.48	1.30	0.47	1.38	0.50	1.33	0.58	0.585
Case cannot be solved	1.44	0.50	1.40	0.49	1.53	0.62	1.36	0.49	1.50	0.52	1.33	0.58	0.864
Police unable to solve criminal cases	1.49	0.50	1.46	0.50	1.38	0.49	1.42	0.50	1.56	0.51	1.67	0.58	0.827
Personal nature of the case	1.6	0.49	1.58	0.49	1.69	0.49	1.42	0.50	1.50	0.52	1.33	0.58	1.000
Case should not be reported	1.55	0.50	1.52	0.49	1.68	0.47	1.48	0.51	1.31	0.48	1.00	0.00	3.215*
Case settled personally	1.55	0.50	1.50	0.50	1.51	0.50	1.33	0.48	1.5	0.52	1.00	0.00	1.786
Attending court time consuming	1.49	0.50	1.43	0.50	1.39	0.50	1.39	0.50	1.5	0.52	1.33	0.58	0.421
Negative attitude of the police	1.53	0.50	1.36	0.48	1.41	0.49	1.30	0.47	1.44	0.51	0.33	0.58	2.721*
Treatment as a guilty party when reporting	1.53	0.50	1.34	0.48	1.43	0.50	1.33	0.48	1.31	0.48	1.33	0.58	2.864*
Lack of transport for the police to attend to complaints	1.45	0.55	1.46	0.59	1.32	0.47	1.21	0.50	1.50	0.52	1.67	0.58	2.03
Arrogant attitude of the police	1.49	0.50	1.41	0.49	1.33	0.47	1.39	0.50	1.44	0.51	1.67	0.58	1.58

* $p \leq 0.05$

According to Table 3.6 above, there are no significant age differences in the evaluation of reporting of crime, except for the following response categories: -

- Case should not be reported - respondents between ages of 55 – 64 (\bar{x} 1.31) and 65 years and above (\bar{x} = 1.00). This evaluation is significant.
- Negative attitude of the police – respondents aged 65 years and above (\bar{x} = 0.33). This evaluation is also significant.
- Treatment as a guilty party when reporting a matter to the police – respondents between ages of 45 – 54 (\bar{x} = 1.31). Again this evaluation is significant.

Old people still hold on to the values and norms of the traditional society where the police represented the government and that these cases that should not be reported to the police still need the community to attend to. The negative attitude of the police is also noticed by the old people as a problem. This may be attributed perhaps to the solving rate of crimes which at times does not meet their expectations.

It is again observed that again the feeling of being treated as a guilty party when reporting matters to the police does negatively contribute to the reporting of crime

TABLE 3.7

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF REPORTING OF CRIME (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	
Did not want to burden the police with trivial matters	1.67	0.94	1.44	0.50	1.54	0.54	0.30	0.48	1.62	0.69	1.787
The case would not receive necessary attention	1.42	0.51	1.44	0.58	1.33	0.47	1.00	0.00	1.43	0.50	2.324
Case cannot be solved	1.52	0.50	1.44	0.50	1.48	0.61	1.10	0.32	1.39	0.49	2.273
Police unable to solve criminal cases	1.56	0.50	1.43	0.50	1.54	0.50	1.10	0.32	1.44	0.50	2.681*
Personal nature of the case	1.55	0.50	1.50	0.50	1.55	0.50	1.50	0.53	1.65	0.48	1.677
Case should not be reported	1.54	0.50	1.53	0.50	1.65	0.48	1.50	0.53	1.53	0.49	0.875
Case settled personally	1.49	0.50	1.53	0.50	1.59	0.50	1.20	0.42	1.49	0.50	1.643
Attending court time consuming	1.44	0.50	1.54	0.50	1.46	0.50	1.20	0.42	1.45	0.50	1.245
Negative attitude of the police	1.51	0.50	1.43	0.50	1.39	0.49	1.20	0.42	1.45	0.50	1.361
Treatment as a guilty party when reporting	1.48	0.50	1.43	0.50	1.36	0.48	1.30	0.48	1.47	0.50	1.154
Lack of transport for the police to attend to complaints	1.44	0.59	1.47	0.50	1.37	0.60	1.40	0.52	1.39	0.49	0.476
Arrogant attitude of the police	1.45	0.50	1.44	0.50	1.41	0.50	1.30	0.48	1.43	0.50	0.254

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- *Agricultural and related work.*
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

The above Table 3.7 indicates that except with the students in occupational category 4, there are no other significant occupational differences in the evaluation of reporting of crime. The evaluation of the inability of the police too solve criminal cases is more significantly recorded by respondents in category 4 ($\bar{X} = 1.10$). Although students share common feeling with other occupational categories, but they are convinced that police are as a matter of fact unable to solve criminal cases.

A lot can be said about the police and the solving of criminal cases. It is clear from the Table that the students and scholars are not impressed with the way the police are working toward solving criminal cases. This may be as a result of their previous experiences when incidents of criminal nature are reported and nothing comes of it. Most of violence related crimes occurred in schools and students and teachers were heavily affected.

3.4 SUMMARY

One may wonder how any country can survive without some organised policing service. This chapter has tried to look into the areas that should at least justify the existence of the police role. Necessity of the police role, police as a threat to liberty and privacy of individuals, role execution, partnership in policing as well as reporting of crime are evaluated in this chapter to illustrate the understanding of the public regarding the justification of the police role in society.

CHAPTER 4

ROLE EXPECTATION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As the mandate for policing prescribes, there is a general agreement that the primary functions of the police among others are to protect life, property, and constitutional guarantees and to preserve social order. These responsibilities serve as the basic standards for establishing police policy and for evaluation police conduct. Certainly, no police management should direct personnel to engage in conduct that endangers life, *property, constitutional guarantees or that serves to create disorder*. Nor, obviously, should management tolerate such conduct.

In this chapter, evaluating of the functional, organisational expectations, police efficiency as well as the characteristics of role fulfiller will be made with specific reference to the following: -

- Crime prevention;
- Emergency calls;
- Street patrolling;
- Business protection;
- Crime detection;

- **Victim support, and**
- **Domestic violence.**

Organisational expectations will also be evaluated and focus will be on the following:

- **More police;**
- **Police effectiveness, and**
- **Resources.**

In as far as police efficiency is concerned, the following will receive special attention: -

- **Handling of crime in general.**

Regarding the characteristics of role fulfiller, the following important aspects will be rated: -

- **General appearance;**
- **Handling of police vehicles;**
- **Handling of complaints;**
- **Carrying out of arrests;**
- **Early settlement of criminal cases;**
- **Firmness of action;**

- Obligation to enforce the law.

4.2 FUNCTIONAL EXPECTATIONS

Banton (1964:197) has offered an important explanation of why the “problem” of relationship between the police and the public exists. It would seem, therefore, that the contamination of the policeman’s private roles by his occupation is accentuated by two factors. First, in respect of income he lives at a class level which offers him less protection (i.e., than other authority figures have). Second, the authority vested in the police evoke a distinctive response from the public such that they find it harder to accept him (the policeman) as an ordinary sort of person (Cain, 1973:84).

TABLE 4.1

**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL EXPECTATIONS
(N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
PROACTIVE POLICING					
Crime Prevention	2.55	1.55	2.64	1.58	0.372
Emergency prevention	2.5	1.42	2.44	1.4	0.176
Street patrolling	2.41	1.29	2.5	1.26	0.526
Business protection	2.48	1.32	2.44	1.26	0.113
REACTIVE POLICING					
Crime prevention	2.65	1.34	2.61	1.36	0.119
Victim support	2.8	1.44	2.73	1.36	1.248
Domestic violence	3.03	1.42	2.81	1.45	2.723

Table 4.1 above shows firstly, the grouping of response categories into two, namely, proactive and reactive policing. Secondly, functional expectations in general are evaluated

positively by both male and female respondents respectively. It is observed from the Table that although both male and female respondents share the same sentiments about the quality of service, female respondents show less agreement than their male counterparts. This Table can be summed up to indicate that there are no significant gender differences in the evaluation of functional expectations.

TABLE 4.2

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL EXPECTATIONS (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		24-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
PROACTIVE POLICING													
Crime Prevention	2.38	1.49	2.92	1.62	2.67	1.54	2.85	1.75	2.25	1.57	2.33	1.15	2.305*
Emergency prevention	2.53	1.48	2.39	1.26	2.32	1.37	2.76	1.5	2.19	1.52	4	1	1.474
Street patrolling	2.53	1.36	2.41	1.14	2.33	1.19	2.58	1.39	2.31	1.4	2.67	1.53	0.49
Business protection	2.5	1.32	2.57	1.25	2.25	1.23	2.39	1.43	2	1.03	3.67	1.53	1.653
REACTIVE POLICING													
Crime prevention	2.71	1.29	2.5	1.41	2.56	1.35	2.61	1.37	2.69	1.49	4	1.73	1.029
Victim support	2.69	1.39	2.99	1.29	2.81	1.48	2.27	1.51	2.81	1.47	2	1	1.841
Domestic violence	3.03	1.4	2.88	1.45	2.74	1.48	2.82	1.42	2.38	1.54	4.33	1.15	1.661

* $p \leq 0.05$

As is the case with previous Table, this Table 4.2 is divided into two, i.e. proactive and reactive policing. It is learnt from the Table as well that except for crime prevention where respondents aged between 55 – 64 ($\bar{x} = 2.25$), there are no significant age differences in the evaluation of functional expectations. What is noticed as a trend in this Table is that in all responses under crime prevention, respondents aged between 55 – 64 agree that the police are not doing a good job. To the contrary, respondents aged 65 years and above strongly disagree with the rest of in as far as prompt attendance of emergency calls ($\bar{x} = 4.00$) as well as detectives doing a good job by bringing criminals to book ($\bar{x} = 4.00$). To these respondents, the reaction time as well as detection rate is satisfactory: -

- Crime prevention ($\bar{x} = 2.25$)
- Emergency calls ($\bar{x} = 2.19$)
- Street patrolling ($\bar{x} = 2.31$)
- Business protection ($\bar{x} = 2.00$)

The Table say without a shadow of doubt that old people feel that the police are not doing the job. One of the policing core function is crime prevention which to old people is not done by the police.

TABLE 4.3

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL EXPECTATIONS (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
PROACTIVE POLICING											
Crime Prevention	2.42	1.46	2.49	1.44	2.79	1.59	1.8	1.69	2.7	1.63	1.696
Emergency prevention	2.45	1.45	2.56	1.41	2.34	1.34	1.3	0.48	2.57	1.43	2.257
Street patrolling	2.69	1.41	2.39	1.31	2.38	1.18	2.2	1.32	2.4	1.22	1.297
Business protection	2.49	1.32	2.29	1.13	2.41	1.39	2.2	1.4	2.53	1.27	0.6
REACTIVE POLICING											
Crime prevention	2.67	1.39	2.37	1.26	2.91	1.32	2.6	1.71	2.55	1.3	1.923
Victim support	2.6	1.3	2.93	1.54	2.75	1.42	3.5	1.43	2.76	1.37	1.343
Domestic violence	3.1	1.39	2.64	1.37	2.97	1.47	2.9	1.29	2.86	1.47	1.264

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

Table 4.3 shows a division of policing functions into two, namely, proactive and reactive policing. It further indicates that there are no significant occupational differences in the evaluation of functional expectations. What is noticeable though is that students have evaluated proactive policing more positively and by so doing so they are saying the police are as far as they are concerned doing what they should be doing.

- Crime prevention ($\bar{x} = 1.80$)
- Emergency calls ($\bar{x} = 1.30$)
- Street patrolling ($\bar{x} = 2.20$)
- Business protection ($\bar{x} = 2.20$)

4.3 ORGANISATIONAL EXPECTATIONS

TABLE 4.4

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF ORGANISATIONAL EXPECTATIONS (N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
More police	2.36	1.44	2.31	1.41	0.169
Police effectiveness	2.09	1.29	2.26	1.31	0.035
Resources	2.38	1.33	2.47	1.37	0.486

Table 4.4 indicates the following: -

- There are no significant gender differences in the evaluation of organisational expectations.
- Although both male and female respondents agree on all attributes, female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.31$) are more convinced that police would produce greater public safety and security. When it comes to police effectiveness, male respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.09$) agree more than their female ($\bar{x} = 2.26$) that greater police effectiveness would reduce the rate of crime. Again male respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.38$) are more convinced that more resources would improve police efficiency in crime.

Looking at the rating of the attributes one assumes that police in the Durban area have a notable shortage and that if that can be beefed up greater safety and security would be produced. It is also assumed that for some reason, police are not effective and this has a negative effect on the combatting of crime. Resources both physical and human are the

major inhibit factor in police effectiveness and this is confirmed by how the respondents have rated this attribute.

TABLE 4.5

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OR ORGANISATIONAL DETERMINANTS (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		24-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
More police	2.33	1.47	2.53	1.42	2.15	1.28	2.09	1.47	2.31	1.45	2.33	1.53	0.946
Police effectiveness	2.3	1.36	2.14	1.28	1.98	1.18	2.12	1.34	2.19	1.33	2.33	1.53	0.879
Resources	2.56	1.4	2.38	1.44	2.31	1.17	2.24	1.35	2	1.03	2.57	0.58	1.06

The above Table 4.5 indicates the following: -

- There are no significant age differences in the evaluation of organisational expectations. Respondents aged between 35 – 44 ($\bar{x} = 1.98$) are more convinced that greater police effectiveness would reduce the crime.
- Respondents aged between 55 – 64 ($\bar{x} = 2.00$) feel that more resources, like manpower, vehicles, etc. would improve police efficiency in combatting crime.

Although no significant differences are observed in the above Table, but respondents all agree that more police, police effectiveness as well as resources could bring about a safe and secure environment as well as effective crime combatting. This Table says nothing but that the police management should seriously attend to those issues that help facilitate the performance off core policing functions.

TABLE 4.6

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OR ORGANISATIONAL DETERMINANTS (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
More police	2.29	1.44	2.38	1.42	2.26	1.44	1.9	0.99	2.39	1.43	0.412
Police effectiveness	2.44	1.48	2.13	1.14	2.11	1.25	2.1	1.45	2.09	1.26	1.488
Resources	2.43	1.36	2.28	1.17	2.45	1.36	2.8	1.32	2.39	1.42	0.6

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

The above Table 4.5 indicates the following: -

There are no significant occupational differences regarding the evaluation of organisational expectations.

Students, that is, occupation category 4($\bar{x} = 1.90$) strongly believe that more police would produce greater public safety and security.

It is assumed from the evaluation of the students that the shortage of police personnel is of a serious nature. This tend is perhaps due to the fact that schools have turned into nests for criminals resulting into closure of certain schools.

TABLE 4.7**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE EFFICIENCY (N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
General appearance	2.71	1.36	2.43	1.31	5.452*
Handling of police vehicles	3.5	1.32	3.18	1.27	7.550*
Handling of complaints	3.48	1.18	3.42	1.22	0.32
Carrying out of arrests	3.7	1.23	2.49	1.27	0.229
Early settlement of criminal cases	3.48	1.15	3.45	1.18	0.074
Firmness of action	3.3	1.2	3.23	1.11	0.341
Obligation of enforcing the law	3.45	1.32	3.3	1.24	1.712

* $p \leq 0.05$

With regard to the evaluation of police efficiency, Table 4.7 shows the following: -

Police efficiency is evaluated positively by both male and female respondents respectively.

Although there is a noticeable level of consensus, but female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.49$) are satisfied with the manner in which arrests are carried out as opposed to their male counterparts ($\bar{x} = 3.70$). Finally, the Table shows a more significant gender differences regarding the characteristics of the police:

- General appearance by female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.43$)
- Handling of police vehicles by female respondents($\bar{x} = 3.18$)

In general, this Table shows that although the general appearance of the police is somehow acceptable, but both male and female respondents share the same feeling that police are not efficient with their service.

Police are somehow presentable and this is seen on how both male and female respondents have rated the general appearance of the police. Females also feel police vehicles are being misused, although the extent of agreement is less that of male respondents. The bottom line here is although the police are somewhat presentable, they should address the noticeable abuse of vehicles to allow them to get into their policing core functions.

TABLE 4.8

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE EFFICIENCY (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
General appearance	2.68	1.37	2.98	1.27	2.57	1.28	2.33	1.36	2.62	1.59	3.00	1.73	1.094
Handling of police vehicles	3.44	1.30	3.21	1.30	3.29	1.28	3.03	1.31	3.50	1.41	4.00	1.00	1.107
Handling of complaints	3.42	1.21	3.5	1.20	3.49	1.19	3.24	1.17	3.38	1.41	3.67	0.58	0.585
Carrying out of arrests	3.54	1.33	3.7	1.21	3.65	1.10	3.45	1.25	3.25	1.61	3.67	0.58	0.585
Early settlement of criminal cases	3.35	1.19	3.5	1.22	3.67	1.02	3.55	1.20	3.44	1.09	3.00	1.00	1.108
Firmness of action	3.20	1.20	3.33	1.11	3.31	1.10	3.33	1.22	2.06	1.18	3.67	0.58	0.417
Obligation of enforcing the law	3.33	1.31	3.49	1.24	3.35	1.29	3.18	1.33	3.38	1.09	4.00	1.00	0.54

According to Table 4.8, there are no significant age differences in the evaluation of police efficiency. Again the Table indicates that respondents aged between 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 4.00$) have evaluated the handling of police vehicles negatively. According to this evaluation then, this means that from the elders point of view there is a noticeable level of abuse of police vehicles. This same age group (65+) also feels the police are failing to demonstrate their obligingness in enforcing the law ($\bar{x} = 4.00$).

To summarise this Table, one notices without any doubt that there is an agreement among the different age groups that police are not efficient. This is evident in the average evaluation of ($\bar{x} = 3.35$) by all respondents from different age groups. The only characteristic of the police evaluated positively by all except one age group (65+) is general appearance.

TABLE 4.9

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE EFFICIENCY (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
General appearance	2.95	1.38	2.38	1.19	2.28	1.18	2.60	1.35	2.53	1.41	3.951*
Handling of police vehicles	3.63	1.25	2.93	1.31	3.21	1.21	4.00	1.41	3.32	1.31	4.222*
Handling of complaints	3.56	1.23	3.21	1.30	3.36	1.24	3.60	1.17	3.49	1.13	1.193
Carrying out of arrests	3.66	1.24	3.13	1.33	3.51	1.14	3.90	1.37	3.75	1.26	3.642*
Early settlement of criminal cases	3.50	1.23	3.13	1.31	3.57	1.15	2.20	0.92	3.48	1.06	2.785
Firmness of action	3.35	1.14	2.93	1.12	2.36	1.23	3.8	1.32	3.25	1.10	2.439
Obligation of enforcing the law	3.47	1.34	3.04	1.26	3.30	1.31	3.80	1.23	3.45	1.22	1.903

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

The following is observed from Table 4.9 above: -

- There are significant occupational differences regarding the evaluation of police efficiency: -
 - Category 3 ($\bar{x} = 2.28$) significant and relates to general appearance
 - Category 2 ($\bar{x} = 2.93$) and category 4 ($\bar{x} = 4.00$) also significant and relates to handling of police vehicles.
 - Category 2 ($\bar{x} = 3.13$) again significant and relates to carrying out of arrests.
- The general trend in evaluating police efficiency appears to be poor at an average of ($\bar{x} = 3.36$). One can deduce from this Table that police are from socioeconomic point of view inefficient in KwaZulu-Natal.

