

**NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN: ANALYSIS OF SOUTH
AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE VISION FOR 2030 TO BUILD
SAFER COMMUNITIES**

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Criminology and Forensic Studies, in the School of Applied Human Sciences, College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal in Durban (South Africa), is my own work and has not been submitted, in whole or in part, in any previous application for a degree at any other institution. The references used and cited have been acknowledged.

Signature of candidate

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

4IR	Fourth Industrial Revolution
AFRIPOL	African Union Mechanism for Police Cooperation
AOP	Annual Operational Plan
APP	Annual Performance Plan
BAC	Business against Crime
CBOs	community-based organisations
CD	compact disk
CJS	Criminal Justice System
COGTA	Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs
CPF	Community Police Forum
CPs	Community Participants
CPTED	Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
CSF	Community Safety Forum
DPCI	Directorate for Priority Crime Investigation
DSD	Department of Social Development
EC	Eastern Cape
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EHW	Employee Health and Wellness
FBO	faith-based organisation
GBVF	Gender-based Violence and Femicide
GP	Gauteng Province
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
INTERPOL	International Criminal Police Organisation
IPID	Independent Police Investigative Directorate
ISCPS	Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy
IUDF	Integrated Urban Development Framework
JCPS	Justice, Crime Prevention and Security
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
LSST	Local Society Strategy Toolkit
MTSF	Medium Term Strategic Framework
NCPS	National Crime Prevention Strategy

NDP	National Development Plan Vision 2030
NGO	non-governmental organisation
NIU	National Intervention Unit
NPA	National Prosecution Authority
NSS	National Security Strategy
PCOP	Portfolio Committee on Police
PP	Police Participants
RDP	Reconstruction Development Plan
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SABRIC	South African Banking Risk Information Centre
SANDF	South African National Defence Force
SAPS	South African Police Service
SARPPCO	Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Cooperation Organisation
SCOPA	Standing Committee on Public Accounts
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timely
ToC	Theory of Change
TRT	Tactical Response Team
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
VOC	Victim of Crime
WC	Western Cape
WHO	World Health Organisation

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DEDICATION

Firstly, this work is devoted to my ever cherished late mother, Maria DM Mbanjwa, who passed on when I was almost done with my studies, for raising me as a single parent and regardless of poverty and lack, responded to the call of my late grandmother, Cresentia MaMndaweni Mbanjwa, who without any formal education, strongly believed in education and in the saying “*you educate a woman, you educate a nation*”.

She sacrificed everything and invested in my education when she took me to University of Durban-Westville to study for a Bachelor of Pedagogics in Science.

My role models, my beloved late mother, Maria DM Mbanjwa and grandmother, Cresentia MaMndaweni Mbanjwa, you will forever be cherished.

Secondly, this work is dedicated to my beautiful daughters, the pillars of my strength and my source of joy, Sithabisile Zulu and Sinazo Zulu.

Thirdly, this thesis is dedicated to all the people living in South Africa whose dream is to feel safe at home, on the street, at school, at work and in public spaces and to have no fear of crime.

Finally, this thesis is dedicated to the men and women in blue who serve their communities every day, often risking their lives to create a safe and secure environment for all the people living in South Africa.

ABSTRACT

Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan (NDP) Vision 2030 aims to create an environment in South Africa (SA) where people living in the country will feel safe at home, on the street, at school, at work and in public spaces, and have no fear of crime. The NDP emphasises the safety and security of women and children. It further suggests an integrated approach to resolving the root causes of crime that involves an active citizenry and interrelated responsibilities and coordinated service delivery by both the state and non-state actors.

This study sought to analyse how the South African Police Service (SAPS) was implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities. It focused on the SAPS implementation of Chapter 12 of the NDP Vision 2030. In addition, it examined the attitudes and perceptions of actors and implementers regarding the NDP implementation within the SAPS. It analysed the translation of the NDP chapter 12's five priority areas, and the SAPS understanding, alignment and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities. It further examined the challenges the SAPS experienced and the progress it made in implementing the five priority areas in building safer communities. This study covered public policy implementation, theory of change and internalisation as conceptual frameworks.

The study adopted mixed methodology as both qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed. Literature and document analysis and reviews were conducted. Questionnaires were distributed to collect data from Eastern Cape, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. The qualitative methodology consisted of a total of 306 community participants and 397 police participants who responded to a single public opinion question (Appendix 1) and a total of 13 individual experts who responded to 12 questions during semi-structured interviews (Appendix 2). A total of 807 (42,3%) police officers and 1 101 (57,7%) community members responded on the quantitative questionnaire (Appendix 3). The raw data gathered from the quantitative approach were captured on the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) system and recorded. The data gathered from qualitative approach were grouped, categorised and themed. Eventually, they were analysed and interpreted.

The findings of the study confirmed that the NDP was not without deep-rooted crises and factors influencing policy implementation in SA. These crises included failure to translate

policies into long-term plans and lack of planning systems and competencies to implement policies. There were many legislative, policy and strategic response trajectories towards building safer communities in place, but there was lack of institutionalisation, monitoring and evaluation of their impact on community safety. A steady decline in communities feel safe nullified the NDP vision of the people living in SA feeling safe and having no fear of crime. Adverse basic living, social, health and economic conditions for the people of SA and ineffective execution of programmes to improve these conditions impacted negatively on community safety. The study validated the prevalence of juvenile delinquency and lack of trust and confidence between the police and communities.

Based on theoretical framework of this study, a conclusion on the tripartite relationship between three interdependent critical variables in achieving safer communities was drawn. The interdependence of these variables on the policy implementation theory framework was founded on NDP implementation and theory of change. The researcher's proposed *Safer Community Model* and *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention* and the internalisation theory were grounded on the commitment of actors and implementers in shaping the direction of safer communities.

Keywords: Community Safety, Criminal Justice System, Crime Prevention, Integrated Approach to Safety and Security, Community Policing, National Development Plan, Policy Implementation.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Creating an environment where people can feel safe and live without fear of crime is the priority of the South African government. This is evident in Chapter 12 of the National Development Plan (NDP) Vision 2030 Government of South Africa, where government prioritises building safer communities. This forms part of planned interventions to enhance the standard of living for all South Africans and create a better, more prosperous, socially just, globally competitive, and fully developed South Africa (Government of South Africa, 2012). Crime eradication through creating a crime-free South Africa is one of the NDP priority goals. This study explores the South African Police Service (SAPS) implementation of the NDP Vision 2030 for building safer communities.

This chapter gives an overview of the research conducted. It summaries the problem statement by means of the literature overview, elucidates the critical terms of the study and illustrates the current problems related to safety in South Africa. It introduces the aim, objectives, and key research questions. It further provides the rationale for and theoretical perspective to the study. This chapter further presents the overall strategy or the research design and the research methodology executed to attain the research objectives and obtain the answers for the research questions. It concludes with and outlines the chapters that follow.

1.1.1 Background to problem statement

The problem statement of this research is grounded on the SAPS implementation of the NDP Vision 2030 for building safer communities. The researcher reviewed literature pertaining to the NDP and building safer communities in order to demonstrate the research problem. The literature review firstly elucidates concepts related to the study. Secondly, it pays attention to victims of crime. Thirdly, it focuses on the 1996 National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), which emphasises the crime prevention approach and crime control. Fourthly, the NDP Vision:

2030 for building safer communities is scanned. Lastly, the literature review dwells on the issue of crime in South Africa.

1.1.2 Concept elucidation

1.1.2.1 South African Police Service

According to the Constitution of RSA, 1996, Section, 205 (1), the national police service should be designed to function in the national, provincial, and, where appropriate, local spheres of government (Government of SA, 1996:105). The South African Police Service (SAPS) is legislated by the SAPS Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995) and operates in four-tier locations of policing, namely, SAPS Head Office, which includes divisions and national components, provincial offices which includes offices at provincial commissioners, cluster stations, and police stations (Government of SA, 1996). According to the Constitution of RSA, 1996, Section 205 (3), “the objectives of the police service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and uphold and enforce the law”.

1.1.2.2 Community

It is imperative to elucidate the concept ‘community’ in view of its fundamental location in developing the safer community discourse. Various perspectives inform the definition of ‘community’ as a concept. Mawby (1990:170) ascertains that community ought to be evaluated on certain criteria such as common past and culture and reputable relationships. As cited by Audu (2016), Ekong defines community as an ‘aggregation of families’ routinely and collectively dwelling together in a certain topographical site. Community, to a certain extent, is characterised by residing in a condition of shared relationship, promotion of elementary social institutions and enjoying political independence pertaining to other communities. As quoted by Audu (2016), Ekong adds that community involves persons in a shared neighbourhood with common interests and behavioural patterns, noticeable mostly in the regions of production, supply, utilisation of goods and services, shared support and participation.

According to Wilmot, quoted by Walklate (2006:171), communities are categorised. He suggests that ‘territorial community’ is made up of those people who live in a specific precinct. The ‘interest community’ means people who possess something in common in addition to the topographical area where they dwell. The ‘attachment community’ incorporates acceptance of persons in an area. He adds that “the way in which people experience living in their community” can encompass, to some extent, a blend of these classifications at some point and can vary as time goes by. South African communities with their history of colonialism and apartheid are far different from each other in terms of socio-economic backgrounds. They all have constitutional rights to be safe, regardless of their differences. Much as socio-economic backgrounds have potential influences on and links with community designs, all communities in SA should feel safe and fear no crime.

1.1.2.3 Building safer communities

The 1996 NCPS states that reducing crime cannot be the sole responsibility of the police. Creating safer communities entails the dedicated participation of communities, diverse government departments, local authorities, and the private sector. Combatting crime demands for a ‘multi-pronged approach’ which includes law enforcement, and situational prevention (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). The NDP Vision 2030 Chapter 12 specifically addresses the concept of building safer communities, connecting it to:

- a. the necessity of strengthening the CJS,
- b. providing professional police service,
- c. demilitarisation of police,
- d. integrated approach to community safety, and
- e. community participation in creating safer communities (Government of SA, 2012).

Based on the NDP and NCPS description of creating safer communities, this study explores ways for the SAPS to create safer communities.