4.4 SUMMARY

Certainly, no police management should direct personnel to engage in conduct that endangers life, property, constitutional guarantees or that serves to create disorder. Nor, obviously, should management tolerate such conduct.

In this chapter, evaluation of the functional, organisational expectations, police efficiency as well as the characteristics of role fulfiller is made with specific reference to the following:

- **Crime prevention;**
- **Emergency calls;**
- **Street patrolling;**
- **Business protection;**
- **Crime detection;**
- **Victim support, and**
- **Domestic violence.**

Organisational expectations is also evaluated and focus is on the following:

- **More police;**
- **Police effectiveness, and**
- **Resources.**

In as far as police efficiency is concerned, the following has received special attention:

- **Handling of crime in general.**

Regarding the characteristics of role fulfiller, the following important aspects are evaluated:

- **General appearance**

- **Handling of police vehicles**
- **Handling of complaints**
- **Carrying out of arrests**
- **Early settlement of criminal cases**
- **Firmness of action**
- **Obligation to enforce the law.**

CHAPTER 5

EXTERNAL IMAGE OF THE POLICE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Radelet & Carter (1994:201) provide a very useful and informative framework of the public image of the police. A favourable (positive) public image of the police is important for obtaining co-operation and support from citizens - especially within the framework of a community policing management style. Policing is predominantly a social service function which involves more than mere crime control through proactive and reactive measures, and according to Radelet et al. (1994:202) it may include ... providing protection, mediating conflict, resolving a crisis, providing assistance to solve problems, dealing with an emergency, or helping in any of myriad of other exigencies which a citizen may face.

Virtually everybody is concerned about his/her public (external) image. Just like individuals, organisations, business firms, universities, etc., police officers are also constantly aware of an building their public image (or should at least be doing so). Radelet et al. (1994:201) opine that respect for other people begins with respect for oneself. Self - respect is built on what we think others think of us. As a result of constant interaction between people, attitudes and behaviour are considerably shaped and influenced in either a positive or negative way, which may affect our public image and ultimate, self - respect for others. The process of building self - respect begins in childhood during the socialisation phase. Unlike individuals and police officers, a business firm measures its public image by means of how well its product is sold. Are people buying the product? Sales and profit statements should be able to provide an indication of how well a business firm performs and how satisfied customers are with the product. Customer reactions to the police product are difficult to measure, simply because this

product is community service. Measuring police productivity involves both individual officer performance and police organisational effectiveness. Both of these qualities are dependent upon the interaction between a variety of factors - many of which are difficult to measure (Radelet et al. 1994:234).

Because people have different expectations with regard to the Service rendered by the police, it is not always possible to ascertain exactly what they expect from the police or how they will respond to the actions of the police. Remember that in business terms, the customer is always right. Could this assumption be accepted as true for the service provided by the police? In quite a number of cases, the police customer expects a kind of service for other people and another form of treatment for him/herself. According to Van Heerden (1976:137), the police serve a heterogeneous society (e.g. Africans, Asians, Whites, Coloureds, Portuguese, Greeks, Italians etc. in South Africa) with conflicting interests and expectations. In-consistent and conflicting public expectations are sometimes that the police should:

- Be tough and compassionate;
- Stop all traffic law violators, but not me;
- Control crime and arrest perpetrators, but not bother law-abiding citizens;
- Not be prejudiced, but suspicious of peculiar people and strangers, etc. (Radelet et al. 1994 : 202).

5.2 DEFINITION OF POLICE IMAGE

About thirty years ago, Murphy (1965:45) published an article in *Journal of Criminal Law, Criminology and Police Science* entitled: *Improving the law enforcement image*, in which he clearly defined police image as... the public's reaction to the police, which reflects the degree of public confidence in and respect for policing (Van Heerden, 1976:137). This definition implies that the nature of this type of public image of the police is determined by the relations established in the course of service delivery to the public. In this sense, the police role is evaluated in terms of a particular set of expectations and direct knowledge (personal experience and perception) of the way in which the role is performed. Operationally, it means that a favourable (positive) image of the police and their actions) would stimulate promotes or cause to contribute towards) the voluntary compliance with the formal prescriptions (laws) of the country, while an unfavourable (negative) image might cause the public not to conform as expected (and to even take the law into their own hands.) An unfavourable image may have even further implications, because the police occupy a position of authority (appointed in terms of statutory law) and for this reason a poor public image of the police may also place the total authority structure (the government in general as well as the criminal justice system in particular) in jeopardy (Van Heerden, 1976: 137).

5.3 RESEARCH ON POLICE IMAGE: COMMUNITY ATTITUDES TOWARDS THE POLICE.

5.3.1 In the United States of America (USA).

Several studies (public opinion polls and surveys) have been conducted in the USA in regard to the status of the public's attitudes towards the police. The earliest research attempts of this nature were done in the early 1950's. In 1953, Douglas Gourley, a former Los Angeles police officer and public administration student at the Southern California

University launched a survey of public attitudes towards the Los Angeles police for his masters dissertation. In 1959, a similar study by a law school class at the university of Houston, Texas had been conducted under the supervision of Larry Fultz, former inspector in the Houston police department. What was the basic premise (or assumption) of these studies? Simply that it should be recognised that no matter how well a police department is organised, or how efficient and honest (and transparent) its administration, the police are judged (gauged and evaluated) by individual members of the public by virtue of their contacts with the public. Both these studies concluded that actual contacts with the police are the single most important determinant of the public image of the police (Potgieter, 1997:3)

The National Crime Survey (NCS) of the U.S Bureau of Justice Statistics (BJS) , as recently as 1992, surveyed a sample of nearly 100,000 American citizens to determine their victimisation experiences, behaviour related to the avoidance of victimisation, and the extent to which they have reported crimes to the police over the period 1973 - 1990. These crimes were categorised as personal crimes (i.e. crimes of violence) and property crimes. The mean average shows that only 35 percent of all crimes listed were reported while as much as 65 percent were not reported to the police. The reasons given for this under reporting included the following: -

- respondents nurtured the belief that, due to the nature of the crime (e.g. Seriousness) , the police would not be able to do anything about it.
- did not want to bother the police (with seemingly trivial matters); and
- that the police did not care about these crimes. This latter reason particularly related to the public image of the police (Potgieter, 1997:4).

Other reasons for not reporting crime to the police that might be more appropriate to the situation in South Africa, are :

- no police transport available to attend to emergency calls by the public (recent media reports also revealed a shortage in manpower, no fuel available for police vehicles and/or limits placed on monthly kilometres to be travelled - in short, an insufficient budget to enable the police to meet the needs and expectations of the public - Beeld, p.1, 28 December 1997; p.14 January 1998);
- Corruption among police officers (case dockets disappearing, police officers involved in serious crime commission, etc.);
- Fear of retaliation;
- It is not in the interest of society that the case should be reported;
- Court attendance is too time consuming;
- Negative attitude of the police with regard to crime in general.
- Victims human rights are not considered (i.e. a feeling that only criminals are being looked after and cared for, especially in the light of easy bail applications);
- Case is settled personally (either by agreement between parties involved; informal punishment, etc.)
- Personal nature of the case; and
- Do not want to burden the police with trivial matters (Du Preez, 1991: 115).

5.3.2 In South Africa (SA)

Radelet et al. (1994: 204 - 216) noted that the public image of the police is a complex phenomenon, which is formed by public opinion as a result of interaction between a wide range of local and national factors. Some incidents which occur at national level (e.g. police corruption) may influence the public image in general, i.e. that the total police system may be corrupt while incidents which take place at a local level (i.e. in a local community) may influence this image more specifically (i.e. that police officers of a specific Province are involved in violence). The major factors which shape the public opinion about the police are : (a) experiences with the police (i.e. direct contact), and (b) perceptions about police behaviour.

5.4 EXPERIENCE WITH THE POLICE

Personal experience with the police in the form of personal contact and police officer behaviour form the most important basis of public opinions regarding police performance and the ultimate police image. Radelet and Carter (1994: 205) opine that (a) the reason for the contact with the police and (b) the characteristics of police officers behaviour are two fundamental premises which will have an impact the public image of the police.

The reason for the contact constitutes and refers to the context of the interaction between a citizen and the police. The question of whether the contact: -

5.4.1 was initiated by a member of the public or by a police officer;

5.4.2 related to a crime incident or to a request for police service (emergency call);

5.4.3 was formal (arrest, traffic citation, warning, etc.) Or informal (requesting information or direction), are only a few examples of factors which might focus the public's

image about the police. It could be hypothesised that if the environment in which the contact takes place is of a hostile nature and one of conflict (such as an arrest or receiving a traffic citation), the contact is likely to generate a negative image. On the other hand, if the circumstances are of a co-operative and friendly nature (such as participation in a Neighbourhood Watch System or a Community policing Forum), the image is likely to be positive (favourable). The interpersonal dynamics involved in the contact situation may become more complex when intertwined with psychological dynamics experienced by members of the public at the time of the contact, e.g. stress, grief, trauma, etc. All these intervening factors may exert a strong influence on the public perceptions of the police - especially when citizens are vulnerable and emotionally unstable (Radelet et al. 1994: 205).

Characteristics of police officer behaviour such as body language, attitude verbal comment, appearance, etc. play an equally important role in forming (or shaping) the public's image of the police. Even factors relating to the police officer's personality and general communication skills may either have a negative or positive impact on the image. An authoritarian police personality (often acting undemocratically without considering other people's circumstances or interests), abuse of power and authority, use of insulting language, etc. are only a few examples of police behaviour which may negatively influence sound police-community relations. Equally important are the actions taken by police officers to resolve a specific situation. Bailey (1982:90-91) opines that police services are normally regarded by the public as a public good, i.e. something that is provided by government for the good of all, and something that is taken for granted. Jerome Skolnick first described what he called the working personality of police officers in his landmark book: *Justice without trial law enforcement in a democratic society*.

Job characteristics such as danger, authority, isolation, suspicion, etc. cause police officers to develop a particular approach to their jobs which could make them to be suspicious, authoritarian, cynical, secretive, etc. Police officers tend not to share their concerns and actions with the public for fear of negative public reactions. In this sense,

secrecy further isolates the police from the public, and consequently, the police will expect obedience and tend to dominate the public (Langworthy and Travis, 1994: 210 - 211).

Police actions often require from officers to be detached and unemotional when dealing with particular public issues. This may create the impression that the police are uncaring and not empathic to citizen's problems. Routinisation of many police actions (e.g. responding to emergency calls) (e.g. Burglaries, handling stolen vehicles, car - hijacking) may cause police officers to adopt an attitude that such problems are not serious ("no big deal"). Radelet and Carter (1994:205) remark that: "When the officer forgets the trauma these incidents cause the citizen, it gives the appearance of indifference, perhaps even that the citizen is bothersome."

Other specific types of experiences with police officers and the police organisation which may have a particular impact on the public image of the police, are the following; response time, traffic control, victimisation, asking police officers information, and going into a police station.

5.5 RESPONSE TIME

In general, the police believe that role visibility (street patrolling), rapid response to emergency calls, and expert investigation of crime by detectives, are the activation to be essential for ensuring public safety, i.e. which will prevent crime. Unfortunately, there is no evidence that they do (Bailey, 1982: 5).

Police officers often argue that routine preventive patrol would enable them to respond quickly emergency calls and that such rapid response would increase the likelihood of criminals being apprehended at the crime scene. Research by Van Kirk (1977) in Kansas City proved the opposite, simply because citizens (victims) tend to delay the reporting of crime to the police (Langworthy and Travis, 1994:245).

Orlando Wilson, former superintendent of the Chicago police Department, developed the theory of preventive patrol in which he advocated that marked police cars on routine (random patrol would create an omnipresence, which by itself, would deter criminals and reduce the public's fear of crime. Wilson's theory implicitly suggested that increased police patrol in hazardous zones (such as bars and schools) would positively influence crime and fear of crime in the sense that the crime rates would show a decline. However, the study by George Kellings and his associates about twenty years later, proved Wilson's theory wrong (as will be seen in the next paragraph).

In general, the studies show not surprisingly, that blacks and other minorities perceive the police more negatively than do whites. The 1966 National Opinion Research Center survey for the President's Crime Commission produced such findings. Blacks were markedly more negative than whites in evaluating police effectiveness in law enforcement. On questions pertaining to police discourtesy and misconduct, the disparity between the attitudes of blacks and whites was even greater. About two-thirds of whites, but only one-third of blacks, thought the police were "almost all honest" (Radelet, 1989: 121).

Whatever the proportion of time may be that police officers spend in law enforcement functions, this part of their role is clearly coercive. They are, in these sense important agents in social control apparatus that revolves around the use of force, when necessary to carry out its mandate. The effect is to curb, or deprive people of their liberty. To communities at large, the meaning of police and criminal justice processes resides in "no-no" symbolism: this must be done or else.

In this chapter those external determinants that continue to influence perceptions about the police will be evaluated. Role status of the police will be evaluated and rated against gender, age and occupation. It will be equally important to rate perceptual, institutional as well as functional determinants of role image of the police.

5.6 ROLE STATUS OF THE POLICE

TABLE 5.1

**GENDER DIFFERENCE EVALUATING OF ROLE STATUS OF THE POLICE
(N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		t-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police have a low social status	2.55	1.48	2.7	1.4	-15.501*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.1 indicates a significant gender difference between male respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.35$) and female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.70$) regarding the evaluation of the role status of the police. It is also observed from the same Table that indeed the police have a low social status since both male and female respondents seem to agree it. Although there is this agreement, but female respondents have some reservations with regard to this. One possible reason for this differences may be cited from what has been mentioned before. Women feel more safe with the police around. Although it has been debated that police are underpaid but what has been noticed is that from the little they earn they have successfully bought and provided suitable homes for their families.

TABLE 5.2

AGE DIFFERENCE AND EVALUATING OF ROLE STATUS OF THE POLICE (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		24-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police have a low social status	2.83	1.53	2.28	1.49	2.42	1.39	2.21	1.24	2.38	1.45	2.33	1.53	-6.977*

* $p \leq 0.05$

This Table 5.2 shows a significant age difference regarding the evaluation of the role status of the police. Respondents from ages between 45 years to 65 years and above have significantly evaluated this attribute (police have a low social status) more positive ($\bar{x} = 2.21$) and ($\bar{x} = 2.33$). It is interesting to note from the same Table that young people between ages of 18 – 24 years ($\bar{x} = 2.83$) have shown less agreement to the police having a low social status.

All that the Table says is there is as a matter of fact a significant age difference in the evaluation of role status of the police and that police have a low social status. Young people see the police driving decent cars and commanding respect and that to them means high status. They envy police work and all they dream about is to belong to the police organisation.

TABLE 5.3

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCE AND EVALUATING

	1		2		3		4		6		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police have a low social status	2.88	1.54	2.47	1.43	2.59	1.39	2.2	1.4	2.58	1.51	5.251*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

Although all five categories of respondents in Table 5.3 unanimously agree that police have a low social status, respondents in category 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.88$), that is workers in general labour, semi-skilled labour, agricultural and related work, armed as well as security forces are not in full agreement with this statement about the police. Students, that is, category 4 ($\bar{x} = 2.20$) are more convinced that truly police have a low social status.

5.7 ROLE IMAGE

The reality of police discretion in whether to enforce the law suggests the proper place of law enforcement in any consideration of the police role. Law enforcement does not belong in the list of police responsibilities that includes protection of life, property, and rights and preservation of order. All these are valid ends in themselves, but law enforcement is not. Instead, law enforcement is most appropriately regarded as one of many tools the police use to achieve their role in protecting life, property, rights and maintenance of public order.

5.7.1 Role and Police Discretion

Like any other profession, the police role can under no circumstances be achieved without the exercise of discretion.

Radelet (1986:78) argues that :

5.7.1.1 “.... One of the marks of a true profession is the inherent need for making value judgements and for exercising discretion based upon professional acceptance. To deny that discretion is exercised gives support to those

citizens who maintain that the job of a police officer is a simple one, that it is not worthy of professional status...”

According to van Heerden (1986:52-53) discretion is commonly defined as circumspection, judiciousness, the freedom or authority to take decisions, and the ability to judge.

The following factors are important regarding the exercise of discretion by police officers in the execution of their daily operational activities (Van Heerden, 1986:52-53) : -

- Discretion consists in the freedom to choose between action and in-action with the limits of one's authority.
- Authorised discretion relates mainly to powers of arrest, the alternatives to arrest, and departmental policy.
- Unauthorised discretion conflicts with the general rules, but may nevertheless be applicable in particular situations.
- Selective policing does not mean discriminatory law administration.
- Discretion relates to a particular situation, regardless of the type of person involved in it.
- Discrimination occurs when distinctions are made regarding the way in which people are treated, in other words, differential treatment is given on the basis of age, socio-economic status, educational level, nationality colour, etc.
- There can be no justice where double standards are operative: where there is one sort of justice for the rich and another for the poor.

- Discretion is nevertheless an indispensable means of individualising justice.
- Unrefined by discretion, regulations cannot possibly satisfy modern expectations concerning justice.
- Discretion is the most important means of achieving a creative governmental and legal system.
- Without discretion, the whole judicial system would be reeling under the burden of an overloaded police service, overcrowded courts and over-populated prisons.

The exercise of discretion by the police sometimes deteriorates into discrimination, violence, and other abusive practices (Radelet, 1986:72).

5.8 FACTORS INFLUENCING THE EXERCISE OF DISCRETION

It is in the actual contact situation that the line functionary is called upon to exercise discretion. Van Heerden (1986:55-56) gives those factors influencing the line officer's judgement as follows:-

- 5.8.1 obscure or inflexible departmental policy;
- 5.8.2 inadequate knowledge concerning the elements of offences and crimes;
- 5.8.3 constant departmental pressure for efficiency and productivity;
- 5.8.4 a belief on his/her part that it was not the legislator's intention that statutory law should be carried out to the letter;

- 5.8.5 court decisions repudiating specific acts by the police;
- 5.8.6 statutes which in his/her opinion are outmoded and more likely to result in injustice than to bring about social order;
- 5.8.7 a belief on his/her part that the light sentences imposed by the courts imply that certain offences are not regarded as serious;
- 5.8.8 a negative attitude towards crime cause by an impersonal and sometimes antagonistic internal and external occupational environment;
- 5.8.9 fear of departmental or judicial admonition in the event of improper action;
- 5.8.10 personal prejudices and priorities stemming from his/her own cultural background;
- 5.8.11 favouritism arising from corruption;
- 5.8.12 the hope of stimulating assistance - a person is not arrested on condition that he/she agrees to give information about some other crime;
- 5.8.13 the dangers of the situation in which he/she finds him/herself;
- 5.8.14 the need to uphold his own authority in situations in which it has been challenged without just cause; and
- 5.8.15 the tendency to place individuals and groups in certain categories on the basis of previous experiences.

Radelet (1986:71) also maintains that those environmental and situational influences on discretion should be taken into account, namely: -

- variations in communities and neighbourhoods as to receptivity to bizarre behaviour and happenings;
- differences between an officer's personal beliefs/values and prevalent beliefs/values in a neighbourhood or community;
- policies, practices and philosophy of the administration of particular police agencies;
- peer pressure by other officers;
- the number and kind of social agencies available to which the police may make referrals and the quality of the police relationships with such agencies;
- perhaps the race, class sex and age of the subject;
- the manner in which a crime or a situation is encountered; and
- physical and mental state of the officer and/or of the subject.

5.9 THE CONTROL OF DISCRETION

Perhaps the most vital control mechanism is the rewards and incentives aspect of personal management. Better education and training for police officers are thought of as relevant to the control of discretion in the sense of improving qualities of judgement, prudence, sensitivity and wisdom (Radelet, 1986:76).

Radelet (1986:74) states: -

"If discretion is to be exercised in an equitable manner, it must be structured, discretionary areas must be defined; policies must be developed and articulated, the official responsible for setting policies must be designated; opportunities must be afforded for established; forms of control must be instituted; and ample provisions must be made to enable persons affected by discretionary decisions to review the basis on which they were made."

The above-mentioned quotation shows how important it is to formulate certain guidelines for controlling the exercise of discretion by the police in the pursuance of their role in the society.

5.10 GUIDELINES EMANATING FROM COMMUNITY VALUES

According to Coetzee (1988:66) a value can be defined as: -

"...worth, desirability, utility... one's judgement of what is valuable or important in life."

Therefore, the exercising of discretion in the fulfilment of the police role in society can only be achieved successfully if community police officers (CPOs) can observe and adhere to the following guidelines emanating from community values (Coetzee, 1988:66-69):

- **Christian Doctrine:** The Christian doctrine is a source of community values from which normative behavioral guidelines for public functionaries can be inferred.
- **Fairness and Reasonableness:** In promoting the welfare of the community, community police officers should always act fairly and reasonably in their dealings

with the citizens of a country. There should be no scope for collusion. Every police officer should act such that his/her actions will withstand test of public scrutiny.

- **Efficiency:** Efficiency in the public sector means satisfying the most essential needs of the community to the greatest possible extent, in qualitative and quantitative terms using the limited resources that are available and upholding public accountability, the democratic requirements, fairness and reasonableness and the supremacy of the legislature (Coetzee, 1988:67).
- **Balanced Decisions:** Police officers serve the members of the public and may not on the grounds of creed, culture, race or political beliefs take unjustifiable or inconsistent decisions or actions. Decisions taken by police must be balanced and consistent at all times. All aspects of a particular matter must be considered and thoroughly investigated before a decision is taken.
- **Thoroughness:** All community police officers should execute their duties thoroughly and to the best of their ability. All police work should be done accurately, timeously and economically, of high quality and without wastage. Every community police officer should be above suspicion in all his/her actions.
- **Integrity and Honesty:** Community police officers are expected to perform their duties without any ulterior motives. No COP may exercise his/her official authority to gain advantage or privilege either for him-/herself or for any other person or groups of people. The community wants COPs to be paragons of virtue - honest, trustworthy, hard working, loyal, competent and compassionate (Coetzee, 1988:68-69).
- **Legality :** The actions of CPO's must never be ultra vires (or beyond their legal powers). If a CPO acts ultra vires he/she is required to account for his/her actions.

Failure to comply with the above-mentioned guidelines holds the of suspension or even discharge of the member concerned from the police service.

5.11 FUNCTIONAL DETERMINANTS

To the majority of people, it is a question whether community policing is proactive or reactive. Though the traditional mind set of policing always puts more emphasis on reactive policing, it does not mean that with the emerging of community policing which is proactive in character, reactive policing can be discarded completely. Community policing is a broad concept, which embraces a variety of proactive and reactive policing tactics and techniques. Therefore, it is important to note that no single type of policing (proactive or reactive) can be identified with community policing. Hence, the overall strategy emphasises flexibility in the use of the full range of tactics and techniques in addressing particular social problems and neighbourhoods (Ministry of Solicitor General, 1991: 7).

According to Dunham & Alpert (1989 :1) community police officer is expected to become a generalist and to perform his/her duties in such a way as to satisfy everybody. Hence, a well-known police chief, August Vollmer of Berkeley, California, one observed:

The citizen expects police officers to have: -

- the wisdom of Solomon,
- the courage of David,
- the strength of Samson,
- the patience of Job,

- the leadership of Moses,
- the kindness of the Good Samaritan,
- the strategical training of Alexander,
- the faith of Daniel,
- the diplomacy of Lincoln,
- the tolerance of the carpenter of Nazareth, and finally
- an intimate knowledge of every branch of the natural, biological and social sciences.

This chapter deals with both preventive and repressive policing within the concept of community policing. Under preventive policing, briefly, the following concepts are discussed, namely: meaning of crime prevention and preventive activities. Under repressive policing the following police aspects are of importance: the handling of the crime scene; the interviewing of both victims and witnesses; procedure regarding search and seizure; the effecting of arrest; and the principles of effective testifying.

5.11.1 Proactive Policing

5.11.1.1 Meaning of proactive

According to Wilson and McLaren (1977:410) the terms crime prevention, crime suppression, and crime resistance are related, but there are distinct differences in meaning. Crime prevention is one of the fundamental objectives of the police.

It relates to long-range preventive activity such as the work carried out by youth or juvenile officers. Crime suppression, on the other hand, refers to tactical and short-range preventive efforts such as field interrogation, contact with truants, surveillance of potential offenders, and similar activities.

Finally, crime resistance refers to security improvement, target hardening, and public education to prevent vulnerability to crime.

A crime is an act that is injurious and detrimental to the health, normal life and survival of an individual, his neighbours, and the community. In other words, it is an act that threatens, disrupts or violates the stability of a community and its individual members (Van Heerden, 1986: 153).

Crime is the result of interaction between predisposing and precipitating factors or the simultaneous existence of the desire to commit a crime and the belief that the opportunity to commit crime has actually presented itself. No crime can be committed in the absence of one or both of these factors (Botha, Coetzee & Van Vuuren, 1986: 115; and Van Heerden 1986 : 153).

Van Heerden (1986:154-155) differentiates between general deterrence and direct deterrence. According to him, general deterrence is directed at preventing the actual commission of projected crimes in the population as a whole, by increasing the likelihood of detection, prosecution and punishment. On the other hand, direct deterrence is achieved through the application of various aids to prevention. The presence of a police officer, a security guard, locks, barriers, electronic alarms and other technological aids, are all forms of direct deterrence.

According to Van Heerden (1986:155) crime prevention requires an integrated programme of treatment or prevention, making use of all suitable measures, aids and institutions with the object of:-

- preventing the repetition of crimes;
- preventing the development of criminal motivations,
- canalising motives and the spread of criminal tendencies to other susceptible persons,
- protecting society from established criminality by detaining the criminal,
- eliminating conditions that might foster criminality, and
- eradicating the belief that crimes can, in fact, be successfully committed.

Further, Van Heerden (1986: 156) suggests a pre-arrange prevention programme that should involve:

- A working philosophy that envisages prevention at both the predispositional and precipitational levels.
- Recognition of the cultural and ethical views of the society concerned.
- The stimulation of public interest by means of an information bureau disseminating up-to-date knowledge about crime and its prevention.
- Machinery for the timely detection and handling of maladjustment.
- Careful selection of suitable personnel.

The above- mentioned programme is extremely important and relevant to concept of

community policing. It can be advisable for a community police officer to put it into practice.

According to Annone (1975:6) crime prevention refers to activities directed towards keeping violations from happening. He states that crime is the result of both a desire on the part of an individual to commit an offence and opportunity- real or imagined- to commit it.

And in the same vein, Kenney (1972:194-195) states that crime prevention is often perceived as any organisational activity aimed at prevention unlawful behaviour from occurring initially, or keeping such behaviour to a minimum, in short, any organised activity aimed at deterring unlawful behaviour.

5.11.2 Preventive Activities

The discussion under preventive activities will include the following aspects : control of conditions, eliminating opportunities, security, patrol, education and conveying information on crime prevention, conflict and crisis intervention, team policing and neighbourhood watch system.

5.11.2.1 Control of Conditions

The condition under which a person finds him/herself may lead him/her to temptation of committing crime. Here, social institutions such as home, school and church can play a very important role in the prevention of crime. Incomplete families with all that goes with it may become a breeding place for criminality for children. The lack of support, discipline and medical care at home may lead children to become juvenile delinquency. However, if the family, the school and church may work hand in hand in bringing up children

according to social norms and mores, criminality can be minimised (Van Heerden, 1986 : 158).

The police can also play a vital role in the prevention of crime, particularly regarding the youth. A special youth unit can be formed to help build up improved relations between youth people and the people by: -

- making positive attempts at solving individual problems;
- winning the support, respect and co-operation of young people;
- informing young people about the aims of the police and the difficulties in the way of achieving them;
- instructing young people regarding their responsibilities in connection with the maintenance of order;
- broadening their insight into police work, particularly the humanitarian, proactive and preventive side of it;
- offering help and advise to, and display sympathy for any one in need;
- stimulating active involvement by means of youth patrols and youth bureaux;
- stimulating healthy recreation and leisure activities by means of youth clubs;
- providing the police, as a whole, with information concerning the needs and attitudes of young people, so that their opinions and beliefs will be better understood;

- handling young persons who have been arrested;
- preparing cases concerning young persons, and submit them in court;
- observing places of entertainment, parks and schools where juvenile delinquency can arise; and
- providing information about juvenile offenders, especially gangs (Botha, Coetzee & Van Vuuren 1986:127 and Van Heerden, 1986:161).

5.11.3 Eliminating Opportunities

Opportunities to commit crime can be eliminated by means of security and patrol.

5.11.3.1 Security

According to Van Heerden (1986:165) there are two branches of security: state security and property security.

State security relates to national and international security. It is the system of protecting the interests of the state in its relations with other nations and sub-national state units, of upholding the power and authority of the state and of ensuring the administration of state services (Van Heerden, 1986:165).

Property Security includes all measures initiated by individuals, partnerships and industrial or commercial institutions with the object of protecting their own property or interests (Van Heerden, 1986:165).

According to Van Heerden (1986:168-169) there are several forms of security:

- **Personnel Security** :It refers to the protection of people who come into contact with the undertaking, i.e. the personnel or prospective personnel, and the public in general. This type of security includes techniques such as personnel selection, background investigations, identification procedures and admission control by means of gate or door controls and closed-circuit television.
- **Physical Security**: It is directed towards the eradication of precipitating conditions by eliminating accessibility or reducing it to a minimum. It may be divided in to three lines of defence, namely:-
 - (a) **Boundary barriers**, i.e. fences, walls, observation towers, boundary lights, alarm systems, watchmen and patrols.
 - (b) **External barriers**, i.e. obstacles, lock and alarms on windows, doors and other means of ingress.
 - (c) **Internal barriers** i.e. the structural planning of the building, the position of safes, strong room, locks and electronic detectors.
 - (d) **Communication Security**: It is the protection of the spoken and written word, and it is essential prevent secret information from falling in unlawful hands.
 - (e) **Technological Security**: It relates to the protection of mental possessions such as confidential information, idea and patents, against unlawful duplication or decipherment by means of technological aids.
 - (e) **Disaster and emergency planning**: It aims at keeping losses and damage resulting from fire, floods and other natural disasters, or from riots, sabotage, strikes and other forfeitures or deliberate causes, down to the lowest possible minimum. A profound knowledge of security and all that is

related to it, is indispensable for a community police officer. With such knowledge, he/she may be in a good position to educate members of the community about security matters and crime can be reduced to minimum.

5.11.3.2 Patrol

Van Heerden (1986:170) states:

“Patrol is the basis of all police institution: the centre around which and the basis upon which all other activities are built...the effectiveness of any police institutions is determined by the effectiveness of its patrol system.”

Patrol is an indispensable service that plays a leading role in the accomplishment of the police purpose. It is the only form of police service that directly attempts to eliminate opportunity for misconduct (Klockars, 1983:136).

The above-mentioned views of patrol show how important it is to have community police patrol officers (CPOs). Therefore, for community police patrol officers to prevent crime effectively and efficiently should observe and adhere to the following purposes of police patrol: -

- the prevention of crime,
- general assistance to the public,
- the regulation of the public conduct,
- detection of crime, as well as the discovery of miscellaneous conditions affecting the welfare of the public,

- the preservation of the peace and dignity of a community, and
- arresting violators of traffic and criminal laws (Clift, 1970:178-180).

There are numerous types of police patrol available in modern police work, which a community police officer may implement more productively in carrying out his/her patrol function. These types of patrol include the following:-

- foot patrol,
- motorized patrol,
- horse patrol or mounted patrol,
- bicycle patrol,
- motor-cycle patrol, and
- aircraft patrol (Clift, 1970:180-181 and Iannone, 1975:10-14).

Should a question arise, which of the types of patrol is the best for a community police officer, the answer would simply be that all depends, firstly, on each and every situation, and secondly, on the availability of resources.

It must be noted that the above-mentioned types of patrol have been mostly used in the old styles of policing. For community policing numerous experiments in various countries have been conducted on community patrol officer programmes. For example, in the city of New York, a community patrol officer programme has been initiated. The primary objectives of the community patrol officer programme are:

- (a) To prevent and control conduct threatening to life and property, particularly that which affects neighbourhoods as a whole.
- (b) To create and maintain a feeling of security in the community by reducing disorder and the fear of crime in neighbourhoods.
- (c) To identify and address community problems that are potentially serious law enforcement or governmentally problems (McElroy, Cosgrove & Sadd, 1993:196)

In order to achieve these objectives, the community patrol officer programme is committed to:

- Involving the community to identifying its own public safety concerns and setting the departments priorities for addressing those concerns.
- Increasing community participation in policing activities and community-based public safety programmes.
- Exchanging information with the community on a regular basis.
- Using a problem-solving approach to developing strategies for police operations that respond to specific community problems, including non-traditional tactics and strategies.
- Co-ordinating strategies for addressing communities problems with other police personnel, other government agencies and private organisations.
- Assigning community patrol officers to permanent neighbourhood beats (McElroy, Cosgrove & Sadd, 1993: 196).

The duties of the Neighbourhood Foot Patrol officers are :-

- (1) to become community team leaders/ facilitators within their designated areas,
- (2) to become intimate with social structure and the problems that are legitimate concerns,
- (3) to work collectively with residents to identify problems and determine and apply solutions,
- (4) to respond to and investigate calls for service,
- (5) to decentralise service level calls to the storefront office,
- (6) to take a problem-oriented approach in dealing with repeat problems,
- (7) to eliminate the causes of repeat calls for service,
- (8) to identify and organize volunteers to staff the storefront office,
- (9) to recruit responsible people to form a Neighbourhood Liaison Committee,
- (10) to attend Neighbourhood Liaison Committee meetings and act as a team leader/facilitator, and,
- (11) to recognize that information is the lifeblood of policing and to facilitate the flow of information within the neighbourhood (Tragonowicz & Bucqueroux, 1990:409-410).

According to Greene and Mastrofski (1991:76-77) the envisioned community patrol officer programme improves police performance in several areas:

- Increased accountability

Community patrol officers would be permanently assigned to beat areas, and would be responsible for both identifying and dealing with crime and order maintenance problems within their beats.

- Identification with community

Traditional deployment strategies do not provide much opportunity for officers to get to know community residents. Community patrol officers would be required to get to know the residents and business people within their beat areas, and to attend community meetings. They would be required to determine the nature and extent of community problems by soliciting the input of the residents.

- Developing a proactive approach to order maintenance

Traditional police patrol practices are essentially reactive. Officers respond to calls-for-service, deal with the condition presented, and move on to the next call. However, community patrol would be based on a proactive approach to dealing with order maintenance problems and neighbourhood conditions.

Officers assigned as community patrol officers would be required not only to identify crime and order maintenance problems within their beat areas, but also to devise strategies to deal with them.

To sum, the community patrol officer's role is viewed as having four dimensions: planner, problem solver, community organiser, and information link (Green & Mastrofski, 1991: 78).

A profound knowledge of preliminary investigation of the crime scene is of paramount importance for a community police officer. This is more so because a community police officer is always visible and present on the ground where most of the crimes are being committed. According to Marais and Van Rooyen (1990:28) the taking charge and control of the crime scene is important to prevent any possible clues being disturbed or destroyed. The protection of the crime scene is important because it is mostly not the discovery of a specific object, which is of decisive important, but rather the exact location where it was found.

A community police officer that arrives first at the crime scene is duty-bound to perform the following duties: -

- the protection and guarding of the crime scene;
- the making of preliminary notes before the investigation actually begins;
- walking around the crime scene in order to identify safe routes for latent investigators and also to obtain an overall picture of the crime scene;
- the identification and making of potential physical clues to prevent the destruction or loss thereof;
- the evaluation of the crime scene in respect of available manpower and equipment; and
- the summoning of expert assistance to help with the collection of physical evidence and standards of comparison.

The following experts can be summoned: fingerprint expert; draftsman; photographer; dog handler and doctor (Marais & Van Rooyen, 1990:28-29 and Van Heerder, 1986:209-215).

(A) Taking charge and protection of the crime scene

The taking charge and protection of the crime scene is of utmost importance in the prevention of inquisitive persons from wandering about the crime scene and in the process destroying or damaging valuable physical evidence.

- **Taking charge of the scene**

Taking charge of the scene includes amongst others the following: -

- ✓ take immediate complete charge of the crime scene;
- ✓ remove all witnesses, complainants and other bystanders to a safe place where they will be available for questioning;
- ✓ record the personal particulars of witnesses, complainants and other person who were found on the scene;
- ✓ question complaints, bystanders and any other person who can throw light on the case;
- ✓ should the suspect be found on the scene, and the circumstances warrant such action, he/she must be searched, arrested and removed from the scene;
- ✓ the suspect must be kept away from all witnesses because any discussion between the suspect and any witnesses can hamper later interrogation;
- ✓ the witnesses must be requested not to discuss the events as this could lead to suggestion and a distortion of the facts;

- ✓ the crime must not be discussed with the witnesses; bystanders or the media as this could lead to suggest; and
- ✓ care must be taken to listen attentively to what the bystanders have to say (Marais & Van Rooyen, 1990 : 29-30).
- The protection of the crime scene

The protection of the crime scene includes: -

- the protection of the people and property;
- attend to injured victims; and
- the cordoning off of the scene.