1.1.2.4 National Development Plan

In 2012, the Cabinet of South Africa adopted the detailed blueprint known as National Development Plan Vision: 2030, which aims at guiding South Africa on how poverty can be eliminated and inequality be reduced by 2030 (Government SA, 2012) and seeks enhancement of the living standard of all South Africans and create a better, more prosperous, socially just, globally competitive, and fully developed South Africa by 2030 through economic growth (Government of SA, 2016). The decent standard of living consists of the core elements that include safety and security. A vision for a safe and secure South Africa is enunciated in the NDP and building safer communities is acknowledged as fundamental to realising an integrated and progressive approach to safety and security, which includes all government departments and tiers of government (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016a). The NDP Vision 2030, Chapter 12: Building Safer Communities sets out South African's vision of becoming a safer country.

The study under review uses the acronym NDP to refer to the National Development Plan. In the words of Trevor Manuel, erstwhile chairperson of the National Planning Commission, the NDP is a “plan for the country to eliminate poverty and reduce inequality” as well as to enhance “the capability of the state and leaders working together to solve complex problems” (Government of SA, 2012:1). Fox and Meyer (1995:96) define policy as a “guide of action or statement of goals that should be followed in an institution to deal with a particular problem or phenomenon or a set of problems of phenomena”. The NDP is described as a “plan or blueprint”. Hence, according to Fox and Meyer (1995), the NDP constitutes a policy. Thus the researcher regards the NDP as public policy for South Africans.

1.1.3 Victims of crime

Crime statistics remain crucial to “understand the temporal and spatial dynamics of crime” for “planning targeted interventions and assessing progress made towards achieving a crime free nation” (Statistics SA, 2018:10) where “people living in SA feel safe at home, at school and at work, and they enjoy a community life of free of fear. Women walk freely in the streets and children play safely outside” (Government of SA, 2012:350). The NCPS underscores the importance of advancing broader responsibility for prevention of crime. It further underlines

a move from reactive approach to a more proactive approach to prevention of crime that is directed at preventing crime from happening (Department for Safety and Security, 1996).

The NDP, again, emphasises the importance of building safer communities where “in 2030 people living in SA feel safe and have no fear of crime” (Government of SA, 2012: 350). The NDP envisions “people living in SA feel safe and having no fear of crime” (Government of SA, 2012: 350). Contrary to this, the 2016/17 and 2017/2018 Victim of Crime (VOC) survey reports indicate a drastic decrease in feelings of safety of persons walking unaccompanied in their areas of residence in the course of the day and when it is dark (Statistics SA, 2018:77). The decrease in household members going to open spaces and permitting children to play in such areas and walk to school and town, because of a fear of crime, is at variance with the objectives of the NDP. Additionally, the VOC surveys indicate that South African households’ level of “satisfaction with the police has been declining since 2013/14” (Statistics SA, 2018:86). This is an indication that walking alone has declined because people do not feel safe doing so (Statistics SA, 2018: 78). This poses a challenge to the NDP vision of “people feeling safe at home, at school, at work, enjoying community life free of fear” and “walking freely in the streets and children playing safely outside” (Government of SA, 2012:350).

According to the NDP, a safe SA will not be accomplished devoid of a “strong criminal justice system” (Government of SA 2012:350). The VOC surveys 2011–2016/17 reveal that satisfaction with courts declined from 2011 to 2017/18 (Statistics SA, 2018: 89). The 2017/18 VOC survey further reveals that South Africans households in that period were adamant that courts were too lenient on criminals, dragged matters out and postponed them for too long, released perpetrators unconditionally, did not have enough convictions, were corrupt, gave some people preferential treatment and did not serve proper notice of hearing (Statistics SA, 2018: 88). This is an indication of the weakened CJS and such findings are contradictory to the NDP vision of strengthening it.

The Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2014-2019 states that “weaknesses in forensic, detective, investigation, and prosecution services hamper the government’s efforts to reduce the overall levels of crime, particularly contact crimes” (Government of SA, 2014:19). The NDP insists that a professional police service is essential for a ‘strong criminal justice system’ (Government of SA, 2012:350). Yet the 2011-2018 VOC surveys indicate an

increasing decline in public satisfaction level equally in the courts and police (Statistics SA, 2018:86, 89).

1.1.4 National Crime Prevention Strategy

In May 1996 the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was passed by The South African Cabinet which acknowledged “the importance for a ‘new paradigm’ for addressing crime” (Department of Safety and Security, 1996:6). It was seen as representing “a critical point in the fight against crime”. The NCPS remained South Africa’s initial effort to “take lessons from the developing body of universal work on prevention of crime and implement it to South African setting” (Newham, 2005). The NCPS emanated from the discussions and research conducted by a multi-disciplinary “team of experts from public and private sectors mandated to take care at creating a prolonged strategy to help the government in tackling the roots of crime in South Africa”. The NCPS further presents an outline for the creation of nationwide crime prevention plans.

Prevention of crime is fundamental in preventing risk to people’s lives. Many experts and analysts lambasted “the deficiency of assessment of crime prevention enterprises in the country” (Dixon, 2002; Frank, 2003; Palmarty, 2002; Pelser, 2002). The argument is that as assessment of such enterprises is lacking, determining the degree to which they achieve their purposes or truly contribute to a reduction in crime is difficult. Additionally, assessment is essential to inform crime prevention interventions overall.

Newham (2005:4) argues that “the NCPS introduced a new paradigm for the state and the way in which it had to function to address crime”. While the NCPS attempts to promote a holistic approach to address social and developmental causes of crime, the NDP Chapter 12 offers “a complete opinion on crime and violence and elaborates on sectorial collaboration among government and non-government role players to tackle its root causes” (Government of SA, 2012).

Newham (2005:5) maintains that “while the NCPS was hailed as a progressive document and opened the government to some of the latest international thinking on the role of the state in preventing crime, there were a number of key challenges to its implementation”. Sixteen years

after the adoption of the NCPS, the government in 2012 advanced the paradigm and adopted the NDP, which aimed that by 2030 “people living in SA [...] should [...] feel safe and have no fear of crime” (Government of SA, 2012:350). The NDP argues, as does Newham (2005), that “although this strategy [NCPS] incorporated cutting-edge international thinking and was widely recognised as sound, it was never fully institutionalised as holistic and comprehensive strategy that focused on all factors that produce crime and insecurity” (Government of SA, 2012:357).

The NCPS has adopted a four-pillar approach to guide crime prevention plans across the board. (Department for Safety and Security, 1996). These pillars focus on (i) enhancing the efficiency of the criminal justice system; (ii) decreasing crime through environmental design; (iii) improving public values and school education; and (iv) tackling transnational crime (NCPS, 1996). Although the basis of NCPS was on the Criminal Justice System (CJS) it went beyond the Criminal Justice System. The NDP argues that while this strategy integrated pioneering global thinking and was broadly acknowledged as comprehensive, it was certainly not completely implemented as comprehensive strategy that concentrated at addressing issues that contribute to crime and insecurity.

Achieving the vision of “feel safe and have no fear of crime by 2030”, the NDP, Chapter 12 targets its action in the following five priority areas as the driving force towards achieving crime-free South Africa by 2030: (i) reinforcement of CJS, (ii) creation of a police service that is professionalised, (iii) demilitarisation of service of the police, (iv) establishment of approach that is integrated in dealing with crime generators, and (v) creation of active and strong participation of community (Government of SA, 2012:350). Newham (2005) states that the NCPS hosted a different paradigm to tackle crime and its root causes. Rauch’s (2001) analysis of NCPS and identified the six key components in the government paradigm shift to address crime, namely: “(i) Government is incapable of solely tackling crime. (ii) Exclusive responses from criminal justice and law enforcement are insufficient for rooting out crime. (iii) Enhanced coordination amongst the departments contributes to effectiveness of the Criminal Justice System. (iv) Crimes differ, therefore they ought to be 'dis-aggregated' in case constructive prevention strategies are to be developed and executed. (v) There is a need to improve prevention to concentrate on victims and possible victims, and not only on perpetrators. (vi) Prevention determinations should give attention to the fear of crime and to

real crime patterns”. These components highly relate to the NDP Chapter 12’s five priority areas of building safer communities and create the synergy between the NCPS and NDP. These six components show that there is a high correlation between the four pillars of NCPS and the five priority areas of the NDP’s Chapter 12. However, there is no evidence that there has been synergy in implementing the NCPS and the NDP.

Both the NCPS and the NDP have been criticised (Rauch, 2002). Rauch (2002) identifies challenges and criticism regarding NCPS implementation. She claims that the basis of NCPS was on hypothesis that the transecting national programmes would obviously lead to inter-departmental cooperation. Conversely, the fiscal and performance motivations in government acted contrary to cooperation. Rauch (2002) argues that the NCPS could not apportion committed government funding to implementation, however somewhat stimulated departments to downsize and apportion existing resources to the state plans. In addition, she criticises the NCPS that the “connection between the four pillars of NCPS and the seven priority crimes by then was not articulated well” (Rauch, 2002). As a result there was extensive emphasis on the pillars, resulting in the processes and structures being far removed from “the content of the crimes that were intended to be addressed”.

This study under review sought to investigate the criticism against the NDP. It also set out to assess the sources of criticism with the aim of providing valuable information to remedy the situation.

The researcher is of the view that during NDP implementation, challenges are to be expected. It is for this reason that the study attempts to draw some lessons learnt from the NCPS implementation.

1.1.5 National Development Plan Vision 2030

The NDP Vision 2030 came about in 2012 and is envisioned to be accomplished by 2030. To realise the NDP goals by then, planning, accountability and assessment are critical. Subsequent to the endorsement of the NDP, Cabinet agreed that the 2014-2019 MTSF should encompass its first five-year implementation phase. Cabinet further mandated national and provincial departments, municipalities and public entities to align their plans with the NDP vision and goals (Government of SA, 2014:5). This created a need for the five-year strategic plans to be

submitted to provincial legislatures and parliament by provincial and national departments respectively and such plans were to incorporate the relevant MTSF actions and targets. Subsequently, they were to be “integrated into future annual performance plans, which give direction for ascertaining and reacting to challenges that rise in the course of implementation” and “the MTSF was organised around 14 priority outcomes” that embrace the key focus areas picked out in the NDP (Government of SA, 2014:15).

The 2014-2019 SAPS Strategic Plan prioritises five of the 14 priority outcomes (SAPS, 2014:13). These outcomes include: “*All people of South Africa are and feel safe*” (Government of SA, 2012:350 and Government of SA, 2014:19), “*Create a better South Africa, a better Africa and better world*” (Government of SA, 2012:235 and Government of SA, 2014:30); “*An efficient, effective and developmental oriented public service*” (Government of SA, 2012:407 and Government of SA, 2014:31), “*Nation building and social cohesion*” (Government of SA, 2012:457 and Government of SA, 2014:35), and “*Fighting corruption*” (Government of SA, 2012:446).