According to Marais and Van Rooyen (1990:32), because of the heterogeneity of crime no hard and fast rules can be laid down, therefore, each crime scene must be protected pursuant to the type of crime and the relevant circumstances surrounding it.

A community police officer must acquaint himself/herself with the rules governing continuity of possession to avoid the tampering with physical evidence by unauthorised people.

- Interviewing of both victims and witnesses

Interviewing is the informal questioning of individuals in the course of the preliminary gathering and evaluation of facts. It is a face-to-face conversation with someone who is not a suspect, for the purpose of obtaining information (Clift, 1970:160-162 and Van Heerden, 1986:197).

Therefore, it is the task of the community police officer to: -

- trace people who might have information to offer;
- find a basis for co-operation by acknowledging the importance of the information;
- establish rapport with the individual by displaying confidence, understanding and sympathy;
- keep the individual talking for as long as he continues to relay information;
- keep his/her attention fixed upon the case in hand;
- ask questions requiring more than a simple yes or no answer;
- give the interviewee an opportunity to tell the whole story;
- ask questions which are pertinently related to the facts, discrepancies or contradictions;
- maintain a friendly, polite and respectful relationship with the interviewee;
- resist any temptation to insult, ridicule, bully or confuse the interviewee;
- handle sensitive topics tactfully;
- control his/her emotions and his/her tone of voice;
- display understanding of the effect of emotion, shock and injuries upon a person's ability to recall events and answer questions accurately;
- conduct the interview in a suitable place; and
- take a statement (Van Heerden, 1986:197-198)

Regarding the taking of statements, the community police officer should see to it that the following requirements of statement are met :-

- (a) accuracy,
- (b) conciseness,
- (c) completeness,

(d) comprehensiveness,

(e) honesty, and

(f) objectivity.

And the following questions must be asked when taking statements: Where? When? How? Whom? What? Why? Witness? (Van Meter, 1973: 69-70)

- Handling of victims of crime

Handling of victims of crime should form part and parcel of the functions of the community police officers. Because of the nature of their task, community police officers are likely to come across victims of crime on a daily basis. Therefore, community police officers should know which services can be offered to the victim(s) of crime. Among others, the following forms of help can be provided to the victims of crime:

(B) Reference for professional services.

(C) An opportunity to talk about the crime.

(D) Assistance during the court proceedings.

(E) Advice on crime prevention.

(F) Support in reporting the crime to the police.

(G) Practical aid with repairs and transport.

- (H) Financial aid (witness fee).
- (I) Support during identification parades.
- (J) Advice and aid with insurance claims.
- (K) Help with the replacement of documents
- (L) Advice on compensation. Compensation in South Africa is provided for by the Criminal Procedure Act (Act 51 of 1977, section 300 and 301), the Animal Protection Act.

(Act 71 of 1962) and the Stock Theft Act (Act 57 of 1957). A compensation order in accordance with the Criminal Procedure Act is based on private law principles (Snyman, 1991:58-59).

- Procedures regarding search and seizure

Search and seizure form part and parcel of the duties of community police officers. Therefore, procedures regarding search and seizure are of vital importance for a community police officer. The community police officer should be well versed with sections 20-35 of the Criminal Procedure Act, Act No.51 of 1977. Section 29 of the Act is of particular importance here because it requires a community police officer to conduct a search in a decent and orderly manner. Section 29 of the Act, states:

A search of any person or premises shall be conducted with strict regard to decency and order, and a woman shall be searched by a woman only, and if no female police official is available, the search shall be made by any woman designated for the purpose by a police official.

- **The effecting of arrest**

Clift (1970:293) states that an arrest is the apprehension or detaining of the person in order to be forthcoming to answer an alleged or supposed crime.

In this regard, it will be always expected of the community police officer to effect arrest in the execution of his/her daily police duties. Pertaining to arrest, sections 39-53 of the Criminal Procedural Act (Act No. 51 of 1977) are extremely important. Section 49 (use of force in effecting arrest) and section 50 (procedure after arrest) are to be known and understood by the community police officer for their effects have got a far reaching legal implication in as far as human rights principles are concerned. Section 49 of the Act, reads thus:

If any person authorised under this Act to arrest or to assist in arresting another, attempts to arrest such person and such person: -

- (a) resists the attempt and cannot be arrested without the use of force; or
- (b) flees when it is clear that an attempt to arrest him is being made, or resists such attempt and flees, the person so authorised may, in order to effect the arrest, use such force as may in the circumstances be reasonably necessary to overcome the resistance or to prevent the person concerned from fleeing.
- (c) Where the person concerned is to be arrested for an offence referred to in Schedule 1 or is to be arrested on the ground that he is reasonably suspected of having committed such an offence, and the person authorised under this Act to arrest or to assist in arresting him cannot arrest him or prevent him from fleeing by other means than by killing him, the killing shall be deemed to be justifiable homicide.

5.12 PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE TESTIFYING

It is often that each criminal case reported to the police ends up before the court of law for judgement. It is because of this very reason that the community police officer should have a profound knowledge of the Marais, Smit and Lt. Col. Mosters (1992:205) these principles include the following: -

- The community police officer, at all times, has to conduct him-herself in a professional manner.
- To speak when questions are asked and an answer must be limited to that implied by the question.
- To speak clearly and audibly.
- To clearly understand the question and its implications before giving an answer.
- To always react honestly and sincerely to questions.
- To describe investigation activities in a chronological manner.

Clift (1970:329-330) lists those conducts that should be avoided by a police officer in court:

- (1) Boisterous behaviour among themselves before court is opened.
- (2) Examining or toying with the other man=s evidence, such as a gun.
- (3) Relaxing or sleeping in view of the court while waiting for a case to be called.

- (4) Conspicuously smoking or chewing while in the courtroom.
- (5) Making frequent trips to the prosecutor while the case is being tried.
- (6) Lounging on the witness stand during the trial.
- (7) Conversing with witnesses during the trial.
- (8) Testifying in low tones or speaking too loudly.
- (9) Becoming too familiar with the judge or his attaches.

5.12.1 Neighbourhood Watch System (NWS)

The launching of Neighbourhood Watch Systems is of decisive importance. Neighbourhood Watch Systems may be regarded as a working partnership between police and the community to reduce crime and the fear of crime. Neighbourhood Watch Systems seeks activity to involve the public in caring for their own community by encouraging citizens to gather into neighbourhood groups so that they can be helped and advised by the police.

Neighbours are encourage to look out in order to deter thieves, to provide communal support and to give the police an early warning of likely crime (Morgan & Smith, 1989:140).

Among other things, the aims of Neighbourhood Watch Systems and what it may achieve, include: -

- to look out for suspicious incidents and report them to the police;

- prevention of street robbery;
- prevention of vehicle crime;
- reduction of fear of crime;
- improvements in public awareness to safeguard property;
- greater contact between neighbours; and
- closer liaison between the police and the public (Morgan & Smith, 1989:141-142).

Neighbourhood Watch System may involve all the community and business groups, civic groups, school children and ordinary citizens (Pike, 1983).

Different programmes can be initiated to involve citizens in crime prevention with the assumption that co-operative interaction and involvement between the police and the community will more effectively ensure that crimes will be prevented and the community will be a safer place to live. These programmes include the following:

- **The Community- Service Officer:** The use of community-service officers can help reduce high rates of crime because of improved police service.
- **Block Home Units:** They can be initiated to prevent child molesting and provide assistance to school-age children who are not in their own neighbourhood.
- **Block Watches:** The programme involves concerned citizens who observed suspicious activities in their neighbourhood and then relay the information to the police department.

- **Safe-Street-Unit Project:** In this programme residents are employed to work with the police in such activities as juvenile-delinquency prevention and rehabilitation, the improvement of community services to residents, the provision of counselling and other assistance to families having domestic problems, and many other activities that improve the community and make it a safer place to live (Trojanowics & Dixon, 1974: 289-294).

Having stated the above pertaining to Neighbourhood Watch Systems, the evaluation of it certain researchers has shown that Neighbourhood Watch has been not as successful as it was envisioned. Most Neighbourhood Watch schemes quickly become dormant, and those which may be said to function at some level have a life only in the meeting of police and co-ordinators, and in the occasional newsletter (McConville & Shepherd, 1992: 114). Discretion consists in the freedom to choose between action and in-action with the limits of one's authority.

TABLE 5.4**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL DETERMINANTS
(N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Investigation of crime	2.07	1.39	2	1.32	-7.354*
Street patrolling	2.23	1.35	2.06	1.28	-9.121*
Protection and guidance of youth	2.07	1.3	2.15	1.25	-9.303*
Prevention of crime	1.85	1.21	1.91	1.26	-5.664*
Educating society about crime	2.17	1.36	2.13	1.23	-9.510*
Protection of Human Rights	2.34	1.47	2.08	1.31	-9.393*
Investigation of traffic accidents	2.21	1.23	2.16	1.22	-10.514*
Settlement of domestic quarrels	2.78	1.44	2.71	1.34	-17.802*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.4 shows a significant gender difference regarding the evaluation of functional determinants: -

- Investigation of crime,
- Street patrolling,
- Protection and guidance of youth

- **Prevention of crime,**
- **Protection of Human Rights,**
- **Investigation of traffic accidents,**
- **Settlement of domestic quarrels,**

Both male and female respondents positively evaluated all the above attributes respectively. Although the evaluation is positive but differences between male and female respondents are prominent in all their rating. It can be seen from this Table that all the above-mentioned attributed in the Table are important for policing to be affective. The differences can be thought to be coming from the general negative attitude males have about the police. Men are never satisfied about the police. This may be their involvement in criminal activities in most instances.

TABLE 5.5

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL DETERMINANTS (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Investigation of crime	2.2	1.44	1.97	1.31	1.87	1.19	1.48	1.06	1.94	1.3	3.67	1.53	-0.368
Street patrolling	2.16	1.34	2.17	1.33	2.09	1.3	1.88	1.19	2.37	1.15	3	1.73	-1.769
Protection and guidance of youth	2	1.28	2.31	1.3	2.18	1.23	1.7	1.05	2.56	1.41	2	1.73	-1.545
Prevention of crime	1.85	1.25	2.09	1.4	1.87	1.07	1.39	1.75	1.94	1.24	2	1	1.46
Educating society about crime	2.13	1.22	2.37	1.39	1.93	1.26	1.65	1.12	2.31	1.58	2.67	2.08	-1.843
Protection of Human Rights	2.33	1.45	2.16	1.48	2.07	1.19	1.73	1.15	2.31	1.35	2.33	1.53	-2.301*
Investigation of traffic accidents	2.09	1.22	2.38	1.14	2.16	1.27	1.88	1.27	2.5	1.41	2.33	1.15	-2.414*
Settlement of domestic quarrels	2.82	1.42	2.7	1.32	2.54	1.32	2.58	1.44	3.13	1.41	5.00	0	-9.124*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.5 above pictures s the following: -

- There is a signification age differences in the evaluation of functional determinants.
- Protection of Human Rights is evaluated more significant by respondents between ages of 45-54 ($\bar{x} = 1.73$) as compared to the rest of the other age circles.
- Investigation of traffic accidents also comes strong with the same age group 45-54 ($\bar{x} = 1.88$).
- Respondents of 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 5.00$) are saying the police should concentrate on their core policing business than settlement of domestic quarrels. A trend is noticed with respondents between 45-54 years where the evaluation of all attributes has for them been "most important." The respondents in this age bracket in most instance are employed and are in stable and professional jobs and their evaluation of the police activities they are somewhat satisfied with the police.

TABLE 5.6**OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF FUNCTIONAL DETERMINANTS (N=485)**

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Investigation of crime	2.16	1.41	2.03	1.21	1.87	1.23	1.2	0.42	2.09	1.44	11.763*
Street patrolling	2.21	1.34	2.28	1.37	2.21	1.28	1.6	0.97	2.04	1.31	10.491*
Protection and guidance of youth	2.18	1.42	2.17	1.29	2.11	1.21	1.7	1.06	2.09	1.22	11.019*
Prevention of crime	2.3	1.41	1.89	1.04	1.91	1.2	1.5	1.08	1.08	1.22	13.356*
Educating society about crime	2.36	1.45	1.85	1.21	2.17	1.32	1.8	1.32	2.13	1.18	10.645*
Protection of Human Rights	2.07	1.4	2.08	1.2	2.15	1.34	1.8	1.03	2.36	1.49	10.463*
Investigation of traffic accidents	2.28	1.34	2.08	1.12	2.03	1.22	2.3	1.42	2.23	1.18	10.711*
Settlement of domestic quarrels	2.91	1.51	2.63	1.36	2.65	1.26	2.7	1.77	2.74	1.36	4.321

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

It appears in Table 5.6 above that students, that is, category 4 ($\bar{x} = 1.20$), ($\bar{x} = 1.60$), ($\bar{x} = 1.70$), ($\bar{x} = 1.50$) and ($\bar{x} = 1.80$) are convinced that these attributes are most important functional determinants. It is also noticed that there are significant differences when it comes to occupation regarding functional determinants. What come out most prominent in this Table are that all the attributes or all respondents from all occupational brackets positively evaluate functional determinants.

5.13 SOCIAL CONTACT

TABLE 5.7

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND THE EVALUATING OF SOCIAL CONTACT

(N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Social contact between the police and community to stimulate co-operation	1.9	1.08	2.05	1.19	-7.834*

* $p \leq 0.05$

It is striking to see from Table 5.7 above that although male ($\bar{x} = 1.90$) and female ($\bar{x} = 2.05$) respondents agree that social contact between the police and community definitely stimulates cooperation, male respondents are significantly convinced that social contact definitely stimulated assistance.

The evaluation of social contact indicates that there still exists the 'them' and 'us' within the community and the police. As one of Sir Robert Peel's arguments that "the police are the people and the people are the police" says, the police should not regard themselves as only the service providers, but also full members of the community.

TABLE 5.8

AGE DIFFERENCES AND THE EVALUATION OF SOCIAL CONTACT (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Social contact between the police and community to stimulate co-operation	2.1	1.2	2.02	1.2	1.8	1.01	1.7	1.02	1.94	0	2.3	1.2	0.269

In Table 5.8 above, respondents aged between 18 – 24 years ($\bar{x} = 2.08$), 25 – 34 years ($\bar{x} = 2.02$) and 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 2.33$) all agree that social contact between the police and community can stimulate cooperation. For respondents aged between 35 – 44 years ($\bar{x} = 1.78$), 45 – 54 years ($\bar{x} = 1.70$) and 55 – 64 years ($\bar{x} = 1.94$), social contact between the police and community can stimulate cooperation.

Category 1 is made up of a variety of occupational types including armed forces and security services. It is thus suspected that the significant difference is caused by the culture that exists within the security services, armed forces as well as the policing environment. These occupations tend to regard other occupation types as inferior. This is notable through the use of names like "haas" and "civilian" by both the police and army members.

TABLE 5.9

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF SOCIAL CONTACT

(N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Social contact between the police and community to stimulate co-operation	2.19	1.21	1.82	1.01	1.9	1.06	1.7	0.82	1.97	1.2	12.874*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 5.9 indicates that there are significant occupational differences in the evaluation of social contact between the police and community. Respondents in category 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.19$) are significantly less convinced that social contact could stimulate cooperation.

5.14 SUMMARY

To summarise a wide range of factors influences the public image of the police. Some of these factors stem from personal experience, i.e. through direct contact with the police, while other may be based on perception (some which are accurate and other not) - i.e. what the public see when the police perform their role.

Most people never come into direct contact with the police and for this reason derive their knowledge of the way in which the police fulfil their role mainly from personal observation in public places, from what they hear from other people (like friends and relatives) and from media reports (TV and news - papers etc.) It has already been mentioned that the public perception of the police important for obtaining co - operation and support in the execution of their duties. Perceptions that the police are corrupt, insensitive and incompetent will negatively influence the image of the police which may result in a reluctance on the part of the public to co-operate and support policing endeavours to combat crime. Conversely, if the image is perceived as being positive, professional and co - operative, the public will tend to be more enthusiastic and less suspicious of police motives related to public involvement.

Improving a poor image will not only require substantive initiatives on the part of the police to restore confidence and time. A positive image is fragile, which means that it should be continually reinforced through administrative control, community involvement in policing matters and professional police officer behaviour.

CHAPTER 6

COMMUNITY ALLIANCE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Accomplishing major changes in police institutions remain a problematic issue for any police organisation- especially if it has to move beyond the traditional, reactive and incident - driven policing model. In California, for instance, repeated demands were made by community leaders, politicians, academicians and police executives to reform the Los Angeles Police Department (LAPD) from mechanistic, professional model to a more community - oriented approach, following the ill - fated Rodney king beating in March 1991 and the massive civil disturbances in April and May 1992 (Berg, 1995:1).

Rapid social, political and economic change, a persisting high crime rate, ongoing violence, unemployment, poverty, etc., are only few of the factors which affect the functioning of the police in society, causing police managers to be caught in the current of transition without clear information about future organisational or societal needs (Wagner, 1995:8). Since 1 April 1913 (when the erstwhile South African Police had been formally and officially established), policing in South Africa embraced traditional policing methods and techniques, firmly based on a para-military style of law enforcement with a typical bureaucratic inclination (Potgieter, 1982:5). Although community - based policing emerged as a new model of policing (Radelet et al. 1994:60), traditional styles of policing have been difficult to change. The Bureau of justice Assistance (BJA) clearly stated in a monograph that: Policing strategies that worked in the past are not always effective today (BJA, 1994: 3).

Chris Braiden, former Superintendent of the Edmonton police department, Alberta, Canada traced the concept of community policing back to Sir Robert Peel, the founder of modern policing in England in the early 19th century. He stated that "...community policing is a philosophy, a mind set, and the reason we do things in policing... [community policing is the vision that tells us (the police) the right things to do]" (Glaus, 1995:17). One of Sir Robert Peel's police principles:" ... the police are the public and the public are the police can be regarded as the breeding ground of community policing, although the first modern police department (established in terms of the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829) was organised along para-military lines" (Gaines & Swanson, 1997:3).

New York City (USA) copied Robert Peel's plan of police organisation in 1844, followed by similar organisational patterns in Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston, and in 1870, the main features of the London metropolitan police were firmly established in this country [USA] (Radelet & Carter, 1994:10). Even South African adopted a strong para-military police organisational structure since the arrival of Jan van Riebeeck at the Cape in 1652. However, from 1840 the police system in South Africa became more organised in terms of the British Metropolitan Police. Although the character, composition and functions of the erstwhile South African police have been strongly influenced by the British system, the force differ in some respects from the British police, and does have a distinctive character.

The Bureau of Justice Assistance is adamant that any community alliance (partnership) should exceed standard (and even stereotyped) law enforcement practices, and in this endeavour, a broadened outlook should be adopted to recognise the value of any activities capable of contributing towards orderliness and the well - being of neighbourhoods.

These activities could include the following:

- assisting accident or crime victims;
- providing emergency medical services;

- assist in resolving domestic and neighbourhood conflicts(e.g. family violence, landlord - tenant disputes, racial harassment, etc.);
- working with residents and local business to improve neighbourhood conditions;
- controlling vehicle and pedestrian traffic;
- providing emergency social services and referrals of those at risk (e.g. runaways or missing children, the homeless, the intoxicated, the mentally ill, etc.);
- protection of human rights (especially the right to speak, protecting lawful gatherings from disruption);
- providing a model of citizenship (helpfulness, respect for others, honesty and fairness) (BJA, 1994:15).

Developing trust between the police and the community will enable the police to gain greater access to valuable information from the community, necessary to facilitate -

- the prevention and solution of crime;
- support for needed crime - control measures; and
- an opportunity for police officers to establish a working relationship with members of the community with the aim of promoting safety and security (BJA,1994:16)

Cordner (1995:3) opines that trust, confidence and co-operation on both sides of the police - public partnership will only prevail once patrol officers are assigned to the same areas form extended periods of time with the aim of increasing their familiarity with the community and vice versa. This will also enable police officers to become more

knowledgeable about their community and individual residents that could contribute to early problem identification and intervention, avoiding unnecessary conflict and enhancing geographic accountability.

Wesley Skogan (1996:31-32) adamantly states that it is not an easy task to convey the meaning of community policing to citizens who are supposed to benefit from this new policing approach. He cites six possible factors that could hamper such endeavour: -

- (1) the police and citizens may have a history of not getting along with each other,
- (2) especially disadvantaged communities show evidence of antagonistic relationship with the police who may be perceived as arrogant, brutal and uncaring - not as potential partners,
- (3) community policing may be viewed as a more intensive form of policing than they (citizens) are used to, leaving the impression that it could generate new conflicts between them and result in further harassment and for instance indiscriminate searches of premises,
- (4) low - income and high - crime areas often lack the organisational infrastructure needed to get people involved,
- (5) residents are unfamiliar with the goals and tactics of community policing because nothing in the past has really prepared them for this new police mission as a result of a lack of training and education of the public necessary to foster real commitments, and
- (6) the public may come to view community policing initiatives as here today, gone tomorrow precisely because they discern (perceive) that the police are not fully committed to the program.

Having identified these factors that could have a hampering effect on the introduction and establishment of community policing as a new philosophy and strategy, Radelet and Carter (1994:40-46) went on to highlight various endemic issues which persistently continue to negatively influence the flourishing of a sound and stable police community alliance. These issues will be briefly discussed below.

6.2 COMMUNITY POLICING: TOWARDS A DEFINITION

Community Policing became a “buzz word” that is taken for granted by professionals and scholars who use the term to replace other terms such as foot patrol, crime prevention and police-community relations. What is possibly so fascinating about Community Policing is that it is not easily amenable to a particular definition and as it will be shown later, it is framed in terms of eight to ten principles, but it is a highly appealing concept.

According to Friedmann (1992:87), definition of Community Policing focuses on different components and principles that do not yield themselves easily to a single description. Therefore, he suggests looking at Community Policing from the following three perspectives: -

From the *perspective of the Police* there is a growing need to improve ties with the community for the purpose of: -

- Relying on more community resources to assist police in crime control efforts and in reducing levels of crime-fear in the population;
- Improving police bases for intelligence gathering;
- Increasing police legitimacy within the community.

From the ***perspective of the Community*** there is a growing recognition that it deserves and should receive: -

- Improved police services;
- Greater police accountability;
- Increased power sharing in police decisions.

From the ***perspectives of both community and police***, community policing assumes that:

- Crime is produced by societal factors over which police have little control;
- Crime control needs to focus on those societal factors which cause crime;
- Proactive policing needs to be added to and in some instances replace reactive policing;
- Decentralised force-wide implementation of community-oriented policing is a prerequisite;
- Greater focus on 'quality of life' issues that exceed crime and fear of crime need to be attended to in a addition to 'traditional' crime issues;
- Greater consideration for civil rights and liberties are essential for successful democratic policing.

Friedmann (1992) goes on and attempt to consolidate these different dimensions into one workable definition offered as follows: -

“Community Policing is a policy and a strategy aimed at achieving more effective and efficient crime control, reduced fear of crime, improved quality of life, improved police services and legitimacy, through a proactive reliance on community resources that seeks to change crime-causing conditions. It assumes a need for greater accountability of police, greater public share in decision-making and greater concern for civil rights and liberties”.

Trojanowicz and Carter (1988) provide a functional definition of community policing, namely: -

“A philosophy and not a specific tactic, community policing is a proactive, decentralised approach, designed to reduce crime, disorder, and by extension, fear of crime, by intensively involving the same officer in the same community on a long-term basis, so that residents will develop trust to cooperate with police by providing information and assistance to achieve those three crucial goals”.

This definition reflects the sentiments expressed in Community Policing framework and Draft guidelines (Safety and Security, South Africa, 1997), which identifies the main elements of Community Policing as: -

- Structured consultation between the police and different communities about local problems, policies, priorities and strategies;

- The adaptation of policing strategies to fit the requirements of particular local circumstances and also the development of a customer orientation in the rendering of services;
- The mobilisation of all resources available to the community and the police to resolve problems and promote safety and security;
- Accountability to the community through mechanisms to encourage transparency;
- Changing the policing focus from a primarily reactive focus on crime control to a proactive focus on crime control to a proactive focus on the underlying causes of crime and violence.

Considering the above, it is evident that the primary goals of community policing cannot be achieved unless the quality and level of interaction and collaboration between the police, individual citizens, and community organisations are increased. The pursuit of these goals implies that the greatest challenge that faces any community policing project is to “unleash the potential for effective organisation lying dormant in communities” (De Beer, 1998: 49).

This challenge is proving even more formidable within the South African context owing to the highly politicised and isolated role that the police played in the past.

6.3 POLICE RELATIONSHIPS IN SOUTH AFRICA

It is obvious that the philosophy of community policing is difficult to implement. The main reason for this seems to be lack of trust between some communities and the police. Hill (1994:56) shows that racial or ethnic minorities invariably experience over-policing and “differential arrests” The result is that such minorities tend to view policing with distrust, and avoid any relationship with the police, let alone the type of close relationship required

for effective community policing. In South Africa evidence shows that the black communities in particular have every reason to be suspicious of any initiative taken by government authorities to establish community-policing forums precisely because of their experience of over –policing and differential arrests.

Hill (1994:88) further cites research that, when applied to the South African situation, supports the notion that the youth, the unemployed, the disadvantaged, and blacks particularly where these categories overlap, are subject to harassment and over-policing. Such discriminatory treatment negative stereotyping do not bode well for any positive relationship between historically disadvantaged communities and the police. The irony of this is that, contrary to current belief, it is not the affluent, but the members of poor, disadvantaged communities that are most likely to become victims of crime and are therefore those most in need of effective community-policing forums (Crow & Allan 1994: 59).

Reiner (1985:47) argues that ensuring the accountability of the police to the community is dependent not on particular mechanisms, but rather on the spirit, which pervades the political system as a whole⁷. The implication is that the political history or status quo will invariably influence community policing, which depends entirely on a healthy relationship between citizens and the police. The problems experienced in getting community policing off the ground within the South African environment is evidence of the fact that this argument has merit. To gain a better understanding of the problems experienced in establishing community-policing forums in South Africa, it is necessary to consider the historical, traditional, community, political, and human aspects that influence the situation.

6.3.1 Historical Factors

The historical truth is that the South African police had to administer and enforce apartheid laws in order to guarantee the successful execution of government policies. Policing in South Africa was characterised by brutality, against blacks in particular, poor treatment of

prisoners, and failure to respond to complaints about police misbehaviour. They often played a semi-military role, acting against mass demonstrators (Buchner 1992: 44).

The perception created by this was the police were “servants of the state and tormentors of the people” Scharf (1992:44). This caused a great divide to develop between the police, who forfeited their role as instruments of crime prevention - the preamble to the South African Police Service (Act 68 of 1995), and the community, and remained the main obstacle in the way of successful community-police, relationships. It also meant that when the liberation movements were freed and recognised in 1990, the police were “caught entirely off guard and were thrown into a fundamental rethink/reassessment of their function and style... In particular they had to re-conceive entirely their relation to black civil society” (De Beer, 1998:49).

6.3.2 Traditional Factors

Related to the above is the fact that the distrust of formal policing in South Africa largely encouraged the return to traditional means of maintaining order in black communities, what Scharf (1992) calls “self-policing by civil society.” Different types of structures emerged to serve as peacekeeping bodies, street patrols, “community guards”, and to perform other informal policing activities. People’s courts, which attempted to regulate internal conflicts within communities, also sprang up in townships. While some of these bodies were abused by gangsters and other individuals, they actively involved the communities in self-policing, and hence equipped them for community involvement in crime prevention and crime fighting as envisioned by the Constitution of South Africa and the South African Police Act (Act 68 of 1995).

6.3.3 Community Factors

Apartheid had as one of its results the splintering of South African society into many different communities, some of which were discriminated against and others advanced by

virtue of colour. As indicated above, South African blacks in particular experienced over-policing, while South African whites enjoyed favoured status. Those employed in the police service were almost exclusively white (Buchner 1992:38). This amounted to job reservation for political preservation. Blacks who were employed in the police force were traditionally regarded as political sell-outs, and were treated with disdain and suspicion by the communities they were supposed to serve.

6.3.4 Political Factors

The political climate that prevailed prior to April 1994, when a democratically elected government came into power in South Africa, was one of distrust and even hatred between the police and black communities. Political solutions were therefore not sufficient to solve the problems faced by South African society. They could not simply eradicate the feelings and realities that existed between the community and the police. While much has been done to build the relationship between communities and the police in an effort to reduce crime, it is evident that "the spirit that pervades the political system as a whole" will take some time to change into one of friendship -and true cooperation (Reiner, 1985:43).

6.3.5 The Human Factor

In addition to the above factors, which may fly in the face of community-police cooperation in the fight against crime, is the human factor. An optimistic anthropology assumes that had the above factors not existed, community policing would have met with much success. Citizen participation research, however, proves such an assumption false (Milbrath & Goel 1977: 51).

6.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF COMMUNITY POLICING

According to the Draft Guidelines by Safety and Security(1997:67) -Community Policing, the following are the characteristics of Community Policing: -

6.4.1 Service Orientation

Service orientation is primary concerned with promoting the concept that the community is the client, and the Police the service provider. This means that the various needs of the clients must be taken into account, to enable the rendering of a professional, client-central service that is effective, efficient and accountable.

6.4.2 Partnership

The establishment of Community Police Forum and Boards, which should be broadly representative of the Community, is of crucial importance. This should be seen as a cooperative effort to facilitate a process of problem solving. The main objective of this partnership is to determine, through consultation, community needs and policing priorities, and to promote police accountability, transparency and effectiveness.

6.4.3 Problem-Solving

This relates to the joint identification and analysis of the actual and potential causes of crime and conflict within communities. This analysis guides the development of measures to address such problems over the short-, medium- and long-term. Problem -solving also involves conflict resolution and creative problem-solving methods to address problems related to service delivery and police-community relations.

6.4.4 Empowerment

This refers to the creation of a sense of joint responsibility and a joint capacity for addressing crime, service delivery and safety and security amongst members of the community and South African Police Service personnel. This implies that members of the community and the South African Police Service personnel are to be educated with regards to community policing, to enable all to play a constructive role in the community Police Forums, Boards and in their respective communities.

6.4.5 Accountability

Accountability will be realised by creating mechanisms through which the police can be made answerable for addressing the needs and concerns of the communities they serve. Mechanisms such as community visitors' schemes, the Independent Complaint Directorate and efforts to make the police more transparent can be utilised to establish a culture of accountability (South African Police Service, 1997:2).

The art of achieving accountability is to enlist the support of the police in disciplinary activities. For processes of external regulation to be more than a highly publicized morality play, the police must become convinced that they will be trusted to bear. The active responsibility for ensuring correct performance (Bailey, 1983:158).

Accountability institutions will only be truly efficacious in affecting police practices if they win over and work in conjunction with internal disciplinary and self-controlling processes. A heavy hand cannot force them. The role of formal powers and accountability in achieving reforms should be assessed with reference to the following functions: -

6.4.5.1 *The Constitutional Function*

They have a symbolic function in asserting the ideal of police subordination to democracy and the rule of law. They must express values and norms, which are defensible with respect to the principles of due process legality.

6.4.5.2 *The Cooptive Function*

They will only become effective if they transform and corrupt the informal values of police sub-culture because of this they should not be expressed in so purist or hostile a fashion that they result in a defensive closing of police ranks.

6.4.5.3 *The Communicative Function*

Some signalling mechanism registering the need for change is necessary to spark off internal reforms, a task often performed by "scandals" in the absence of adequate channels for the routine communication of grievances and complaints (Reiner, 1985:180).

According to Shapland and Vagg (1988:104), we have used the term "accountable" several times. Accountability is almost as much of a weasel word as "community". It has many different meanings, but it has been purloined in discussions of policing by certain groups and its definition limited to pre-emptive control of operational policing by democratically elected representatives of residents of a relatively large area. We find this limitation extremely unhelpful to the discussion (Shapland & Vagg, 1988:190).

6.5 GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF COMMUNITY POLICING

6.5.1 *Respect for and Protections of Human Rights*

Community policing informs guides and sustains all policing activities.

All members of the South African Police Service should participate in community policing and problem-solving initiatives.

Problem solving should be based on a consultative approach, which constantly seeks:

- To improve responsiveness to identify, and prioritise community needs.
- Education, capacity building and training of South African Police personnel and members of the community to enable constructive participation in addressing the problem of crime.
- Resolving conflict between and within grouping in manner which enhances peace and stability.
- Awareness of, respect for, and tolerance of the languages cultures and values of the diverse peoples of South Africa.
- Enhancement of the accountability of the police to the communities they serve.
- Shared responsibility and decision making as well as sustained commitment from both the police and the community with regard to security needs.
- Creation of understanding and trust between the police, the community and other relevant role players. Special attention is to be become victims of crime, such as

children, the elderly, women, the disabled and gays, lesbians and bisexuals (South African Police Service, 1997:3).

6.6 COMMUNITY POLICING: A RESPONSE TO SOCIETAL NEEDS

Addressing the crime problem in South Africa with any measure of success depends upon effective interaction between two groupings in society, namely the citizenry, who on the ground of the Bill of Rights are legally entitled to a safe and secure living environment, and the South African Police Service (SAPS), which must in terms of the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), take responsibility for procuring and preserving this safe and secure environment. Taking into account the history of police intervention in the South African society, however, it is clear that if the SAPS want to bring their delivery on par with community expectations, they will have to enter into an alliance with a most unwilling partner.

Community policing is an attempt by the SAPS to engage in this much needed partnership with the community. The principles of community policing have as their primary aim to assist the SAPS to transform from an inwardly focussed institution to a client-oriented, outwardly focussed institution. It is postulated that such a transformation will improve not only the relationships within the SAPS, but also the citizen-police relationship. The aim of the South African policing programme reflects this: "to facilitate the total transformation of the SAPS to delivery of services in a culture of community policing and make the SAPS visible within the community which it serves" (Safety & Security 1997:1).

The South African government, through its community policing policy, has created a participation-oriented legal framework for the citizenry to become involved in securing their own well being. This underlined by the objectives set for community policing "to enhance the role of the community as a partner, and to spearhead the implementation of community policing at ground level" (Safety and Security, 1997:1).

The above is not only aimed at increasing a participation, but is also a call for a more flexible style of policing that involves the community in the solving of problems. Aspects such as broad-based consultation, policy adaptability, greater urgency in mobilising all available resources in the fight against crime, and the *quis custodes custodiet ipsos* principle (who will protect us against the guardians) need to be addressed urgently to facilitate community policing in the South African context.

It is obvious, therefore, that any effort of the SAPS to solve the crime problem in South Africa must be founded on mutual trust. Such a relationship can of course, only be created if the historical community-police tensions are eradicated. Community Policing Forums (CPFs), established on the basis of equal partnerships, can go a long way towards solving these tensions. This policy is based on the principle that the community representatives are likely to be well informed about community needs, and to have first hand information regarding criminal activities in their communities or, at very least to have access to information about such activities more readily than the SAPS. The management of the forum must, therefore, be the joint responsibility of the community representatives in order to ensure genuine commitment from both parties, as well as transparency. Such a management body can also act as an instrument to ensure public accountability by the police.

6.7 COMMUNITY POLICING AS QUALITY CIRCLES

Community policing as seen within the quality circle paradigm can be described as a partnership between the community and the police, based on the assumption that the community has the right to contribute actively to decision-making process, and to set local policing priorities through participation and support. It places emphasis on the fact that continuous two-way consultation is critical to ensuring commitment to ownership of, and cooperation in the process by both parties, for policing of the community (De Beer, 1998:59).

Clearly the two critical factors for the application of the quality circle's paradigm to CPFs are voluntarism and the commitment of SAPS Management.

6.7.1 Voluntarism

The voluntary nature of quality circles, supported by a firm commitment from management, highlights quality circles as a unique worker-empowering instrument. Community policing on the other hand is legislatively enforced, and CPFs as legal institutions are established in terms of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995. These facts may imply coercion, and may inhibit voluntarism. The non-voluntary nature must, however, be weighed against the critical need of the community to become involved in its own protection by providing the necessary information that it may have access to. Here the need principle, Van Vuuren (1996:26) can inform voluntarism. The Community needs protection, while the SAPS needs information to provide the necessary protection. Participation can be mutually beneficial if both parties are committed to their respective roles in this joint venture. It is suggested the degree of voluntary community participation will increase in proportion to the successes of the police in satisfying local safety and security needs.

6.7.2 Commitment of Police Management

The commitment of management is a prerequisite for the successful creation of an organisational climate in which quality circles can promote the discovery or creation of opportunities for people (members) to participate in decisions that affect them in their job environment. The commitment of SAPS management to the process of community participation in policing emphasises the importance of inputs from the public to enable management to jointly create a cooperative culture. The burden, therefore, is on the SAPS management to foster and nurture the belief that those who daily confronted with societal problems can, and indeed must, make a useful contribution to the identification

and solving of policing problems. It is also up to SAPS management to provide suitable training and support (De Beer, 1998: 60).