This study assesses how the SAPS, as the custodian and champion government department of Chapter 12 of the NDP, has unpacked and institutionalised the NDP as a user-friendly document and how different business units of SAPS are aligning themselves with it. This study examines the SAPS Strategic Plan alignment and integration with the NDP and 2014 –2019 MTSF objectives and the progress that the SAPS has made in achieving the NDP 2030 Vision of building safer communities, more than five years since Cabinet adopted it. The 2014 –2019 MTSF instructs all tiers of government to align, integrate and implement their plans to achieve the NDP (Government of SA, 2014: 5). It is necessary to evaluate what the country, particularly government departments have done to implement this plan in order to identify the challenges, limitations and solutions in implementation of the NDP.

The NDP states that “achieving long-term, sustainable safety requires an integrated approach focused on tackling the fundamental causes of criminality” (Government of SA, 2012:350). It further advocates the need to “implement strategies known to work (Government of SA, 2012:358). South Africa did this in 2010 when it hosted the Soccer World Cup using an “integrated approach to building safety” (Government of SA, 2012:356). Both public sector and private sector capabilities remained organised and mobilised with the common goal aiming

to root out crime (Government of SA, 2012). The citizens of SA experienced a reduction in violent crime, such as murder, however, the SAPS Annual Crime Report 2017/2018 reveals that there was a progressive increase when compared with the 2010/2011 Crime Report (South African Police Service:2018a). The researcher therefore questions how effective the integrated approach to building safer communities in SA is. Donziger (1996:198) questions the criminal justice practices and argues that:

“For the past twenty years, criminal justice practices have been so profoundly ill-conceived that they have been bound to fail. As the failures have accumulated, the justice system has responded by adding more of the same policies. Prison and jail populations in this nation [the United States] have tripled since 1980, and law enforcement expenditures have quadrupled, but polls show that most Americans do not feel safe. Legislatures lengthen sentences and add more mandatory minimum penalties. More police are hired, more prisons built. Still, we do not feel safe. In response, policy-makers continue to expand the same criminal justice apparatus: more enforcement, longer sentences, and more prisons. If this 'get tough' strategy worked, the results would be apparent by now. They are not”.

This has been the United States problem for two decades (Donziger, 1996:198). Donziger’s argument is also applicable to the existing situation in SA. To determine how, in the South African context, NDP implementation will respond to such challenges as highlighted by Donziger (1996:198) is highly imperative.

The research problem of this study is based on a common policy-maker and policy-actor notion that advocates that “no matter how good the policy document is in theory and on paper, the intended outcome cannot be realised without a sound implementation plan”. Hence, this study seeks to assess the alignment of NDP with other strategies, mandates and legislation that aim to achieve a safe and secure SA. Although SA has a clear, comprehensive framework consisting of carefully considered legislation, policies and strategies to address crime and move towards safer communities, the outcome will ultimately be determined by how well these are coordinated, integrated and implemented. Therefore, the study evaluates this against the backdrop of the NDP Vision 2030, focusing on Chapter 12. The researcher’s observations correspond with the arguments of Spohr and Erkens (2016:11) who argue that:

“Despite an obvious paradigm shift in national strategic and political documents on violence and crime prevention since 2011, there are still many structures and policies that have not undergone this shift, including the attitudes and understanding of those involved in these structures. A closer look at the outputs, formulated for government outcome 3: ‘All people in South Africa are and feel safe’ reveals that none of them refers to ensuring safety in the broader sense, as described for instance in the National Development Plan: Vision for 2030”.

These arguments encapsulate the study’s problem statement. Structures, strategies and plans seem to emphasise on law-enforcement actions, instead of emphasising on actions that have lasting impact. This points to an ongoing deficiency of coherence strategies and plans in the prevention of crime. Moreover, strategies and plans need to be translated into real-world and inclusive regulations and guidelines. Experts in the field need to be tasked with doing so.

Questions in this regard include the following: Which structures, strategies and policies have not undergone the required paradigm shift? How are strategies, plans and policies translated into practical and comprehensive regulations and guidelines? What programmes have been implemented to develop capacity to realise integrated social violence and crime prevention?

Realising the NDP vision of feeling safe and having no fear of crime by 2030 is a process that is achievable, but not overnight. This calls for a long-term “coordinated and holistic approach” (Government of SA, 2012: 358) to building community safety. The increase in public distrust and lack of confidence in the police as the VOC surveys repeatedly show, Faull and Rose (2012:15), refer to “discourteous treatment or police abuse of authority” and “unwillingness to assist in a cooperative effort against crime”. Rauch (2004) refers to the public distrust and lack of confidence in the police when describing policing prior to 1994.

She states that “By the early 1990s, (all) the police in South Africa had acquired a reputation for brutality, corruption and ineptitude. Police agencies were militarised, hierarchical, and ill-equipped to deal with ordinary crime. Street-level policing was conducted in a heavy-handed style, with bias against black citizens and little respect for rights or due process. Criminal investigations were largely reliant on confessions extracted under duress, and harsh security

legislation provided or tolerated various forms of coercion and torture. Their policing techniques were outmoded, partly as a result of the campaign for international isolation of the apartheid government” (Rauch, 2004:6).

The South African democratic era heralded a paradigm shift for policing. The former police force became a police service; police professionalism and demilitarisation followed. Its reputation of being brutal, corrupt and incompetent, as stated by Rauch (2004), shifted. It was described as a professional police service (Government of SA, 2012:356).

Questions that ensue are whether professionalism, discipline, integrity, competency, proficiency, excellence, conforming to a code of conduct, ethics and conforming to professional standards and training for professionalism were and are the order of the day. What has the SAPS done to advance the NDP? Is the professionalisation of police service one of the ways of strengthening the CJS?

The NCPS and NDP are both driven by the common goal of addressing root causes of crime. They both attempt, in many ways, through a collaborative approach to (i) create safer communities, (ii) strengthen the CJS, (iii) present a strategic, future-oriented and targeted approach to crime prevention and detection, and (iv) illustrate a substantial and extensive paradigm shift in the policing model in SA.

The challenges identified by Rauch (2002) in the implementation of NCPS are experienced with the implementation of the NDP. It is for this reason the study attempts to evaluate the alignment of NCPS and NDP and to learn lessons from NCPS implementation in striving to achieve a crime-free SA by 2030.

The researcher’s viewpoint is that analysing the theoretical foundation of policy development and implementation related to policing, safety and security since 1994 is essential to understand the dynamics of policing and crime in SA today. Therefore, the researcher set out to interrogate different policies and strategies on policing, safety and security while exploring the NDP vision of building safer communities. The researcher also examined the role of an integrated approach to and community participation in building community safety, service delivery excellence through the strengthened CJS and professional police service.

1.1.6 Brief overview of crime in SA

The 2017/2018 Annual Crime Report shows that the trends in crime statistics in SA were still a challenge at the time. The country was experiencing a slight increase in some types of crime while others had slightly declined. Violent crime, specifically murder, was still a challenge, despite increasing interventions that the SAPS and government had put in place. The 1 320 increase in murders from 19 016 in 2016/2017 to 20 336 in 2017/2018 did not paint an ideal picture in achieving the NDP Vision of building safer communities (SAPS, 2018b). The murders of women and children showed an increase of 146.

The 2017/2018 Annual Crime Report further revealed that the murder rate was up by 6,9%. It indicated that an average of 56 people were murdered daily in SA. Of those killed, 46 of them were men, eight women and two children. This upsurge escalated from the average of 52 murders a day in the 2016/2017 period. This trend threatens the safety of communities, increases the level of fear of crime which is contrary to the NDP vision of all people living in SA living without fear of crime.

The reporting period for crime statistics from 1 April 2017 to 31 March 2018 reveals that Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape were – for the period under review – leading nationwide in murder cases, with the highest numbers in Gauteng (4 462), KwaZulu-Natal (4 382) and Western Cape (3 729). Based on the diverse South African demographic overview, the study setting focused on top four largest provinces of SA by population as per mid-term 2018 statistics, namely, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, and Western Cape (Statistics SA, 2018). Ten urban and rural high-crime weight police stations in terms of murder cases per province were randomly sampled from the top 30 high-crime weight police stations in four provinces. High-crime weight in this instance refers to the maximum number of murder cases recorded by stations and captured in the SAPS Crime Administration System (CAS) from the 01 April 2017 to 31 March 2018.

1.2 STUDY AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The aim of the study was to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities. The objectives of the study were to:

- a. Analyse the translation of the NDP Chapter 12's five priority areas into building safer communities by SAPS.
- b. Determine SAPS understanding and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities.
- c. Analyse how the SAPS business units are aligning themselves with NDP vision of building safer communities.
- d. Analyse the progress that the SAPS has made in achieving the NDP vision of building safer communities.
- e. Analyse the challenges experienced by the SAPS in implementing the five NDP priority areas in building safer communities.

1.3 KEY QUESTIONS

The following critical research questions were asked to address the research objectives of the study:

- a. How has the SAPS translated and analysed the five priority areas of Chapter 12 of NDP vision of building safer communities?
- b. What is the SAPS understanding of the NDP vision of building safer communities and how is it being internalised?
- c. How are the SAPS business units aligning themselves with the five priority areas of NDP vision of building safer communities?
- d. What progress has the SAPS made in the achieving the NDP vision towards building safer communities?
- e. What are the challenges experienced by the SAPS in implementing the NDP's vision of building safer communities and what are solutions to the identified challenges?

1.4 RESEARCH RATIONALE AND CONTRIBUTION

According to Brynard and Hanekom (1997:24), the “research topic should be selected due to challenges identified in a particular field”. It is imperative to assess what South Africans, particularly the government departments, have done to implement the NDP in order to identify the challenges and solutions in its implementation. Accordingly, the study under review aimed to assess the progress that the SAPS had made in building safer communities. Achieving a crime-free SA by 2030 is the main focal point and the SAPS has the leading and the constitutional mandatory role, according to the Constitution of the RSA, 1996, Section 205 (3). Its role is to “prevent, combat and investigate crime; maintain public order; protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property; and uphold and enforce the law” in ensuring that crime is prevented (Government of SA, 1996). Hence, it was important to conduct this study to assess how the SAPS as the custodian and champion government department of Chapter 12 of the NDP had analysed and unpacked it into an easily understood and practical document and how different business units of SAPS had been aligning themselves with it and implementing it. The research outcomes will assist various SAPS business units in properly aligning themselves with the NDP vision of safer communities. The study identifies the challenges and limitations in the NDP implementation and solutions in order to influence the strategic decisions that the SAPS and other governments departments should take in building safer communities. The findings could help the strategic planning processes of the CJS departments and the Department of Performance, Monitoring, and Evaluation (DPME) in the office of the Presidency.

This mixed-methods study is significant because of the need to derive qualitative data from different sources through a literature review, interviews, focus groups discussions, and document analysis and quantitative data through a questionnaire. Participants, using their own power of voices, experiences, expertise, and offered noteworthy viewpoints of the SAPS implementation of the NDP in building safer communities. Hence, this research adds value to the policing body of knowledge (BOK), policy-makers, government, and other departments. The research enhanced the researcher’s knowledge and understanding of the NDP. It provides opportunities for most of the ideas and philosophies that the researcher tested to be documented as explicit knowledge. This study contributes to SAPS strategic planning process.

This study proposes the *Safer Community Model for South Africa* and the *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities*.

1.5 THEORETICAL APPROACH OF STUDY

To develop the theory on the basis of the data that the researcher collected, she used the ‘theoretical framework to public policy implementation’, ‘internalisation theory’ and ‘theory of change’. Policy implementation is a process of interaction between the setting of goals and the actions directed to accomplishing them (Wildavsky, 1973:166). Laing and Todd (2015) agree and further define ‘theory of change’ as a “theory-based technique to planning, implementing, or assessing transformation at an individual, organisational or community level”. Scott (1971) describes the “process of internalisation and asserts that it begins with learning what the standards are”. Individuals then go through a process of comprehending why they are of value, up to at the end they accept the norms as their personal view.

1.5.1 Theoretical framework for public policy implementation

According to Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002:17), the management of policy implementation is critical and centred “on how to do it” and “what to do”. Brynard and Hanekom (1997:55) maintain that policy implementers are vital and they perform a significant role in the process of policy implementation. Therefore, the success and failure of policy implementation is also dependent to policy implementers and actors. Birnie and Boyle (1992:90) in explaining the impact of failed police implementation state that “getting policy implementation right is critically important. Failure can cause financial waste, political frustration and disruption for ordinary citizens, as demonstrated in a series of policy failures under governments of all parties. But while the literature on failure is considerable, there is a gap in practical accounts on how to make implementation effective in the distinctive context of government”. In the light of the above, the researcher used a theoretical framework for public policy implementation as well as the ‘theory of change’ and ‘internalisation theory’ to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP in building safer communities.

1.5.2 Theory of change

Fullbright-Anderson, Kubisch and Connell (1998) briefly outline a ‘theory of change’ as “a systematic and cumulative study of the links between activities, outcomes and context of the initiative”. They maintain that a ‘theory of change’ pronounces “explicitly how a project”, plan, or “initiative is intended to achieve outcomes through actions”, while considering its framework. By using a theory of change approach, the researcher was able to articulate how expected outcomes of building safer communities by SAPS are achievable. The researcher explored the real-world setting of the implementation of the NDP vision of building safer communities in the SAPS. The ‘mental model’ was applied for the sake of development of a theory of change that is researcher-driven (Funnell & Rogers, 2011). Laing and Todd (2015:4) state that mental model “privileges the knowledge and experience of stakeholders, who have their own ideas about how things work”, in addition these stakeholders are promoted to convey their own ideas about how things work. Based on Laing’s and Todd’s (2015) theory of change approach, the researcher firstly looked at what the recent situation in terms of building safer communities was and why (starting situation) as well as what stakeholders were going to do about it (strand of action/intended inputs). Secondly, the researcher looked at what the stakeholders would need to do differently (intended outputs). Thirdly, the researcher looked at how the contemporary situation (starting situation) would change and how things would change for beneficiaries (steps of change/intended outcomes). Lastly, she drew up the *Safer Community Model for South Africa* and *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities*.

1.5.3 Internalisation theory

Scott (1971) maintains that internalisation aids people express “who they are and create their own identity and values within a society that has already created a norm set of values and practices for them”. Internalisation directs individuals to be open-minded to a set of standards and values that are created by society, groups, other individuals or entire organisation. Zittoun and Gillespie (2015) argue that the idea of internalisation is vital in cultural psychology and it places the essential process whereby culture turns out to be mindful as well as it starts to give reason for how the mind is able to produce culture. Therefore, the researcher used the ‘theory

of internalisation to determine the SAPS understanding and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities and how the SAPS is building this vision into its culture.

1.6 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

According to Morgan (2007:66), “pragmatism can serve as a philosophical programme for social research”. This section discusses the pragmatism paradigm that the study adopted as it attempted to answer research questions. It further focuses on research methodology. Chapter 5 deals with this.

1.6.1 Pragmatism paradigm

Morgan (2007:66) states that pragmatism deals with “how to define paradigms, whether those paradigms were incommensurate, and the extent to which metaphysical assumptions actually guide research in the social sciences”. He argues that instead of depending on the paradigm’s “limits on communication”, pragmatism emphasises generating “shared meanings and joint action” (Morgan (2007: 67). The researcher used the pragmatism paradigm to tackle the research problem. According to Shannon-Baker (2016: 321), “paradigms can help frame one’s approach to a research problem and offer suggestions for how to address it given certain beliefs about the world”. She sums paradigms up as “a guide that the researchers can use to ground their research”.

According to Doyle, Brady and Byrne (2009:175), “the philosophical underpinning of pragmatism allows and guides mixed methods researchers to use a variety of approaches to answer research questions that cannot be addressed using a singular method”. This argument asserts the fundamental acceptance that quantitative and qualitative methods are able to collectively be applied in the same study to ‘complement’ the benefits and shortcomings that exist respectively. Additionally, pragmatism utilises “transferability to consider the implications of research” (Shannon-Baker, 2016:326) and transferability permits researchers to “investigate the factors that affect whether the knowledge we gain can be transferred to other settings” (Morgan, 2007:72).

This study maintains that the best method is the one that solves the problem and that the simultaneous utilisation of a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is ideal for this research. Therefore, the researcher adopted the pragmatism paradigm to conduct this research. This paradigm provides “a workable solution to the complex research problem” that the study tries to address (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:17-18) and “alternative ways to answer the research questions” (Creswell, 2009:11-12). In the context of this study, the pragmatism paradigm was used to explore the implementation of the NDP in building safer communities.

1.6.2 Research design

Babbie and Mouton (2008:74) state that “researchers often confuse the concepts of research design and research methodology; therefore, these concepts necessitate clarification”. Zikmund, Babin and Griffin (2010:66) explain research design as “the master plan”; and Merriam (1998:6) relates it to “an architectural blueprint”. As stated by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009:46), research design is defined as “the overall plan according to which the respondents of a proposed study are selected, as well as the means of data collection or generation”. Babbie and Mouton (2008:74) outline research design as “a plan or blueprint to conduct the research”. Grover (2015:1) refers to research design as the “overall strategy that one [researcher] chooses to attack the problem” and it “constitutes data collection, measurement of data, analysis of data, interpretation, and reporting of conclusions”. Research design is classified in two categories, viz., quantitative and qualitative (Neuman, 2006:122). Quantitative and qualitative research differ in many ways, but they also complement each other in some ways. Hence the researcher used both.

1.6.3 Research methodology

Research methodology directs the research process and the type of instruments and techniques to be applied (Mouton, 2001:56). Research methodology is about the researcher’s overall technique or approach towards the research project (Babbie and Mouton, 2008:74). Crotty (1998:3) describes research methodology as “the strategies, plan of action, processes, or designs in the choice and implementation of specific methods, as well as the linking of the selection and implementation to achieve the desired aims”.

1.6.4 Research methods

Research methods are “the practices and techniques used to collect, process, and analyse the data” (Bowling, 1997:127). This study used the mixed-methods research design in answering the critical questions of the research. As stated by Fouché and Delport (2011:66), mixed-methods research “builds on both qualitative and quantitative research approaches”. Shannon-Baker (2016:319) understands mixed-methods research as a kind of study that is “philosophically grounded where an intentional mixture of both qualitative and quantitative approaches is used in a single research study”. In the study under review, quantitative and qualitative approaches were together used to answer the critical questions. The quantitative method was mainly used to analyse how the SAPS had translated the five priority areas of the NDP Chapter 12 to attain safer communities and to determine the SAPS understanding and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities. Qualitative methods were mainly used to analyse how the SAPS business units were aligning themselves with the NDP, the progress that the SAPS had made in achieving the NDP vision of safer communities; and the challenges the SAPS had experienced in implementing the NDP. The mixed-methods research design was employed, among others, to allow triangulation. This included the usage of manifold methods to study the research problem, i.e. methodological triangulations; the use of variety of data sources, i.e. data triangulation; and the use of multiple perspectives to interpret the results, i.e. theory triangulations (Greene, Caracelli, & Graham, 1989:259).

1.6.5 Qualitative approach

Qualitative research consist of an “interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter and investigates people in their natural environment” (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:3). Qualitative research is intending finding the “dynamic and changeable nature of reality by collecting subjective data, presented verbally by people in the form of language, and not numbers, as would be the case with quantitative research methods”(Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009:8-9). This study utilised qualitative research methods, in the form of a literature review, individual semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis together with the structured questionnaires (quantitative research approach), as part of the mixed-methods research design.

Availability of a sample of the study population promotes proper execution of research methodology. Goddard and Melville (2007:34) uphold that a population consist of a “set of entities in which all the measurements of interest to the practitioner or researcher are represented”. The researcher selected different subject matter experts in the study field as the study population for the qualitative phase of the research because of their role, expertise and interest in building safer communities. The study population of the qualitative phase included police officers, experts, academics, and communities. The following sections describe the four qualitative research methods that were used, namely the literature review, single public opinion question instrument, individual semi-structured interviews, and document analysis to collect data, explain how the study populations were sampled and the measurement instruments used, and how the statistical analysis was conducted and the reliability and validity of the research methods determined.