In the final analysis it is clear that the functioning and rationale of CPF show remarkable parallels to those of a quality circle that is: -

- Establish a functional partnership with the worker to ensure a better quality of work life.
- Establish a delivering partnership with society to accept co-responsibility for policing the environment.
- Enable the worker to participate in the decision-making process related to his/her work environment.
- Be responsible for the setting and prioritising of the local policing needs of a specific community.
- Involve employees in joint problem-solving processes with management based on their shop floor knowledge and experience.
- Promote pro-active and problem-solving policing with the society as equal partner, based on their first-hand experience of local conditions.
- Provide the worker with a direct communication channel to management.
- Function as a forum that keeps the SAPS accountable to set priorities for local policing.
- Provide the worker with an internal locus of control over his or her work.

- Provide the community with local control over utilisation of police resources allocated to a local community.

Based on the above, some suggestions may be made that will highlight the contribution of quality circles to the eradication of the problems that the establishment and functioning of CPFs face within the South African context and those are the establishment of the Police Board and the various structures to monitor the activities of the CPFs.

6.8 OBSTACLES TO AN EFFECTIVE COMMUNITY ALLIANCE

6.8.1 Use of Excessive Force.

Police brutality is the most emotion - packed complaint against the police and appears to be omnipresent in police operations. In the USA and the United Kingdom, racism and discrimination are often singled out as reasons for the use of excessive force. Radelet and Carter (1994:311) are adamant that such straightforward conclusion amount to an oversimplification of a more deep - rooted problem. Communication problem created by - definitional differences further exacerbate situations (or accusations) of the use of excessive force by police officers, and is further complicated by emotional outbursts on both sides, accusations and counter-accusations as well as media reports that often over - emphasise the negative side of such police officer behaviour. These authors vehemently state that ...[the] ticklish excessive force question is a symptom that something is seriously wrong in police - citizen transactions (Radelet et al. 1994:311).

Radelet et al. (1994:312) opine that police officers may engage in the use of excessive force for several reasons: -

- some police officers may do so as a means of experiencing job satisfaction - which may be the sole reason why they decided to join the police;

- others may use excessive force as a means of survival - especially in the face of statistical danger; and
- the negative side of social life(i.e. the falsehood, open defiance of the law, family abuse, impulsive and immoral conduct, alcoholic and drug - related behaviour, etc.) that police officers witness negatively impact on their maintenance of a balanced and constructive perspective about their role and with people with whom they most frequently come in contact with.

Carter 1994:313) provided the following typology of the use of excessive force as part of a broader typology relating to the abuse of authority. This author defines abuse of authority as". *...any action by a police officer without regard to motive, intent, or malice [desire to do harm or mischief] that tends to injure, insult, trespass upon human dignity, manifest feelings of inferiority, and/ or violate an inherent legal right of the public being policed"* (Radelet et al. Carter, 1994:313). The typology describing the excessive use of force/abuse of authority by the police is given as follows:

- (a) **Physical abuse/excessive force.** This classification includes the use of more force than is necessary to effect an arrest or a search (suspects and premises, etc.); and/or malicious use of any degree of physical force against another by a police officer under the cloak of the police officer's authority.
- (b) **Verbal/psychological abuse.** The kind of abuse refers to -
 - incidents where police officers who rely on the official authority vested in them, verbally assail, ridicule, harass, and/or threaten an individual's esteem and/or self - image; and

- threat of physical harm, where the threat is supposed or intended to relate to psychological coercion and instils fear in the average person.

(c) Legal abuse/violation of civil rights. This category entails any violation of a person's constitutional rights.

Physical abuse amounts to brutality and may occur when force is used which goes beyond that which is necessary. The inherent nature of the force should be tested against the collective responses of three critical questions:

- did the circumstances warrant the use of force?;
- was the amount of force used reasonable in light of the actions of the suspect?; and
- did the officer stop the use of force when control of the suspect was gained or when a search was completed? (Radelet & Carter 1994:313).

6.8.2 Corruption.

Corruption is an endemic issue in policing and that is seen by the establishing of the Anti-Corruption Unit within the Police structures. "Corruption directly contributes to loss of public confidence in the police, simply because the police are perceived as having ... abrogated their oath of office ... And ... intentionally violated critical responsibilities..." (Radelet et al. (1994:42). Although police corruption appears to be a world-wide problem, like a cancer which destroys from the inside (Mischke 1997:25), it is by no means uniform in degree (Barker & Carter, 1986:24) Another author, Macmillan (1961: 181), defined corruption as requiring the misuse of authority for personal gain: A public official is corrupt if he [or she] accepts money or moneys worth for doing something that he [or she] is under

a duty to do anyway, that he [or she] is under a duty not to do, or to exercise a legitimate discretion for improper reasons.

Corrupt policemen have been classified into two distinct categories (Barker & Carter 1986: 24 - 28):-

- **“meat eaters”** who refer to those police officials who aggressively (and actively) misuse their power and authority for personal gain, such as gambling, narcotics, and involvement in other serious crime. Examples of “meat eater” corruptive activities among policemen in South Africa, include, inter alia, involvement in motor vehicle theft syndicates, money heists through armed robbery, arrangement for the disappearance of police case dockets through perjury, etc. (Mitschke 1997: 25).
- **“grass – eaters”** who are those police officials who simply accept gratuities (awards or gifts) for services rendered to a member (s) of the public, such as receiving money from contractors, tow - truck operators, gamblers, free meals, etc. (Barker & Carter 1986: 24).

Radelet and Carter (1994: 42) opine that the acceptance of gratuities (“grass eaters”) appears to be a bigger problem for police management, than is the case with “meat eater” activities: ... free meal, clothing discounters and the like is not corruption [contrary to public debate that it amount to corruption], unless there is actual or expected favourable behaviour by the officer extended to the person providing the gratuity as a result of the gratuitous act. Corruptive police behaviour is counter - productive to fostering a significant community alliance with the public.

6.8.3 Rudeness.

Rudeness seems to be an endemic problem in police [work], because it is an inherent problem in human nature (Radelet & Carter 1994: 43), and for this reason, it is that kind

of police officer behaviour which is magnified (enlarged) by the nature of police - citizen relationships. Small and apparent inconsequential (trivial or insignificant) moments or situations of rude interactions can easily lead to conflict, which may negatively influence sound relationships.

Police officials find themselves daily in situations where tension and hostility are part of their job, mostly so, because contacts between them and citizens are often initiated under conditions that are emotionally charged (e.g. Immediately after a fight between two persons, or following high - speed chase after a law violation, etc.) Hostility usually manifests itself in rudeness on the part of the police officer, such as insulting language, discourteousness, impoliteness, rough or harsh actions, racist - remarks etc. (Barker & Radelet 1986: 267 - 268).

Peak and Glensor (1996: 205 - 208) opine that the police consistently view the public as hostile towards them - most probably because of selective contacts with the public or not having regular contact with a cross - section of the community. The police are often (most of the time) in contact with law violators (i.e. those who bend or blatantly break or ignore the laws,) causing them to forget that not all people are law violators but, in fact, only a small fraction of the total population choose to earn a living through illegal means. Also, the police often deal with young people who are disproportionately involved in crime. Many of these contacts are negative and necessarily involve physical force and challenges to police authority. It is for this reason that police officers believe that the public are against them or hate the police (Westley, 1950:77); the police should adopt an approach of suspiciousness and hostility towards the public (Skolnick, 1967:42); and the public regard the police as their "enemies" (Kerner Commission, 1968:15). Tensions arising between the police and the public often lead to police actions (rudeness) that contribute to:

- delay in responding to calls for service - especially as far as minority and disadvantaged citizens are concerned; verbal abuse, racist remarks and general

disrespect - especially where offensive labels for certain sections of the population become the working language of some police officers;

- excessive stopping and questioning, which could lead to harassment;
- discriminatory patterns of arrest and issuing of traffic tickets - especially as far as the decision to arrest is concerned, which is usually based upon the following :
 - (a) seriousness of the crime that has been committed;
 - (b) the preference of the victim;
 - (c) the nature of the victim - offender relationship;
 - (d) the way (demeanour) the suspect behaves; and
 - (e) characteristics of the neighbourhood.

However, in many instances, crime against whites are often regarded more serious than crime against other colour population groups, and the police are likely to be more sympathetic with white victims of crime than is otherwise the case. This kind of uneven (differential) treatment of certain race groups precipitates the opportunity for rude police officer behaviour.

6.8.4 Excessive Use of Physical Force.

Radelet and Carter (1994: 40-41) are adamant when they state that the use of excessive physical force is an emotional issue within the context of the police-community alliance. LAPD officers usually link rude officer behaviour in USA to the Rodney King beating on 3 March 1991 in Los Angeles. In this instance, minority population groups perceived this

incident as a “reminder” of how they have been treated by the police in the past (Peak & Glensor 1996: 219).

6.8.5 Excessive Use of Deadly Force.

Ultimate rude police officer behaviour is often extended to include deadly force. Physical and verbal abuse of authority form the basis of most citizen complaints against the police. The use of deadly force usually ensues in street confrontations between the police and the public, and in most police departments in the USA have a shoot to kill policy (Radelet & Carter, 1994:352 -353). Geller and Scott (1992: 147) have shown in their research into police shootings that the use of deadly force is often a racial issue, based on discrimination - the arch enemy of sound police community relations.

6.8.6 Authoritarianism.

It is sometimes said that the police occupation attracts persons with an authoritarian personality (i.e. characterised by strict obedience to authority; or just being dictatorial or domineering). Other research also suggests that occupational socialisation (training and staff development) is the direct habitat for producing authoritarianism. It has also been suggested that prejudice is often a symptom of a basis personality problem and as such, prejudice is directly related to a rigid outlook, superstition and an intolerance for ambiguity (in short, prejudice is cause, among other things, by an authoritarian personality.) Prejudiced people favour authority and discipline, they tend to distrust people, and prefer hierarchical, predictable and definite power arrangements in society (Radelet & Carter, 1994: 43,277).

Authoritarianism has some beneficial effects, necessary for police officers to act effectively:

- interrogation of a suspect,

- handling of a crime scene,
- conducting any kind of formal investigation,
- maintaining control at a vehicle accident scene, and
- resolving a domestic dispute - simply to maintain their position of authority by taking the lead. However, authoritarianism (although desirable in these situations), may become problematic if it evolves too strongly in situations requiring co-operation improvise or capitulation (surrendering). Nowadays, with the implementation of community policing as a new philosophical and strategic management model, a form of tempered authoritarianism will be required in the police occupational environment, i.e. maintaining a meaningful balance between authoritarian characteristics but simultaneously relinquishing it in appropriate situations. If not tempered in circumstances justifying it, authoritarianism can become a pervasive obstacle in a community alliance set-up (Radelet et al. 1994: 43).

Extreme manifestations of authoritarianism can easily precipitate conflict within the context of police - community relations. Gaines et al. (1994: 240 - 241) provides a useful exposition of common personality types among police officers. Note the following:-

- Average officers function effectively, do their job as required, cope with stress, balanced at home.
- Inadequate officers although adequately trained for police work, they are unable to function independently. They constantly need guidance from a superior to tell them what to do and how to act in specific situations and, consequently, suffer from anxiety and stress.

- Perfectionists adhere to bureaucratic rules and perform their task strictly according to the book. They get easily depressed when their perfectionism gets on top of them and then exceeds their own ability to keep up with their work. They are potential suiciders.
- Super Cops These personality types are addicted to excitement emanating from confrontation with the public (law violators) and danger. They become so emotionally “wind-up” they try to maintain this euphoria (feeling of great joyfulness) by being always present and around the action as the “tough or super cop” that is able to endure any kind of [violent] confrontation and dangerous situation.
- “John Wayne” - syndrome officers this category of personality types is taking police work too seriously because they are “bad-heavy” and, as a result, would even arrest his/her own father or mother. They are very suspicious of other people. A good variant (opposite) of the “John Wayne” officers, would be the “Macho Gestapo” - type of police personality who is very unpredictable, impulsive, headstrong and dangerous. They are, in extreme cases, willing to take the laws into their own hands and could also unfold as vigilantes. Both types may suffer PostTraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD).
- Other personality types mentioned by Gaines et al. (1994:240-241) are anxiety - ridden officers, alcoholic/drug abusers, officers with serious psychological problems, the quasi - retired officers, workaholics and those suffering from PTSD.
- **Politics.** It cannot be desired that the police exist in a political environment with several dimensions. Some people feel that there is too much politics involved in policing. Police officers would claim that, by ridding the police of politics or keeping politicians out of police work, would definitely contribute to further improve their effectiveness and efficiency (Radelet et al. 1994:44). Politics and policing have a

long history, which began in the USA with the emergence of the so - called political - watchman model in the 1830's which was characterised by the political context within which the police fulfilled their role. During this period, local politicians and competing political groups dominated policing. Even for most of the 19th century, many American police departments were politically corrupt, indifferent to their responsibilities and incompetent (Roberg & Kuykendall, 1990:41-42).

These authors point to the fact that power and politics go hand in hand - some people would go so far to say that politicians are usually power - hungry. Whatever the case maybe, power as such, is not a negative concept or quality. How power is acquired and utilised, is what relates it to politics. What seems to be important for the purpose of this discussion, is organisational politics, in other words, the "inside" politics of police institutions (Roberg et al. 1990: 196) which may reach such alarming proportions that public interests are no longer protected or served with resulting harmful effects on sound police - community relations (alliance). Organisational politics within police institutions usually involves the use of power and authority to protect a person, a career, a work unit or a specific department. Political activity of police leaders may be motivated by their concerns of the police institution, but often it may be self - centred, leading to the protection of their own interests. The informal structure and the police subculture are the result, at least in part, of the political activity that takes place in police institutions (Roberg et al. 1990: 196).

It is important to note that organisational political activity, which may involve manoeuvring (manipulation of a situation), infighting and "game playing", usually originate in the informal structure of police institutions. Whereas the formal structure refers to the prescribed patterns of relationships (through formal rules and regulations) geared towards maintaining the primary institutional goal of order maintenance, the informal structure refers to the spontaneous network of personal interactions and social relationships between individual police officers. It usually exists independent of the formal structure and

its hierarchy of authority, and is firmly based on the free - flow of communication between individuals only (Potgieter, 1982:267 - 269).

Playing politics (manoeuvring, infighting and game playing) in police institutions usually facilitates itself by means of -

- knowing the right people, which involves active networking where individual police officers, irrespective of their rank or position who know influential persons, may gain an advantage in one or other form;
- forming of coalitions, which could assist individuals to advance their own interest by obtaining group support, such as police unions and associations; and
- co-operation, which refers to situations where police leaders exercise their power and authority by means of co - opting those persons or groups who disagree with, or may impede progress to obtain or achieve a specific goal and by doing so, neutralise opposition (Roberg et al. 1990:196).

Being “political” may often be regarded as the reality of organisational life in police institutions, but when police authority or power are used illegally, unethically or to the benefit of personal or work group interests, to the detriment of effective organisation or a sound community alliance, playing politics may exert a destructive influence on the overall attainment of goals and objectives (Roberg et al. 1990: 196).

Radelet et al. (1994: 437 - 438) identified four types of “political policing”:

- (a) “knee - jerking policing”, which is totally unprofessional as police officers become the instrument of partisan, conspiratorial, machine politics.

- (b) coercive policing, which is closely related to power. Power corrupts, because it is inevitably abused. The corruption is in the abuse of power and can be both individual and organisational, and is nurtured by the police subculture (Radelet et al. 1994 : 437); and
- (c) police-state politics, where the abuse of power leads to despotism and tyranny, with the police forming the “muscle” in the political purpose of totalitarianism.
- (d) responding to citizens needs. The police have a traditional view that the public does not know what they want when they call the police. There is also a common perspective by the police that crime reported to the police and public calls for police service, usually define the kind of activities the police must perform. In other words, the police feel that the public dictates to them what must be done and what is important (Radelet et al. 1994:45).

The police believe that citizens are basically unsupportive and unreasonably demanding and they all seem to know better than police officers how to perform the job of policing. For this reason, the police believe that the public only wants them when they need something to be done for them. Although this community - held view by the police appears to be somewhat misplaced (given the successful support of and interest in policing countrywide), these beliefs may precipitate a pessimistic outlook on the community in general, which may result in cynical attitudes about human nature on the part of the police. These attitudes if persistent, may also give rise to officers' insensitivity and may even culminate into authoritarian police behaviour (Sparrow, Moore & Kennedy, 1990 in Peak & Glensor 1996: 142).

Goldstein (1990: 19 - 20) argues that the needs of citizens (as far as policing is concerned) are often observable in emergency calls for police attendance to social problems or incidents by the public which, in most cases, have a wholesome effect on putting citizens fears of criminal victimisation to rest. Incident - driven policing often relies

on speedy attendance of calls for service; i.e. a higher value is attached to “getting there quickly”, at the expense of what happens or what is being done when handling an incident. Peak et al. (1996: 38) are of the opinion that the police are often caught up in the means over end syndrome; police successes are too frequently measured in terms of numbers of arrest; and quickness of response to public calls, while often neglecting the ends (outcome) of their work. In most cases, the public tends to prioritise seemingly unimportant issues as part of their needs, just as they attach meaning to more serious matters. For instance, the public would evaluate less important incidents such as: rowdy people in the neighbourhood, trespassing, barking dogs, etc. in the same light of seriousness as for instance vehicle theft, armed robbery, housebreaking, etc. (Radelet et al. 1994: 45) give one possible explanation for this incongruency as:

- “... while crimes will affect only a limited number of citizens on a daily basis, more serious crimes will affect only a limited time. Minor incidents may have a greater overall effect on the quality of life in a community”.

6.9 COMMUNITY ORIENTED POLICING AND PROBLEM SOLVING (COPPS)

The movement toward community oriented policing and problem solving (COPPS) involves a change in the philosophy and organisational structure of the police. A philosophical change is critical to the development of new attitudes, knowledge, and skills, as well as a reorientation of perceptions and a refinement of current skills. This is a difficult challenge for those involved in the training and education of police officers. This task is made even more challenging by the need to train every employee inside the agency, as well as change the orientation of a number of people and organisations outside the police department. Furthermore, it is important that the police educate members of the community in the concept as they will be required, at times, to help carry out the COPPS effort (Peak et al. 1996:171).

6.10 COMMUNITY POLICING OFFICER (CPO)

These specially trained officers should among others perform the following functions: -

6.10.1 Education and Conveying Information

As a long-term prevention measure, it is expected of a community police officer to be able and willing to educate members of the public about crime preventive measures. Such education process should include the following activities: -

- to educate children about child abuse and its consequences;
- to educate parents about the legal aspects of child abuse and crime in general;
- to provide defence techniques to members of the community;
- to discuss, explain and distinguish the functions of both the court and the police;
and
- to educate the public about the art of giving evidence (Meyet, 1976:91-92 and Van Heerden, 1986 : 16).

As part of crime prevention, conveying sound, accurate information is currently one of the most effective means the police may have for responding to a wide range of crime problems. A properly and systematically organised method of disseminating information may help to address the following crime problems: -

- Reduce anxiety and fear: Candid sharing information with the public of information about the problem may substantially reduce- or perhaps even eliminate it.