1.6.5.1 Literature review

As stated by Neuman (2000:445), a literature review is grounded in the theory that “knowledge accumulates and that we learn from and build on what others have done”. The purpose of the literature review, according to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:23), includes “sharpening and deepening the theoretical framework of the research; that is, to study the different theories related to the topic, taking an interdisciplinary perspective where possible and familiarising the researcher with the latest developments in the area of research, as well as in related areas as well as acquainting the researcher with the problems, hypotheses and results obtained by previous researchers and discovering new possibilities and observing objectively without preconceptions”.

1.6.5.2 Single public opinion question instrument

Research experience is the great teacher of innovation and creativity in research design and methodologies. As the researcher designed the research methods, this single public opinion question instrument came into being. This single public opinion question instrument opened up the first debates about the expectations of both communities and police towards building safer communities. The responses explore the SAPS interpretation of the five NDP priority

areas in building safer communities. It further determines the SAPS understanding, alignment and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities and the challenges facing SAPS in building safer communities.

The participants gave their views pertaining to the questions asked in writing. The researcher retyped all their responses as required for the qualitative data analysis. The responses were colour-coded, categorised, arranged into themes, and analysed and interpreted. Findings were made and used to formulate the questions for the individual semi-structured interviews instrument and the five-point Likert scale questionnaire instrument.

1.6.5.3 Individual semi-structured interviews

The study used individual semi-structured interviews with predetermined questions to collect data to allow generation of innovative ideas during the interviews to understand human behaviour (Koshy, 2005:92) and to gather thorough information of the participants' beliefs, knowledge, experiences and opinions (Anderson, 1998:190 and Patton, 2002:341). The undertaking of individual semi-structured interviews enhances reliability, complements other research methods and improves the quality, credibility, and integrity of research results. Moreover, the individual semi-structured interviews permitted the researcher to ask follow-up questions at appropriate opportunities during interviews. Interviewees could also put forth new ideas then – which could not be done during interviews with the fixed questions. Because of its flexibility, the individual semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to probe and the respondents to raise other pertinent matters not covered by the interview schedule. These interviews were conducted as follows:

a. Study population and sample. The non-probability random sampling method was used to sample the respondents. Judgmental or purposive sampling was used based on the researcher's judgment as to whom would provide the best information regarding the research objectives. Thirteen (13) participants were purposefully sampled based on their knowledge, expertise and interest in the research topic.

b. Data collection. Individual interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview schedule (qualitative part) that specified prearranged questions and arrangements for the interviewer. The advantage for the semi-structured interview is that it allows to probe, clarify and check questions. During interview, the interviewer has the chance and is at liberty to

change, rephrase, and even augment questions as per the responses from the interviewees (Argarwal, 2005:209). In ensuring that the responses were recorded and documented, a digital tape recorder was used to record the participants' responses, after obtaining their informed consent. In cases where a respondent was not available for a one-on-one interview, the questionnaire was emailed or hand delivered as per agreement with the participants during their recruitment to participate in this study. Some respondents returned the questionnaire responses by email and some were collected by the researcher.

c. Data analysis. The purpose of the qualitative data analysis was to classify themes, patterns, subjects and relationships, according to the stated research objectives. The qualitative data were analysed using colour coding; in the process creating sense and meaning of participants' opinions and views of various situations, corresponding patterns, themes, categories and regular similarities (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007:461) in order to transform data into findings (Patton, 2002:432).

1.6.5.4 Document analysis

Document analysis is part of qualitative research methodology and is “often used in combination with other qualitative research methods as means of triangulation” (Bowen, 2009:28). “Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents — both printed and electronic (computer-based and Internet-transmitted) material” (Bowen, 2009:27). Atkinson and Coffey (1997: 47) refer to documents as “social facts, which are produced, shared, and used in socially organised ways. The document analysis process “combines elements of content analysis and thematic analysis” (Bowen, 2009:32). Bowen describes “content analysis as the process of organising information into categories related to the central questions of the research” and thematic analysis according to Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, as cited by Bowen (2009,32), is “a form of pattern recognition within the data, with emerging themes becoming the categories for analysis. The process involves a careful, more focused re-reading and review of the data”. By exploring information gathered over various methods, the researcher validated findings through datasets and consequently reduced the effect of possible biases or prejudices that possibly would exist in a single method.

1.6.6 Quantitative approach

This study employed an empirical survey as research method for the quantitative section of the mixed-methods research design. The view of Best and Kahn (2006:269) and Neuman (2011:309) is that a survey is mainly appropriate in quantitative research for the purpose of “collecting data by means of a questionnaire from respondents about their views, judgments as well as past, current and future experiences foreseen”. Based on the context of the quantitative research phase of this study, the survey therefore presented the opportunity to find data regarding the understanding, internalisation, and implementation of the five priority areas towards safer communities. This section presents the quantitative research method.

1.6.6.1 Closed-ended (structured) questionnaire

Closed-ended questions probe questions and provide respondents predetermined fixed responses from which to select (Neuman (2000:260). The researcher had interest in determining the degree to which the respondents had certain attitudes and perspective in terms of the SAPS implementation of the NDP to build safer communities. The respondents were asked to select an answer [the statement] from among the list provided by the researcher (Babbie & Mouton, 2008: 233).

1.6.6.2 Study population and sample

Purposive sampling was implemented for this research as SAPS members at the chosen provinces and police stations were accepted as the study population to analyse their views and tendencies regarding the SAPS understanding, internalisation, and implementation of the NDP in building safer communities (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:236).

1.6.6.3 Measurement instrument

This study used the five-point Likert scale for closed-ended questions. According to Neuman (2000:207), “Likert scale is used in research in which people express the attitudes or other responses in terms of ordinal – level categories that are ranked along a continuum” and “usually ask the respondents if they agree or disagree with the statement”. This study used the Likert

scale to “enable scores of either low or high values to represent the extent of the knowledge, opinion, judgment and experience of the respondents” (Anderson, 2004:111; Neuman, 2011:226) with regard to how the SAPS has translated the five priority areas of the NDP Chapter 12 in building safer communities and to determine the SAPS understanding and internalisation of the NDP vision of building safer communities.

1.6.6.4 Statistical analysis

The service of the independent Statistical Consultancy was acquired to purify, analyse and interpret the data. For the purpose of quantitative interpretation, the collected data from the questionnaire were captured on an Excel spreadsheet and were statistically converted by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software programs to find correlated scores. The data from the questionnaire were statistically converted to frequencies to signify a specific statistical point of the responses.

1.6.6.5 Reliability

In simplifying the term ‘reliability’, Delport and Roestenburg (2011b:177) simply state that “reliability deals with what is being measured”. Salkind (2012:115) refer to terms such as “dependable, consistent, stable, trustworthy, predictable and faithful” as substitute terms for reliability. As maintained by Muijs (2011:61), “whenever researchers want to measure something, there is some element of error” and this element of error refers to it as measurement error. Therefore, reliability then is the degree to which test scores are free of measurement error. The reliability of the study was enhanced through many ways, including the pilot test that was conducted at one police station in Gauteng using a pool of 15 participants, and the use of multiple methods to study the research problem (methodological triangulations) various data sources (data triangulation); and multiple perspectives to interpret the results (theory triangulations). According to Zulu (2001: 78), the reliability of the questionnaire should be confirmed by means of the pilot study as well as complete re-test to test the responses remains consistent.

1.6.6.6 Validity

According to Singh (2007:77), validity refers to “the extent to which an empirical measure accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure and measuring what is supposed to be measured”. Anastasi and Urbina (1997:113) add that validity refers to “the extent to which the yielding scores reflect the true variables being measured, that is to say, how well the test measures the validity, and whether it measures what it is supposed to measure”. The quantitative questionnaire themes and items were constructed in terms of the theoretical framework, thus supported the content validity of the measuring instrument. The representivity and sampling of the instrument content were linked to the theoretical and conceptual perspectives on building safer communities. Face validity, as stated by Churchill and Iacobucci (2005:257), refers to “the relationship [similarities/correlation] between the researcher’s description of concepts and his/her description of the categories measured”. Each statement on the measurement instrument had a logical link with the building safer communities’ concept as per the NDP. Construct validity bears relation to “the assumptions underpinned by the theory relevant to the concept” (Thomas, Nelson & Silverman, 2011:197). The questionnaire themes and items were hence designed and developed in configuration with the theory underpinning building safer communities.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:99) state that “the external validity of a research study is the extent to which its results apply to the situations beyond the research itself, i.e., the extent to which the conclusions drawn can be generalised to other contexts”. Selection of the 10 high-crime weight police stations from the top 30 police stations on murder per province optimised external validity of this research. These stations are functioning in particularly challenging situations, therefore, there is high probability that the conclusions drawn from them can be generalised and transferred to other police stations in SA. The implications of results gained from and theory based on the sampled police stations have the probability of replica factor to other stations of the same setup and settings, size, community dynamics and other variables.

1.7 ETHICAL ASPECTS

Mouton (2001:238) refers to the ethics of science as “what is wrong and what is right when conducting research”. According to Gratton and Jones (2010:121), regardless of research

designs, selection of methods and the form of sampling, all researchers are subjected to ethical considerations. Considering the ethical implications of this study, the researcher made certain that:

- a. Suitable informed consent was provided.
- b. Opportunity to withdraw was stated.
- c. Opportunity to retain data was stated.
- d. Participants were informed about receiving feedback about the study results.
- e. Appropriate support was available to participants, where necessary.
- f. Participants' responses were kept anonymous/confidential.
- g. Approval to conduct the study was obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Ethics Committee.
- h. Funding sources obtained were disclosed (Treloar, Champness, Simpson & Higginbotham, 2000:348).
- i. Based on the ethical guidelines provided by Zulu (2001: 80), Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:375) and Bak (2008:28-29) the researcher adhered to the ethical aspects in this research as stated below:
 - Submitting of a prescribed application to UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee for approval to conduct the research.
 - Obtaining consent and approval for conducting the research in the SAPS.
 - A written statement in the covering letter and on the questionnaires guaranteed the right to privacy and confidentiality.
 - Participants were issued with a consent form.
 - Participants were not exposed to any risk of stress, discomfiture or loss of self-esteem.
 - The research was conducted in line with the ethical requirement to report the findings in a comprehensive and honest way.

The researcher additionally safeguarded the participants' human rights and respected participants. She honoured the participants' anonymity and confidentiality and dishonesty was

avoided. The aim and objectives of the research were cleared to all participated. The participants were made aware that involvement and participation was voluntary and that there was no payment or stipend for participating. The researcher supplied pens for participants to complete the questionnaire and reimbursed airtime used. Furthermore, the researcher minimised interruptions and intrusion into the work hours of participants.

1.8 STUDY TIME FRAME

The theoretical research for this study was conducted during 2018 and 2019, during which time a model was developed for the quantitative study that spanned 2019 and 2020. The Covid-19 pandemic lead to the announcement of a state of disaster and lock-down in March 2020 in South Africa. The social distancing and other measures impacted on the interview process. The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on the crime levels in SA and the perception of safety within the community falls outside the scope of this study, with most of the research conducted and information gathered by questionnaire and interviews before the pandemic itself hit the country.

1.9 CHAPTER OUTLINE

Chapter 1 deals with the background to the study, the research problem statement, the justification of the study, and research aims, objectives, and questions. Fundamental concepts such as the SAPS, community, building safer communities and the NDP are clarified in the context of this study. Theoretical approaches of the study and research paradigm are introduced. The research methodology and ethical considerations are explained.

Chapter 2 outlines aspects that influenced the constructing of the public policies and refers to the NDP and how it is implemented. It further details the policy development and implementation conceptual framework of building safer communities in SA and the contemporary challenges confronting building safer communities in the context of this implementation.

Chapter 3 provides the theory of policy trajectory in tracking the will and ability of the South African government to build a safer community. This policy trajectory theory is concerned with the evolution of policies over time and space in building such a community.

Chapter 4 provides the theoretical and conceptual perspectives in building safer communities. It focuses on local, region, continent, and international theoretical frameworks for building safer communities. It contextualises the building safer communities' concept through the review of the integrated approach to building community safety, strengthening the CJS, and building a professional police service. It reviews the approach to address social and root causes of crime and crime-combatting through achieving safer communities and multi-sectorial crime prevention as well as cross-sectorial cooperation between government and non-government actors.

Chapter 5 focuses on research approaches and methodology. It explains and describes the research design and methodology. It includes a discussion of the techniques and processes used for data collection, including the sampling procedure applied.

Chapter 6 captures the data from the single public opinion instrument and presents, analyses and discusses the findings. The research conducted was qualitative and the research participants were police and community members.

Chapter 7 deals with the thematic analysis of the findings on the basis of empirical data gathered through quantitative research approach. Triangulation is drawn between the qualitative research findings and quantitative research findings.

Chapter 8 is an analysis and discussion of findings in relation to translation of Chapter 12 of the NDP's five priority areas. It discusses issues, such as what happened after the NDP had been endorsed, with the aim of tracking the challenges contributing to the lack of safety of the community, what affects the achievement of the objectives of building safer communities, and makes deductions on building blocks towards achieving a model of safer communities for SA. It further discusses and analyses critical variables influencing and shaping the direction of the NDP implementation of safer communities. Participants' views about the progress made in achieving effectivity of NDP implementation are also explored and discussed.

Chapter 9 draws together the conclusions of the preceding chapters and derives from them suggestions and recommendations for building safer communities in SA. This chapter further proposes the *Safer Community Model for South Africa* and a *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities*.

CHAPTER TWO

PUBLIC POLICY IMPLEMENTATION AND THEORY OF CHANGE AND INTERNALISATION AS CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Spohr and Erkens (2015:8), public policy “represents a decision, made by a publicly elected or designated body, which is deemed to be in the public interest”. They further maintain that policy states “the intentions of an institution, and is used to guide its decisions, outlining desired goals it seeks to achieve that are considered to be in the best interest of society”. In simply terms, policy positions the approaches and standards organisations would use to attain the desired goals. Therefore, it gives direction on how should public concerns be tackled and framework to direct government decisions for example legislation and budget and ensure that the government is working toward a mutual goal. According to Spohr and Erkens, 2015:8, “while a major aspect of public policy is law, they are separate concepts with distinct functions. Although policy is not a law, law should be guided by current government policy, and it will often identify laws needed to achieve its goals”.

“Laws set out formal standards, procedures, and principles that should be followed” (Spohr & Erkens, 2015:8). Therefore, laws are created to bring order, justice and equity in the public. Spohr and Erkens (2015:8) further explain that “laws are an enforced judicial system, and help regulate the actions of members of society. Hence, if a law is not followed, those responsible for breaking it can be prosecuted in court”. As a result, although policy directs aims and strategic actions of an organisation, it might be essential for government to enact a law to facilitate the fundamental institutional and legal frameworks for policy to realise its goals and objectives.

The success of public policy is evaluated on its ability to address the majority of the needs of communities. In SA after 1994 numerous regulatory frameworks were developed to realise the aspirations of the democratic government for the community needs to be met. Attending to the relationship between policy objectives and policy implementation is the main thrust of this chapter. Although comprehensive frameworks with carefully considered policies exist, the outcomes are eventually determined by how best such policies are executed. It is immaterial to

have brilliant policy document in “theory” if there is no proper implementation as the envisioned outcome would not be accomplished. This chapter explains what happens during a process of policy development and implementation in the South African setting.

2.2 NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION 2030 AS PUBLIC POLICY

According to Roux (2002:418-436), the following phases are crucial in policy development, namely, (i) intended beneficiaries’ needs identification, (ii) collection of essential information to help in decision-making, (iii) evaluation of best options to solve the problem, (iv) analysis of transformational processes and inputs that are influential on the public policy formulation, and (v) determination of the intents of particular policy content.

Normally public policy is intended to address societal concerns. The discussions around description of public policy recognise that for consideration of policy to be ‘public policy’, it should, to a certain degree, assist to guide government to make decision. Based on the discussions of the definitions of policy development above it could be deducted that policy formulation is intended to fulfil a specific group’s needs. Further it indicates a need for an action plans and strategies to implement the measures and intentions for appraising its influence. The overall strategies and plans supportive of the implementation of policy should address the desired objectives and the procedures to be persuaded to accomplish them in a way that would bear the stakeholders’ commitment. In order to enforce the implementation of strategies in line with the policy, the presentation of the policy ought to be in the state of a report or directive to give direction. In the case of the NDP Chapter 12, which deals with achieving the vision of feeling safe, having no fear of crime and achieving a crime-free SA by 2030, the CJS should be strengthened, a professionalised police service should be created, the police service should be demilitarised; an integrated approach in dealing with the causes of crime (partnership policing) should be developed; and community participation in community safety (community policing) should be established (Government of SA, 2012: 350).

In this study the NDP, Vision 2030 is understood as public policy that is a broad guideline that South Africa is pursuing to address certain or sets of challenges in order to bring uniformity in decision-making and improve the lives of communities and people. The sets of standards and principles of the NDP ought to be translated into quantifiable actions that would attend to the

challenges and needs of the South African and global communities. It is alongside this context this study focuses on the NDP, Chapter 12 implementation.

2.3 PUBLIC POLICY DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

The success of a policy development process is highly dependent upon capacity. Booysen and Erasmus, as cited by Venter (1998:221), maintain that a process of policy-construction incorporates numerous “consecutive, interconnected sets of activities”. Researchers add that this process includes knowing the resources and role-players to be used in policy-construction. Dunn (1994:15-18) advocates a shared framework applied to define policy development process – he gives five phases, beginning with agenda-setting to evaluation of policy.

Cloete, Wissink and De Coning (2006) distinguish between the “policy content” and development “process dynamic”. They state that improving the policy-formation and establishing enhanced policies which guide the substance of discrete policies can improve the policy development. This sequentially includes the application of policy analysis and paying attention to “process and organisation” that helps entire policy development.

Cloete *et al.* (2006) elaborate on a “process model”, that is held as illustrative of the global experience of formulating a policy. A “process model” displays that the phases of policy development which include “agenda-setting, policy formulation, policy adoption, policy implementation, and policy assessment” are equally common. Cloete *et al.* (2006) state that the policy analysis process is a sequence of “intellectual activities” undertaken within a set of actions which are fundamentally political. Dye (1998) proposes that “process models” possibly could be used (i) to direct investigation into public policy, (ii) to propose justifications for policy-decisions, and (iii) to clarify the thinking regarding public policy. Dunn (1994:15-16) identifies stages directly above as representing continuing actions which happen over time.

Policy-making process enables tracing of policy performance from the inception of the idea to the stage of policy implementation as an end-product. The development of the NDP followed the same process of policy-making and is in line with the five stages discussed above.

This study views the NDP as the ‘public policy’ guiding SA forward.

2.4 PUBLIC POLICY-MAKING THEORIES AND MODELS

According to Mthethwa (2014:19), public policy-making process and implementation “cannot be isolated from theories and models”. He advocates a shared relationship between models and theories. Models and theories are respectively discussed under section 2.4.1 and 2.4.2 below.

2.4.1 Public policy theories

Theories are “systematic, consistent, and reliable explanation and prediction of relationships among specific variables built on various concepts” (De Coning & Cloete, 2006:33). De Coning and Cloete (2006:29) affirm that “the theories that inform the public policy process emerge from general society and are subject to legally instituted bodies”. Hyman, Brudger, Shingler and Van Loon (2001:90) concur that “normative beliefs in a society are foundations for public policies”. Therefore, Robichau and Lynn (2009:21) assert that the “public policy theories strive to establish a relationship between public policy-making, its implementation and its consequences”. This in summary indicates that theories on public policy-construction process assist in defining in what way public policy development and implementation emerge. It further advocates the significance of relationship between development of public policy and necessity to ascertain the projected outcome.

Howlett and Ramesh (2003:14) contend that “theories have their own flaws and weaknesses”. In a nutshell this suggests that every theory has benefits and shortcomings and as a result the process of formulation of public cannot be confined in single theory. Schofield and Sausman (2004:239) claim that “there is a need for better theories”. They maintain that there is a need to review the impact of theories on the process of development of public policy. Such theories are key as they have an effect on the manner the public policy design influences public policy implementation.

According to Gumede (2008:11), “South Africa’s post-1994 system of transformation is a trajectory of redress, reconciliation, nation-building, reconstruction, redistribution, and growth and are all embodied in the public policy making processes”. This put forward the translation and shaping of public policies into achievable programmes. De Coning and Cloete (2006:29) determine that “public policy-making has been closely associated with public policy-shaping

theories”. They add that theories shaping public policy-formulation remain supported by a number of ideologies, such as the welfare state, socialism and the classical capitalist approach. This suggests that it is important to understand these various ideologies and to link them to public policy implementation.