- **Enabling citizens to solve their own problems:** Community police officers can advise members of the public how they may go about solving their own problems.
- **Eliciting conformity with law and regulations that are not known or understood.** An intensive effort to educate citizens about regulations, special permits and alternative places to park can increase compliance.
- **Warning potential victims about their vulnerability and advised them of ways to protect themselves:** Police are in a good position to educate vulnerable groups: school children about molestation, sexual assault, and drugs; Christmas shoppers regarding thefts from their unattended vehicles; the elderly regarding swindlers; bargain hunters regarding fake jewellery sold by street peddlers; and car owners regarding the theft of unlocked cars.
- **Demonstrating to individuals how they unwittingly contribute to problems:** Citizens often do not realise how their own actions contribute to problems.
- **Developing support for addressing a problem:** Winning support for a new response to a problem is difficult if those being asked for such support have no knowledge of the problem and are not affected by it.
- **Acquainting the community with the limitations on the police and to define realistically what can be expected of the police:** The exploration of some problems will inevitably lead to the conclusion that community has unrealistic expectations of what the police can do or does not understand the limitations on police authority (Goldstein, 1990:114-118).

6.10.2 Conflict and Crisis Intervention

A thorough knowledge of conflict and crisis intervention is of utmost importance for community police officers. Conflict is defined as a disagreement or clash between at least two people. On the other hand, a crisis exists when individuals cannot resolve their conflict and it escalates to a point where a participant is likely to inflict harm on another (Cheatham & Erickson, 1984: 67).

Community police officers should understand the following about conflict:

- An officer's principal responsibility is to stabilise and calm disputants, to restore peace to a crisis situation;
- In a conflict, people vie for power, prestige, position and opportunity;
- If life were conflict-free, there would not exist a need for laws or enforcement;
- Because people strive for and compete for basic needs, wants and sources of gratification, conflict is a frequent and recurring phenomenon;
- Conflict must be recognised as inevitable consequences of people defining themselves and their relationships to others;
- Conflict may occur because individuals understand and misunderstand one another's message and intentions; and
- Deep-seated or emotionally based disagreements cannot be altered overnight (Cheatham & Erickson, 1984:70-71).

There are several intervention models which can be implemented productively by a community police officer in both conflict and crisis resolution, namely:

- (a) **The authority strategy:** Here, an officer assumes complete control over the crisis and its solution.
- (b) **Arbitration model:** Participants in this model voluntarily turn their responsibility of solution to an officer.
- (c) **Refereeing model:** Here an officer exercises control over the participants in their problem-solving interaction. A referee may be likened to an officer controlling traffic at a busy intersection telling people when to go and stop.
- (d) **Referral strategy:** Certain situations and types of police officers such as physician, counsellor, doctor, psychologist and social worker.
- (e) **Negotiation strategy:** In negotiation strategy, a community police officer should assist participants in developing a solution to their problem when viable option seems limited.
- (f) **Mediation model:** It is an intervention strategy designed to guide participants problems-solving. Essentially, the parties to a conflict should work out their own solutions (Cheatham & Erickson, 1984:79-82).

According to Vanagunas & Elliot (1980: 363) team policing is a major form of innovation in police task organisation and in a police department. Regardless of the particular form of team policing, the concept requires and demands major changes in the behaviour of police managerial personnel at all levels.

Team policing places the community police officer (CPO) in an environment that encourages co-operation with the public and thus reduces isolation. It brings the police organisation down to the community. This approach enables individual community police officers to cultivate community support, contact can build personal relationships essential to the goal of community-based policing. The importance of team policing can be realised only if all sections, units, divisions in the police are working together with the members of the public as a team (Klockars, 1993:413-414). From community relations' standpoint, team policing remains one of the most promising of the various patrol alternatives proposed and implemented in recent years. It presupposes a philosophy of policing which holds that the primary mission is to prevent crime. This philosophy also rests on a high level of communication and understanding between the police and the public (Radelet, 1986:483).

According to Radelet (1986:483) team policing has six key elements: -

- geographic stability of assignment,
- decentralisation of authority,
- emphasis on crime prevention,
- emphasis on community relations,
- mechanisms for effective internal police department communication, and
- reduced reliance on the use of specialists.

Vanaganas and Elliot (1980:345-346) also identify a number of common characteristics of team policing: -

- consistent assignment of the same officers to the same area of the city;
- periodic public meetings to discuss police problems with citizens of the team's area;
- establishment of a referral system to other social and government agencies;
- maximum informal and personal interaction between the team and the individuals of the community;
- unity of supervision or command of the team;
- maximum flexibility in policy- making power given to the team in such areas as scheduling, the wearing or not of uniforms, priority setting, and selection of tactics;
- close internal communication between the officers of the team; and
- the combatting of investigative and patrol functions.

TABLE 6.1**GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY POLICING****(N=485)**

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should have greater say in policing matters	2	1.21	2.09	1.14	0.725
Police and community to be involved in problem identification	1.86	1.08	1.92	1.18	0.313
Specially trained community policing officers to improve policing	2.1	1.26	2.3	1.17	3.211*
Community and police should jointly improve quality of life	1.96	1.16	2.14	1.21	2.522
Police should be sensitive to needs of the vulnerable people	2.15	1.39	2.11	1.27	0.108

* $p \leq 0.05$

In this Table 6.1, community policing is evaluated favourably by both male and female respondents respectively. The Table goes on to show that male respondents are more in favour of community policing than their female counterparts. Although male and female respondents are in favour of specially trained community policing officers, female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.10$) are less supportive of this and their response is significant. Male believe that policing is a male function and as mentioned before they believe more needs to be done to improve the manner in which policing is being done.

TABLE 6.2

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY POLICING (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should have greater say in policing matters	2.07	1.19	2.12	1.16	1.98	1.22	1.82	0.98	1.81	1.22	2.67	1.15	0.723
Police and community to be involved in problem identification	1.93	1.15	2.01	1.21	1.75	1.01	1.52	0.94	1.87	1.15	2.67	1.53	1.632
Specially trained community policing officers to improve policing	2.23	1.27	2.32	1.21	2.04	1.08	1.88	0.99	2.75	1.34	1.67	1.15	1.836
Community and police should jointly improve quality of life	2.15	1.25	2.19	1.17	1.79	1.1	1.7	0.98	2	1.21	2.33	2.06	2.146
Police should be sensitive to needs of the vulnerable people	2.19	1.29	2.15	1.33	2.02	1.37	2	1.46	2	1.15	2.33	2.31	0.311

Table 6.2 shows that there are significant age differences regarding the evaluation of community policing. Respondents between ages of 35 to 65 years and above are in favour of all the attributes of community policing. The evaluation of joint activities between the police and community shows that respondents aged 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 2.33$) are less in favour of this attribute and this significant.

Lack of significant differences could be accused on the fact that community policing although an old concept, but is new when it comes to modern policing styles. People still believe that policing is the primary function of the police and theirs alone.

TABLE 6.3

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY POLICING (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should have greater say in policing matters	2.12	1.26	1.89	1.12	2.03	1.27	1.4	0.7	2.1	1.1	1.304
Police and community to be involved in problem identification	2.05	1.19	1.79	1.1	1.83	1.03	1.7	0.82	1.87	1.18	0.881
Specially trained community policing officers to improve policing	2.24	1.29	2.01	1.29	2.21	1.14	2.1	1.29	2.27	1.16	0.611
Community and police should jointly improve quality of life	2.09	1.28	1.81	1.04	1.98	1.17	2	1.25	2.18	1.19	1.443
Police should be sensitive to needs of the vulnerable people	2.31	1.5	1.89	1.17	2.07	1.32	1.9	1.1	2.14	1.28	1.259

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

First, Table 6.3 indicates that there are no significant occupational differences in the evaluation of community policing. What is clear from the Table is a trend by respondents in category 2, where the evaluation of community policing (though not significant) is more favourable in all the listed attributes of community policing: -

- Community should have a greater say in policing matters ($\bar{x} = 1.89$);
- Police and community to be jointly involved in problem identification ($\bar{x} = 1.79$)
- Specially trained community policing officers to improve policing ($\bar{x} = 2.01$)
- Community and the police should jointly improve quality of life ($\bar{x} = 1.81$)
- Police should be sensitive to needs of the vulnerable ($\bar{x} = 1.89$)

Police should be allowed to do what their core functions without being told what to do. The rest of the community expects from the police that policing as their function be carried on tot their satisfaction.

6.11 POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY

Accountability will be realised by creating mechanisms though which the police can be made answerable for addressing the needs and concerns of the communities they serve. Mechanism such-as community visitors' schemes, the Independent Complaint Directorate

and efforts to make the police more transparent can be utilised to establish a culture of accountability (South African Police Service, 1997:2).

The art of achieving accountability is to enlist the support of the support of the police in disciplinary activities. For processes of external regulation to be more than a highly publicized morality play, the police must become convinced that they will be trusted to bear. The active responsibility for ensuring correct performance (Bailey, 1983:158).

Accountability institutions will only be truly efficacious in affecting police practices if they win over and work in conjunction with internal disciplinary and self-controlling processes. A heavy hand cannot force them.

TABLE 6.4
GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY
(N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police should be accountable to the community they serve.	2.02	1.12	1.93	1.11	0.79

There are no significant gender differences in the evaluation of police accountability as shown in Table 6.4 above. Female respondents ($x=1.93$) however, agree strongly that police should be accountable to the community they serve.

TABLE 6.5

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	S D	\bar{x}	S D	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police should be accountable to the community they serve	2.1	1.12	2.16	1.16	1.76	1.03	1.82	1.04	2.13	1.31	2.33	1.53	0.359

Table 6.5 above indicates that there are no significant age difference in the evaluating of police accountability. Respondent from across the age brackets agree that the police should in fact be accountable to the community they serve

TABLE 6.6

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	
Police should be accountable to the community they serve	2.1	1.2	1.85	1.06	2.1	1.16	1.7	0.67	1.9	1.1	13.020*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

Table 6.9 shows a significant occupational difference in the evaluation of police accountability. Respondents in category 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.10$) evaluated police accountability less favourable than the rest of other occupational categories. This rating is significant.

This evaluation could be seen as perhaps from the inclusion of armed forces and security services in the mist of other occupational classes. With the culture prevalent within the armed forces and the security services, possibilities are minimal agreement with regard to accountability could be from this category.

6.12 MUTUAL TRUST

TABLE 6.7

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF MUTUAL TRUST (N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should trust the police	2.49	1.38	2.45	1.35	0.113

This Table 6.7 shows that there is no significant gender difference with regard to the evaluation of mutual trust. With regard to community trusting the police, both male ($\bar{x} = 2.49$) and female ($\bar{x} = 2.45$) respectively.

TABLE 6.8

AGE DIFFERENCES AND THE EVALUATION OF MUTUAL TRUST (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should trust the police	2.6	1.35	2.44	1.38	2.26	1.35	2.15	1.35	2.38	1.26	2.2	1.7	1.49
	3		44	8	6		5				3	2	

According to Table 6.8, there are no significant age differences regarding the evaluation of mutual trust. Although the evaluation of mutual trust is positive, respondents aged 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 2.00$) are more in favour of community trusting the police.

TABLE 6.9

OCCUPATION DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF POLICE ACCOUNTABILITY (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should trust the police	2.71	1.36	1.99	1.22	2.58	1.37	2.6	1.43	2.44	1.38	3.045*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

Table 6.9 shows a significant occupational difference in the evaluation of mutual trust by respondents in category 2 ($\bar{x} = 1.99$). It can be deduced from this Table that mutual trust is the essential attribute for effective policing.

6.13 EDUCATION

TABLE 6.10

GENDER DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION

(N=485)

Response Category	MALE		FEMALE		F-test
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police should educate the community regarding their work and crime.	2.79	1.53	2.47	1.34	5.985*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Table 6.10 indicates a significant gender difference in the evaluation of educating the community regarding police work and crime. Education of the community is significantly evaluated more positive by female respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.47$) as opposed to male respondents ($\bar{x} = 2.79$).

TABLE 6.11

AGE DIFFERENCES AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION (N=485)

Response Category	18-24		25-34		35-44		45-54		55-64		65+		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Police should educated the community regarding their work and crime	2.6	1.44	2.84	1.43	2.38	1.35	2.42	1.56	2.63	1.54	4	1	1.818

Table 6.11 indicates that except for respondents aged 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 4.00$), respondents from all other age brackets favourably evaluated this attribute. As for respondents aged 65 years and above ($\bar{x} = 4.00$), this attribute is not favoured (strong disagreement) to the fact that police should educate the community regarding their work and crime.

TABLE 6.12

OCCUPATION AND EVALUATING OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION (N=485)

Response Category	1		2		3		4		5		t-value
	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	\bar{x}	SD	
Community should trust the police	2.56	1.4	2.69	1.59	2.26	1.32	2.9	1.6	2.79	1.43	2.426*

* $p \leq 0.05$

Occupations of respondents were re-coded and put into the following categories: -

Category 1 is respondents who are: -

- General labour.
- Semi-skilled labour.
- Agricultural and related work.
- Armed forces.
- Security Services.

Category 2 is: -

- Professional works.
- Technical works.
- Businessmen or sales workers.
- Administrative, executive or managers.
- Communication workers.
- Craftsmen and production workers.
- Service Workers.

Category 3 is workers in Transport.

Category 4 is students and category 5 is those engaged in sports and recreation.

According to Table 6.12 there are significant occupational differences in the evaluation of educating community regarding police work and crime. Respondents in category 4 ($\bar{x} = 2.90$) less significantly evaluated this attribute.

6.14 SUMMARY

Community alliance has its premise upon the ideal that the police and the public become coproducers in the eradication and prevention of crime. Hence the greatest challenge that faces any Community alliance project is to harness the potential for effective organisation lying dormant in communities in particular. Community alliance goes further than being a mere police-community relation program and attempts to address crime 44 control through a working partnership with the community.

As has been pointed out in this study, the intention of the researcher is not to rewrite the book on Community alliance, but link it with a post apartheid era as a philosophy for modern policing. Conditions conducive to the success of this philosophy were highlighted without rewriting a book on community alliance or community oriented policing and problem solving (COPPS).

CHAPTER 7

HYPOTHESES TESTING, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

If policing in South Africa is to be transformed to meet the need of the citizenry in a post-apartheid era, democratisation needs to be addressed by the South African Police Services as well as the communities concerned. Prior to the emergence of the democratic South Africa, policing found itself in a crisis which was developed by a number of factors relating, inter alia, to the lack of the following: -

- A proper redefinition of the role of the police in the light of a changing environment.
- Police accountability.
- Police credibility and accompanying legitimacy.
- Role acceptance among specific population groups, and
- Worst of all partiality while executing their duties.

The present study highlights those perceptions and attitudes of the public with special emphasis on the nature and extent of their image of policing as a social phenomenon. Democratic policing seems to be an important point for discussion when one speaks of the

people and the people the police. All other issues pointed out in this study are built within the democratic makeup of the police.

This chapter deals with the limitations of the whole study, assumptions of the study, key findings and recommendations based on statistical data from responses of 485 respondent selected from six policing areas in line greater Durban policing area. It aims to evaluate the attitudes as well as the perceptions regarding the image of the police in a post apartheid era.

7.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study had numerous limitations most of which will be highlighted in this chapter. The purpose for the researcher to highlight these limitations is not to make excuses or apportion blame to anybody regarding the study itself, but expose conditions under which this study was conducted. Limitations of this study included the following aspects: -

7.2.1 Limited Literature

Only from 1994 has South Africa started to see some dawn toward democracy. Likewise, striving for the democratisation of the police also started just after the general elections of 1994. Police and democracy were two separate thing displaying to relationships due to the nature of the police forces that existed in South Africa before 1994.

Literature on the role and image of the police in a post apartheid era could not be traced except for one book written in 1993. Only books by authors from abroad could be used and very little could be found that has some bearing to the South African context.

7.2.3 Financial Constraints

Although the research eventually managed to complete this study but it must be mentioned though that the result of this study could have been better given financial assistance. Funding was a major problem. Quality and experienced fieldworkers could not be employed. The researcher due to lack of funds could not attend two important subject-related conferences. The area had to be limited into Durban policing area to minimise travelling costs.

7.3.4 Unsafe Working Conditions

The researcher together with the fieldworkers had to work through very unsafe conditions due to the nature of the study dealing directly with the role and image of the police in apartheid era. Respondents as well as potential respondents were rather not comfortable to participate in this study. Any information that requires anything to do with the police was not freely released.

Selected areas, Kwa-Mashu, Cato Manor, Umlazi, Kwa-Makhutha and Isipingo were chosen for their previous experiences with violence and the ever rising crime. The research team was not warmly welcomed in these areas. They were either suspected of informing the police or involved in the so-called "third force" activities.

7.3.5 Timing of the Study

7.3.5.1 The initial idea was to use the SAS computer software which the researcher is familiar with, but after data collection and processing thereof, the researcher realised that SAS software was not available for use due to its not being licensed by the academic institution. The researcher was then forced to use SPSS Computer Software which requires extensive familiarity with its sophisticated features and well as clear statistical

understanding. The unavailability of SAS Software, added to the frustration of the researcher when some of the data could not be programmed by way of tables, for example, totals on correlated tables. Time could not permit that this exercise be commissioned to a reputable statistician with a clear understanding of SPSS Software.

7.3.5.2 This study is conducted during the transformation period in the South African Police Service. The entire police force had to change from a police force into a police service and this called for an amalgamation of all eleven police agencies in South Africa. Given all the processes to amalgamate all the agencies and a move to democratise the police, five years could not practically give a picture of the police in a democratic South Africa. After five years, it is still not clear how everything in the police should be organised. New structures are being introduced into the police service and before the same could be implemented and evaluated, other "improved" structures replace them.

7.3.5.3 This is a fact although it may sound unbelievable that the process of amalgamation, which was aimed at combining all the agencies into police service, was not completely finalised. There still fractions within the bigger police service still belonging into their former agencies.

7.4 HYPOTHESES

This study has three hypotheses, which were empirically tested: -

7.4.1.7 Functional determinants

• Male and female respondents differ significantly in the evaluation of the following: -

- Investigation of crime
- Street patrolling
- Protection and guidance of youth.
- Prevention of crime.
- Educating society about crime.
- Protecting Human Rights.
- Investigation of traffic accidents; and
- Settlements of domestic quarrels both male and female respondents differed significantly.

7.4.1.8 Social contact also has significant gender differences. This time around male respondents feel more positive to social contact between the police and community stimulating co-operation.

7.4.1.9 Community policing especially the issue of specially trained community policing officers shows a significant gender difference.

7.4.1.10 Police accountability shows gender differences which is not significant.

7.4.1.11 **Mutual trust** does not have any significant gender difference in as far as this study and this hypothesis is concerned.

7.4.1.12 **Education of the community regarding police work and crime** shows a significant gender difference.