De Coning and Cloete (2006:29) outline the welfare state as “the promotion of the well-being of citizens, spiritually and materially, and provision of opportunities for development in life”. The NDP strives to promote the well-being of South African citizens. In defining the capitalist approach, Hirano (2005:27) links it to an “economic and social system in which the means of production are privately controlled, labour, goods and capital are in a market, profits are distributed to owners or invested in recent technologies, and wages are paid to labourers”. Motabeng (2004:02) links socialism to theories of economic organisations that advocate “public or direct worker ownership and administration of the means of production and allocation of resources characterised by equal access for all”.

It is clear from the definitions of the capitalist approach, socialism, and welfare state ideologies that such ideologies influence thinking that shape public policy. It is also clear that it is imperative to comprehend and appreciate these ideologies as they are the foundation for theories that shape and influence public policy. Therefore, it is vital to link the broad understanding of such theories to that of public policy to comprehend what it takes to implement public policy such as the NDP.

Planning is an integral part of public policy implementation. In order to determine how the SAPS was implementing the NDP in building safer communities, it was essential for the researcher to enhance understanding on the theory of planning that underpinned the existing SAPS implementation model for the NDP. To understand the NDP implementation, the planning theory and the implementation approaches are discussed below.

2.4.2 Public policy models

Public policy theories are defined in distinct models to describe how the relationships among variables should happen. These models have implications for effective public policy implementation. De Coning and Cloete (2006:28) define a model as a “representation of a more complex reality that has been oversimplified in order to describe and explain the relationships among variables and sometimes prescribe how something should happen”. The emphasis on models in this study is in accordance with the study objective that aimed at analysing how the SAPS business units are aligning themselves to the NDP vision of building safer communities through a basic form of public policy implementation process. Therefore, discussion on public policy models is vital since public policy implementation, which is the NDP in this case, is central to this study. According to Fox, Bayat and Ferreira (2006:11:13), “models influencing public policies could be descriptive and/or prescriptive by nature”. In addition, they explain that descriptive models look at the “public policy-making process” whereas prescriptive models define “public policy options”.

De Coning and Cloete (2006:36) view descriptive models of public policies as “capable of analysing the public policy processes” regarding “who is involved”, “how is involved” and “why is involved”. These advocate the integration of the implementation process. Furthermore, they indicate that “public policy implementation” remains connected to “all public policy processes”. Prescriptive models, according to Fox *et al.* (2006:13), affect making of decision on public policies that must be followed in “determining public policy impact and eliminating negative consequences before, during or after public policy implementation”. Cloete *et al.* (2006:33) assert that prescriptive models concentrate on “analyses of approaches” aimed at establishing the best suitable “public policy options”.

2.5 IMPORTANCE OF DESCRIPTIVE AND PRESCRIPTIVE MODELS IN PUBLIC POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

An objective of this study is identifying and analysing the challenges experienced by the SAPS in implementing the NDP’s five priority areas in building safer communities. Enhanced comprehension of fundamental models, and mainly their impact on public policy implementation, would add to the analysis of facets of the process of development of public

policy. This will result in public policy implementation. The implications of descriptive and prescriptive kinds of models on public policy implementation are respectively discussed below.

2.5.1 Implication of descriptive models on public policy implementation

Fox *et al.* (2006:12) uphold that an “elite group is responsible for public policy-making which, in turn, is dictated to the masses”. Descriptive models have effect on public policies. There is a need for the role-players and stakeholders to actively participate on the implementation of public policy. Cloete *et al.* (2006:38) assert that wherever there are “interest groups”, implementation of public policy bid to “address the needs and interests of a specific dominant group”. Implementation of public policy may possibly be “accommodative of all groups” wherever there is none existence of dominant group but “an equally balanced influence”. Public policy implementation suggests certain influence from numerous interest groups, such as human rights, political, spiritual and religious groups. The obvious or covert influence of various interest groups eases public policy implementation. The collaborative and consultation approach symbolises descriptive models and can be implemented in establishment of the challenges and effectiveness of NDP implementation in building safer communities.

2.5.1.1 Public policy implementation maturity model

The collaborative and consultation approach in the public policy implementation embraces maturity levels which are fundamental in public policy implementation maturity model. According to Makhalemele (2007:176), “the implementation maturity model equals an institution’s potential for growth in capability and capacity to implement public policies”. Prier, C’Saki and McCue (2011:3684) argue that “the implementation maturity model is the process of enabled interaction of the institution’s stakeholders (also referred to as actors in this study) in the quest to achieve pre-set objectives of the implemented public policy”. In this study, the public policy implementation maturity model is defined as the capability of the organisation, the SAPS, to totally collaborate resources to implement the NDP to build safer communities.

Makhalemele (2007:177) ascertains and describes “five levels or stages of the implementation maturity model”. As stated by Barret (2004:250), “at the first level of the implementation maturity model, the institution lacks internal structures for the effective implementation of

public policies and it is also characterised by inefficiency, absence of institutional goals and poor communication between public policy implementers”. This certainly shows a level suggesting that “actors are immature, inexperienced and in need of support and guidance regarding public policy implementation” (Barret, 2004:251). According to Makhalemele (2007:177), at the second level of the implementation maturity level, “implementation activities are premised on the results of the successful implementation of previous policies”.

Croom and Brandon-Jones (2009:76) assert that at the third level of the implementation maturity model, “the implementation activities are co-ordinated and documented”. Prier *et al.* (2011:3687) stresses that the public policy implementation pursues distinct “institutional goals and the execution for each public policy remains directed through “operational standards”. At the fourth level of the implementation maturity model, according to Makhalemele (2007:178), the “implementation process is managed and supervised to such an extent that the institution, at this level, has developed rules and conditions under which public policies are implemented”.. Barret (2004:254) confirms that the fifth level is continuously improving the implementation processes.

2.5.2 Implication of prescriptive models in public policy implementation

Ijeoma (2008:102) indicates that with the “prescriptive models being central to public policy-making and implementation”, the subsequent conditions are vital to the public policy process: (i) Identification of public policy problem. (ii) Ascertainment and definition of a solution to the problem. (iii) Projection and selection of alternative solutions to the problem; (iv) Comparison of alternative solutions to the problems in relation to the effect to ascertainment of respective goals. (v) Choice of an alternative solution to the problem that maximises the attainment of goals.

These above mentioned conditions by Ijeoma (2008) are significant in public policy implementation. Ijeoma (2008:103) ascertains the characteristics of a prescriptive model, which influence public policy-making and implementation. These characteristics include: (i) economic rationality which compares “costs and benefits” in relation to public policy implementation; (ii) legal rationality, which promotes compliance of public policy implementation with the related legislation; (iii) social rationality, which advances and

embraces democratic participation and approaches; and (iv) substantive rationality, which evaluate the effectiveness of the public policy implementation. These characteristics emphasise the impact of prescriptive models on the public policy implementation and highlight factors shaping public policy implementation.

2.6 STAGES OF PUBLIC POLICY PROCESS

De Leon and De Leon (2002:471) argue about different interlinked stages of the public policy process, while Fox *et al.* (2006:51) argue about grouping of interrelated action-determining events for public policy process. The implementation of NDP which is central in this study, constitutes some of these inter-connected stages or components of public policy. This interconnectedness of public policy implementation is essential in identifying what public policy contains and existing challenges in executing public strategies, policies and guidelines. Therefore, concentrating on all stages implies an informed comprehension – which this study seeks to advance – of public policy and its implementation challenges. For this reason, this study investigates NDP implementation and related public policies, strategies and guidelines.

2.6.1 Dunn's stage model

Dunn's stage model describes and simplifies the form of a public policy process. Cloete *et al.* (2006:48) maintain that Dunn's stage model comprises the following stages or phases: structuring of problem – aligned with agenda-setting, stage of forecasting – aligned with public formulation of policy, recommendation – aligned with adoption of public policy, monitoring – aligned with implementation of public policy, and evaluation – aligned with assessment of public policy. However, Dunn's stage model lacks feedback stage which is a critical key component of public policy process.

2.6.2 Wissink's stage model

Wissink's policy stage model is regarded as the best alternative public policy stage model developed in SA affirming the South African viewpoint on public policy process (Fox *et al.*, 2006:53). Wissink's public policy stage model tries to embrace different aspects of a public

policy process. These aspects include: **initiation** - associated with awareness on a public policy issue, **setting agenda** - associated with placement of the issue on an agenda of public policy-making, **processing the issue** – associated with identification main problem and major actors, **considering the options** – associated with process of identification of alternative forms of action to address the issue, **making the choice** - associated with selection of alternative forms of action, **publication** - associated with information dissemination, **allocation of resources** - associated with selection of resources required to implement to policy, **implementation** - associated with programmes rollout, **adjudication** - associated with public policy enforcement, **impact evaluation** - associated with value assessment of public policy, and feedback - associated with compilation and issuing of reports to decision-makers. The importance of Wissink's public policy stage model is its capability to effect policy information in any direction of the policy process. This study would confined equally to Dunn's and Wissink's models.

2.6.3 Relationship of NDP to Dunn's and Wissink's stage models

Respectively Dunn's and Wissink's models agree that for the establishment of the form of a public policy process, the public policy cycle encompassing public policy such as setting agenda; policy formulation; policy adoption; policy implementation; policy monitoring; policy evaluation; and providing feedback should be followed. The abovementioned public policy cycle coincides with the public policy cycle that Colebatch (2002:50) has recognised. It encompasses "identifying the policy problem, agenda-setting, identifying alternative solutions to the problem, choosing the most feasible alternative, implementing that alternative, and evaluating the impact of the public policy". The mentioned forms of public policy cycles signify the process of public policy and therefore, the conclusion can be drawn that that these forms of public policy cycle cover implementation of public policy; which is the aim of this particular study.

Public policy implementation occurs in collaboration rather than in isolation. The dialogue on the stages of public policy reveals that all public policy stages collaborate on public policy implementation. Unpacking all public policy stages increases the appreciation of what public policy mainly involves and how implementation of public policy is linked to others phases of public policy. Such unpacking promotes insight into how the objectives of the study will be

realised. Moreover, discussing them assists in establishing how the implementation of the NDP ought to have evolved, and in what way it is connected to different stages of public policy. Furthermore, it shows the types of challenges the NDP implementation presents to the SAPS. The stage processes of Wissink's and Dunn's models are collectively reviewed under seven subsequent sub-headings.