Following the above exposition, the following can be said about this hypothesis:

- **Necessity of the police role** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Reporting of crime** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Functional expectations** - hypothesis not confirmed.
- **Organisational expectations** - hypothesis not confirmed.
- **Police efficiency** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Social status of the police** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Functional determinants** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Social contact** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Community policing** - hypothesis confirmed.
- **Police accessibility** - hypothesis not confirmed.
- **Educating community** - hypothesis confirmed.

This hypothesis is partially confirmed and accepted.

7.4.2 Hypothesis 2

“Age is related to the attitudes respondents hold towards the police in the Durban policing area”

Respondents differ significantly according to gender as far as the following are covered:

- **Necessity of the police role**
 - threat to liberty and privacy
 - assistance to the police
 - stimulation of assistance.

- **Reporting of crime**
 - personal nature of the case
 - treatment as a guilty part when reporting matter to the police.

- **Functional expectations**
 - crime prevention.

- **Social status of the police**
 - police have a low social status.

- **Functional determinants**
 - protection of Human Rights
 - investigation of traffic accidents
 - settlement of domestic quarrels

In the light of the above the following synopsis is given:

Except for the following attributes where no significant age differences are shown, the hypothesis is confirmed and accepted on the basis of the majority of significant values recorded:

- (1) social contact ($p= -7.834$)
- (2) community policing ($p=3.211$)
- (3) police accountability ($p=3.045$)
- (4) mutual trust ($p=0.113$)
- (5) educating community ($p=5.985$)

7.4.3 Hypothesis 3

“Socio-economic status (occupation) is related to the attitudes of the respondents towards the police”

Male and female respondents differ significantly regarding the following:

- **Necessity of the police in society**
 - necessity of the police
 - threat to liberty and privacy
 - assistance to the police
 - stimulation of assistance.

- **Reporting of crime**
 - police are unable to solve criminal cases.

- **Police efficiency**
 - general appearance
 - handling of police vehicles
 - carrying out of arrests.

- **Role status of the police**
 - police have a low social status.

- **Functional determinants**

- investigation of crime
- street patrolling
- protection and guidance of youth
- prevention of crime
- educating society about crime
- protection of human rights
- investigation of traffic accidents
- settlement of domestic quarrels

- **Social contact**

- social contact between the police and community to stimulate co-operation.

- **Police accountability**

- police should be accountable to the community they serve.

- **Mutual trust**

- community should trust the police.

- **Educating the community**
 - police should educate the community regarding their work and crime.
- Except for the above, the following attributes show no significant socio-economic (occupation) differences.
 - functional expectations
 - organisational expectations
 - community policing

This hypothesis is also partially accepted.

The common trend in the significant evaluation of most of the attributes leads to assuming that there is as a matter of fact a relationship between socio-economic status (occupation) and the attitudes of respondents towards the police.

7.5 FINDINGS

7.5.1. Justification of the Police Role

Before findings are highlighted, it is important first to present the frequency distribution of the respondents regarding the justification of the police role (see table 3.1).

Total respondents were 485 and were distributed as follows:

- Absolute necessary - 248 (51.1%)

- Necessary - 125 (25.8%)
- Undecided - 43 (8.9%)
- Unnecessary - 27 (5.6%)
- Absolutely unnecessary - 42 (8.7%)

7.5.2. Necessity of the Police Role

This table 3.1 shows that about 383 (76.9%) of the total respondents are in agreement that police role is necessary and justified in society. Only 69(14.3%) feel that the police role is not justified and not necessary. Although they may be differences in low respondents perceive the police, policing as a function will always be rated an important function in society.

In table 3.2 what is observed is a significant gender differences in the evaluation of the necessity of the police role threat to liberty and privacy, assistance to the police and stimulation of assistance. Although male respondents and female respondents commonly agree and disagree in their evaluation, female respondents are convinced that generally police role is necessary in society.

Regarding age and the necessity of police role against it is observed from Table 3.3.

Middle aged respondents (25-34 and 35-44) are in favour of the police role in society. Youth and respondents aged 55-64 and 65 years and above are less in favour of the police role in society. This observation thus confirms that age is in fact related to how respondents perceive the police.

In so far as the socio-economic status (occupation), also a significant difference is observed in evaluation of the necessity of police role.

7.5.3. Reporting of Crime

Again significant gender differences are observed regarding reporting of crime and looking at personal nature of the case as well as negative attitudes of the police in particular. Reason for not reporting crime to the police are due to the personal nature of the case or because the police are negative or display a negative attitude (see table 3.5).

Another significant occupational differences is observed regarding reporting of crime. Respondents aged between 55-64 years and 65 years and above feel that should not be reported to the police need not been reported. Again respondents aged 65 years and above do not report crime to the police because police have a negative attitude (see table 3.6).

For respondent aged between 45-55 years non-reporting of crime is caused by the fact that they are treated as a guilty party when reporting matter to the police (see table 3.7).

7.5.4. Functional Expectations

Regarding functional expectations, significant age differences are observed, especially with crime prevention. Age is in fact related to the attitudes of respondents towards the police when it comes to functional expectations.

7.5.5. Police Efficiency

Table 4.7 shows and confirms the assumed significant gender differences in the rating of police efficiency especially with regard the following:

- general appearance

- handling of police vehicles

Still our police efficiency, significant differences are observed regarding socio-economic status (occupation) of respondents (see table 4.9).

7.4.6. Role Status of the Police

Significant gender differences is recorded for police having a low social status. Although both males and females agree that policing is a low status job or the police have a low social status, females are agreeing to a lesser extend than males (see table 5.1).

Also with regard to age, a significant difference is observed (see table 5.2.). What is noticeable though is that young people although in agreement with the low status of the police but they are recording less agreement.

7.5.7. Functional Determinants

Significant gender differences are observed (see table 5.4). This confirms the hypothesis assuming that there are significant gender differences in the attitudes of responded towards the police.

A similar observation is made with regard to age where also a significant age difference is recorded (table 5.5). Hypothesis is thus confirmed. Indeed, if one looks into how different functional determinants are evaluated, than a relationship between age and attitude of respondents towards the police.

Socio-economic status (occupation) also shows a significant difference in the evaluation of all the selected functional determinants (see table 5.6).

7.5.8. Social Contact

For community policing to service social contact between the police and community becomes a necessity. Although there is a level of agreement on this between males and females, what is interesting is the attitude of male respondents which is more in favour of social contact than female counterparts (see table 5.7)

Regarding socio-economic status (occupation), another significant difference is shown (see table 5.9).

7.5.9. Community Policing

Male and female respondents differ significantly regarding community policy especially on the issue of specially trained community policing officers (see table 6.1). The general finding for community policing is that despite the differences between male and female respondents but community policing is evaluated positively by both respectively.

7.5.10 Police Accountability

Only the socio-economic status (occupation) shows a significant difference in the evaluation of police accountability (see table 6.6.). Students are convinced that police should be accountable to the people they serve.

7.5.11 Mutual Trust

General labourers, semi-skilled workers, agricultural and related worker, armed forces and workers in security services point out that community should trust the police and this shows a more positive level of significance (see table 6.9).

7.5.12 Community Education

It was found that females are more supportive of education by the police regarding work and crime (see table 6.10). Students show that they are not happy with the police educating the community regarding their work and crime. This is seen despite their agreement with the attribute (see table 6.12).

7.6 RECOMMENDATIONS

The policing of South Africa requires a return through the looking glass of apartheid as well as a conception of policing that challenges the conventional wisdom that has for so long guided police reform. On the basis of all the information and findings of this study the following is recommended: -

7.6.1 Research Unit

It has become clear from this study that policing is an important social service. It becomes confusing though that for a function such as this no proper research is done to assist police management and police on the ground with valuable information for operational purposes. It is thus recommended that a Research Unit at provincial level be established to use field workers for policing information gathering. This Research Unit should work hand-in-hand with the Service Evaluation Section to facilitate core-policing functions. This Research Unit need to purify and supplement some of the functions of the existing Crime Intelligence Component in the Province.

7.6.2 The Police Service Contract

Police-community relations will probably be one of the most contentious issues at the Community Policing Forum. The Community Policing Forum should therefore develop a Police Service Contract. Such a contract should include the following basis themes:

- Ensuring quality of service;
- Local needs and priorities;
- Realistic and measurable criteria for determining and evaluating the effectiveness of policing services;

It is important to remain realistic when drafting a Police Service Contract. For example, it is also unlikely that the Police will be able to do much about the progress of cases in court, as this is the responsibility of other agencies within the criminal justice system. The Community Policing Forum or Its Executive Committee should be able to monitor whether goals, as set out in the Contract, are being met or whether amendments are necessary. The Contract serves as a means for increasing police accountability to the community.

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ANNEXURE A

QUESTIONNAIRE

“THE ROLE AND IMAGE OF THE POLICE IN A POST- APARTHEID ERA”

DEAR RESPONDENT

PLEASE NOTE THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS: -

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE REFERS TO THE SA POLICE IN KWAZULU/NATAL ONLY. AS SUCH, IT HAS NO REFERENCE TO THE DURBAN CITY POLICE OR TRAFFIC POLICING.

THIS QUESTIONNAIRE REQUIRES ONLY A FEW MINUTES OF YOUR PRECIOUS TIME. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION IN THIS REGARD.

YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS MUST NOT BE REFLECTED ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

ALL INFORMATION IS STRICTLY CONFIDENTIAL AND WILL UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES BE DISCLOSED TO ANYBODY.

PLEASE ANSWER ALL THE QUESTIONS AS THEY APPLY TO YOU PERSONALLY BY MAKING A CROSS (X) IN THE APPROPRIATE OPEN SQUARES.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY:

QUESTIONNAIRE NUMBER

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SECTION A : DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Q.1 What is your SEX?

Male	1
Female	2

Q. 2 To what AGE CATEGORY below do you belong?

YEARS					
18 – 24	25 – 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 - 64	65 +
1	2	3	4	5	6

Q. 3 What is your HOME LANGUAGE?

English	1
Afrikaans	2
Zulu	3
Siswati	4
Sotho	5
Xhosa	6
Other	7

Q. 4 What is your HIGHEST educational qualifications?

Standard 6	1
Standard 7	2
Standard 8	3
Standard 9	4
Standard 10	5
Diploma	6
Degree	7

Q. 5 What is your MARITAL STATUS?

Never married	1
Married	2
Widowed	3
Divorced/Separated	4

Q. 6 What is your present OCCUPATION?

Unemployed	1
General labourer.	2
Semi-skilled labourer	3
Professional worker (doctor, lawyer, teacher, etc.)	4
Technical worker (mechanic, electrician, etc.)	5
Businessman or sales worker	6
Administrative, executive worker or manager	7
Worker in transport (driver, dispatcher, etc.)	8
Worker in communication (journalist, P.R.O.)	9
Craftsman and production worker	10
Student or scholar	11
Services worker (nursing, social worker, etc.)	12
Engaged in sport and recreation	13
Agricultural and related worker (tending crops, animals, farmer, etc,	14
Armed forces (Army)	15
Security services	16
Unknown	17
Other (specify)	18

SECTION B: ROLE OF THE POLICE

Q.07 Do you think a police service is necessary in our society?

Absolutely necessary	1
Necessary	2
Undecided	3
Unnecessary	4
Absolutely unnecessary	5

Q. 08 Do you think the existence of an organized police force (like the SA Police Service) is a threat to your individual rights of liberty and privacy?

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

Q.09 Do you think your personal liberty and privacy are threatened by the working methods of the SA Police Service in KwaZulu-Natal?

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

Q. 10 Do you think it is necessary that the liberty and the privacy of INDIVIDUALS should be restricted by the South African Police Service in KwaZulu-Natal to ensure the liberty and safety of society in general?

Yes	1
No	2

Q. 11 Do you as a member of society, have any duty to combat crime?

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

Q. 12 Are you willing to assist the South African Police Service in KwaZulu-Natal under all conditions to combat crime?

Always	1
Often	2
Undecided	3
Sometimes	4
Never	5

Please rate the following statements:

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Disagree
Q.13	The police do not prevent crime in my area.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.14	The police do not respond promptly to emergency calls	1	2	3	4	5
Q.15	Street patrolling deters criminals	1	2	3	4	5
Q.16	Detectives are doing a good job to bring criminals to book.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.17	The police should engage more in foot patrolling of business areas.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.18	The victims of crime do not provide information to the police to help identify suspects	1	2	3	4	5
Q.19	Attending to family disputes is a risky/dangerous undertaking for the police	1	2	3	4	5
Q.20	Increasing the number of police will produce greater public safety and security	1	2	3	4	5
Q.21	The police have a low social status in society	1	2	3	4	5
Q.22	Greater police effectiveness will reduce the crime rate.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.23	More resources (manpower, vehicles, etc.) would improve police efficiency in combating crime	1	2	3	4	5

Q.24 Have you ever been in JURIDICAL CONTACT with the police?

N.B. If necessary, tick more than one

As an accused AND convicted	1
As an accused BUT acquitted	2
As an suspect (interrogated)	3
As a complainant (victim of crime)	4
As a witness	5
As an informer	6
No contact	7

Q. 25 Which ONE of the following has contributed MOST in establishing your perceptions of the South African Police Service in Kwa-Zulu Natal?

Juridical contact	1
Social contact	2
The experience of other people (i.e. what you have been told)	3
The mass media	4
Detectives stories, books or articles you have read about the police	5
The presence of the police (i.e. what you see when they perform their duties)	6

Q.26 Do your perceptions of the police refer to (ONLY ONE please)

Members of the uniform branch only	1
The detective branch only	2
The police in general	3

How do you personally rate the importance of the following police functions?

		Most important	Important	Undecided	Less important	Not important at all
Q.27	Investigation of crime	1	2	3	4	5
Q.28	Street patrolling	1	2	3	4	5
Q.29	Protection and guidance of the youth	1	2	3	4	5
Q.30	Prevention of crime	1	2	3	4	5
Q.31	Educating society with regard to the crime problem	1	2	3	4	5
Q.32	Protection of your Human Rights	1	2	3	4	5
Q.33	Investigation of traffic accidents	1	2	3	4	5
Q.34	Settlements of domestic quarrels	1	2	3	4	5

Do you report all crimes and misconduct to the police?

		Always	Often	Sometimes	Never	Not involved
Q.35	Where you are a victim	1	2	3	4	5
Q.36	Those you have knowledge of	1	2	3	4	5

Indicate below whether the following REASON or REASONS have played a role in your decision NOT TO REPORT crime or misconduct to the police,

N.B. Tick EACH ONE please!

		YES	NO
Q.37	Did not want to burden the police with trivial matters	1	2
Q.38	The case would in any case not receive the necessary attention	1	2
Q.39	The case is unsolvable	1	2
Q.40	The inability of the police to solve criminal cases	1	2
Q.41	Personal nature of the case	1	2
Q.42	Not in the interest of society that the case should be reported	1	2
Q.43	The case is settled personally	1	2
Q.44	Attending court is too time consuming	1	2
Q.45	Negative attitude of the police with regard to crime	1	2
Q.46	You are treated as a guilty party when reporting the matter to the police	1	2
Q.47	Lack of police transport to attend to complaints	1	2
Q.48	Arrogant attitude of policemen when they attend to complaints	1	2

Q.49 In which category below, would you place the efficiency of the police when dealing with the crime problem IN GENERAL?

Highly efficient	1
Efficient	2
Undecided	3
Inefficient	4
Highly inefficient	5

How do you evaluate the following characteristics of the police in Kwa-Zulu Natal?

		Very good	Good	Undecided	Bad	Very bad
Q.50	General appearance (i.e. neatness, etc)	1	2	3	4	5
Q.51	The way police vehicles are handled	1	2	3	4	5
Q.52	The complaints are being handled	1	2	3	4	5
Q.53	The way arrests are being carried out	1	2	3	4	5
Q.54	The early settlement of criminal cases	1	2	3	4	5
Q.55	Firmness of action	1	2	3	4	5
Q.56	Obligingness in enforcing the law	1	2	3	4	5

Q. 57 To what extent does the attitude created by the factors in the preceding questions (i. e. questions 50 to 56) influence your assistance to the police?

It definitely stimulates assistance	1
It stimulate assistance to a large extent	2
It stimulates assistance to a lesser extent	3
It discourages assistance to a lesser extent	4
It discourages assistance to a large extent	5
It definitely discourages assistance	6
Has no influence	7

SECTION C : COMMUNITY POLICING

		Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Disagree
Q.58	The community should be allowed to have a greater say in policing matters	1	2	3	4	5
Q.59	The police should first and foremost, be accountable to the community they serve	1	2	3	4	5
Q.60	The police and communities should jointly become more involved in identification of community problems	1	2	3	4	5
Q.61	The community should be involved in crime prevention initiatives.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.62	Specially trained Community policing Officers (CPO's) would do much to improve police-community relations	1	2	3	4	5
Q.63	The community and the police should join their efforts to improve the quality of life.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.64	The police should be sensitive to the needs of the most vulnerable people (elderly, juveniles, the poor and the homeless, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5
Q.65	The time has come for the community to trust the police	1	2	3	4	5
Q.66	The police should treat law-abiding citizens as their real partners in combating crime.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.67	Police are still agents of apartheid	1	2	3	4	5
Q.68	More social contact between the police and the public would stimulate co-operation in combating crime.	1	2	3	4	5

Q.69 More social contact between the police and the public would stimulate cooperation in combating crime.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.70 Improved rendering of police services to the public is what is needed for community policing to be successful.	1	2	3	4	5
Q.71 The police should educate the public with respect to police work and crime.	1	2	3	4	5



ANNEXTURE B

*South African Police Service
Code of Conduct*

commit myself to the creation of a safe and secure environment for all the people in South Africa by

*participating in endeavours to address the root causes of crime in the community;
preventing action which may threaten the safety or security of any community; and
investigating criminal conduct which has endangered the safety or security of the community
and bringing the perpetrators thereof to justice.*

In realization of the aforesaid commitment, I shall at all times -

uphold the Constitution and the law;

be guided by the needs of the community;

*give full recognition to the needs of the South African Police Service as employer; and
co-operate with the community, government at every level and all other related role-players.*

In order to achieve a safe and secure environment for all the people of South Africa I undertake

*with integrity, render a responsible and effective service of high quality which is accessible to
every person and continuously strive towards improving this service;*

*utilize all the available resources responsibly, efficiently and cost effectively to maximize their
use;*

*develop my own skills and participate in the development of my fellow members to ensure
equal opportunities for all;*

contribute to the reconstruction and development of, and reconciliation in our country;

uphold and protect the fundamental rights of every person;

*act impartially, courteously, honestly, respectfully, transparently and in an accountable
manner;*

exercise the powers conferred upon me in a responsible and controlled manner; and

*work actively towards preventing any form of corruption and to bring the perpetrators thereof
to justice.*

Signature

Date