2.6.3.1 Agenda-setting of public policy

Hanekom (1991:52) stresses the importance of information availability of the social needs in problem identification. At this stage is problems and possible problems demanding consideration of policy-makers and have generated sufficient attention to warrant further action. Setting agenda of public policy embroils finding an outline of concerns and problems and identifying priorities for action (Berger, 2001:91). The problems and concerns should be prioritised and actioned. They are then integrated into the public policy agenda and should generally conform to certain aspects, which usually influence public policy agenda-setting. For that reason, public policy implementation aims to respond to the set agenda as influenced by certain aspects.

2.6.3.2 Formulation of public policy

This stage encompasses the process of identifying problem, generating and analysing data and information and eventually making a decision (Cloete and Wissink, 2000:47). This phase looks at how public policy is formulated and who formulates it, where the initiative originates. In addition, this stage focuses on the mechanisms and instruments to solve the problem. Hanekom (1991:52) underscores the importance of appointed public officials in driving the policy formulation stage. In addition, cost drivers, benefits and viability to participate are also main drivers of policy formulation stage of public policy (Van Niekerk, Van Der Waldt & Jonker, 2001). The public policy design stage is critical and it occurs during this phase. Roux (2006:126) links public policy design to development of policy content, transformation of financial and intellectual resources into a master plan.

The phases that are essential of formulation of public policy include defining a problem, setting the public policy goals, identifying target population, costing public policy, and measuring

benefits (James and Jorgensen, 2009:150). They add that public policy construction ought to clear up who receives what, why and how. Certainly, this defines the degree of public policy legality as well as limits in terms of involvements on public policy formulation and type of benefits the public policy should bring. The variety of actors participating in the process of public policy formulation contributes to legitimacy of public policy. The legitimacy of public formulation of policy formulation contributes to the positive effects on public policy adoption and execution.

2.6.3.3 Adoption of public policy

The process of public policy process involves decision making stage on the public policy that must be followed. This is a public policy decision-making phase and during this phase adoption of policy alternative is legitimatised. Public policy decision-making includes identifying and anticipating opportunities (Fox *et al.*, 2006:54). This is an indication that legitimate decision-making is significant and important in the public policy process. Brynard (2005:168) affirms that during the reflection on a decision of adoption of public policy, the public policy process should include problem identification, alternatives development and analysis, and the best alternative selection. Bernard's affirmation advocates actors' participation in the process of public policy for the detection of best alternatives in implementing a public policy. Therefore, the thoughtful reflection on a decision of adoption of public policy is important in selecting the best alternative and subsequently successful execution of public policy. This means that the realisation of adoption of public policy leads to the public policy implementation process.

2.6.3.4 Implementation of public policy

The implementation of public policy, which is the NDP Vision 2030, is the primary focus of this study. The effectiveness in building safer communities in SA revolves around the effectiveness of the NDP implementation process. Public policy implementation is not an easy task. It is an overly complex and demanding process. In the same vein, implementation of the NDP cannot be taken for granted as a straightforward process to realise its success. The study establishes what public policy, which is the NDP in this case, demands, and what challenges are existing in implementing it, solely focusing on Chapter 12 of the NDP.

Policy implementation is generally the stage where the activities take place in the light of an established plan. This is the stage of directives issuing and enforcing, resources allocation and distribution, and personnel recruitment, training and development. The process of policy implementation includes the process of utilising human resources to transform the financial resources, physical resources, and information technology (Cloete, *et al.* 2006). Therefore, the policy implementation phase should cater for activities, such as providing human resources, funds and material to ensure the realisation of policy intentions.

Authors and researchers state implementation of policy includes coordination, planning, organising, communicating, recruitment, and executing. The implementation of the policy embraces policy setting up and policy significance to affected people by the policy. It pays attention to what and how should it be done. The main focus of public policy implementation by government is improvement of peoples' lives. Therefore policy transforms and impact on the lives of the people in a better way. Government uses and implements various policy tools, such as legislation, regulations, programmes, grants, taxes, subsidies, and policies, to transform the lives of the communities.

The public policy process is a complex process including various role-players and stages (Fox *et.al.* 2006:108). The study under review focused on phase four of public policy process, i.e. public policy implementation. The implementation of public policy phase set a plan in motion. Therefore, this study perceived the implementation of public policy to be the translation of the NDP Chapter 12 into actionable and workable strategies that seek to achieve the pre-set five priority objectives. In light of this, the NDP Chapter 12 implementation suggests the accomplishment of policing, safety and security-interrelated public policies through proper planning, organising, coordination and programming of projects and operation to achieve the vision of building safer communities. Fox *et al.* (2006:58) connect public policy implementation to resource utilisation such as human capital, physical and financial resources and designed programmes to achievement of public policy objectives. This study focuses on effective utilisation of resources in achieving the theory of the NDP of building safer communities.

The implementation of public policy is mostly important aspect of the public policy cycle. However, this aspect is regularly under-provided for and overlooked. To action public policy

includes accessibility, involvement and availability of relevant tangible and intangible resources to lead and enforce the implementation of public policy. According to Schofield (2001:254), public policy implementation is more about changing public policy into action. Correspondingly, Van Niekerk *et al.* (2001:96) state that implementation of public policy involves the translation of decisions into workable actions and production of planned outcome. In addition, it includes achieving public policy objectives through transformation of human, financial and physical resources into tangible service delivery (Brynard & De Coning, 2006:183).

Public policy implementation's requirements include proper planning and execution as well as leadership role and management perspective in achieving the goals of the policy. This implies for public policy implementation to be successful, visionary, competent and service delivery driven management and leadership are paramount important. It is therefore essential to take cognisance of who will drive the implementation of public policy in any organisation and if the appointed accounting authorities have the management and leadership capacity, vision and necessary skills. In the context of identifying and addressing challenges around the public policy implementation process, monitoring of public policy is vital.

2.6.3.5 Monitoring of public policy

Monitoring of public policy is important in establishing how the public policies implemented achieve their intended objectives. Public policy monitoring directs, guides, shapes and influences the process of implementation for achievement of the predetermined objectives and goals (Cloete, 2009). Ordinarily, to achieve the predetermined objectives and goals, monitoring should be ongoing, collaborated and continuously allow role-players and stakeholders and other actors to provide input in the process in terms of demands and supports. Authors and researchers supports monitoring of public policies through combined efforts of both public and private role-players. The combined public and private role-players should monitor the extent to which the executed public policy meets the public policy objectives as predetermined. Collaborated monitoring widens the reporting and feedback scope on monitoring challenges while public implementation process continues. To effectively try to tackle the question about whether the public policy objectives are accomplished or not during implementation stage, the evaluation stage of the public policy process remains important.

2.6.3.6 Evaluation of public policy

The effectiveness, feasibility and impact of the public policy implementation are amongst the main aspects that are assessed during public policy evaluation process (Van Niekerk *et al.* 2001:98). Public policy evaluation measures the impact of the public policy implementation focussing mainly on how a public policy meets its objectives. In conceptualising policy evaluation, Howlett and Ramesh (2003) links policy evaluation stage of the policy process to determination of how a public policy has actual performed in action.

Although there is no universal and fixed criteria for policy evaluation, policy can fail based on different explanations such as substantive failures, spectacular failures, and procedural failures. Cloete *et al.* (2006) views public policy evaluation as a process that adjudicates the achievement of public policy objectives in line with projected outcomes and the impact thereof. At this stage, the impact of public policy in delivering the desired outcome is assessed. Therefore, the measurement of the success of public policy is based on how it is implemented and its outcome (Pelser and Louw, 2002:1). However, this study did not directly evaluate the implementation of the NDP, but sought to monitor its implementation. Cloete (2006:248) concurs with Van Dijk (2005:204) and adds that public policy is evaluated to measure progress towards the achievement of such policy, enhance public relations, implement or redesign strategies, ensure accountability and learn lessons from the programme for future public policy improvement. The above-mentioned criteria is utilised by the study to establish the effectiveness of NDP implementation.

The above-mentioned principles are used as standard measurements to assist to establish the success of implemented public policy. The following discussion is on the feedback stage of the public policy process.

2.6.3.7 Feedback

Du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk, van der Walddt, and Doyle (2002:107) stress the importance of giving feedback public policy implementation. Amongst many others, information-sharing sessions, openness, consultation, transparency, assessment, growth, and development, are generally inspired by giving feedback. Makhalemele (2007:142) confirms the importance of

sharing the actual outcomes of the implemented public policy with the community and other critical role-players. Through providing feedback, the value of the executed as well as evaluated public policy is promoted. Moreover, providing feedback enhances continuous engagement with the affected parties, role-players and stakeholders. Feedback assist to communicate the shortcomings that were identified in public policy process and how in future can be circumvented. Feedback guides and directs future training and development interventions.

2.7 ACTORS INVOLVED IN PUBLIC POLICY PROCESS

From the discussion it is evident that the success of public policy implementation is dependent to active involvement, accessibility and availability of various actors and implementers. Stakeholders and managers who function and act at strategic level constitute strategic actors. Their responsibilities include formulation of goals that they wish to achieve, and actual implementation of plans that seek to achieve these goals. Involvement of actors contributes to effective utilisation of resources towards common goal (Ijeoma, 2008:106). Roux (2005:83) concur with Ijeoma (2008) and adds that involvement of the actors is dependent to the stage of the public policy process and the actors include socio-economic levels, diverse backgrounds, and geographic regions.

2.8 REASONS FOR POLICY IMPLEMENTATION FAILURE

Researchers, scholars, actors and implementers of policies argue that policies fail due to various reasons, which include lacking funds and capacity for implementation, poorly designed and formulated policies, lack of resources and inexperienced staff, limitations on public policy evaluations, limiting religious and socio-cultural factors, absence of political and leadership commitment to drive public policy implementation, weak governance, existence of political related struggles in governments, as well as lack of public-private partnerships to assist with implementation of government policies.

For the success of policy implementation, Brynard (2005) argues there are certain factors that need consideration and subsequently to be accommodated. These factors include: approaches

and assumptions to policy implementation, contexts of developed countries, and lack of consideration and appreciation of the unique environmental, social, historical, economic and political situational factors of various countries outside the regions. These factors hamper successful implementation of policy across the board as desired, leading to policy implementation failure outside the regions (Brynard, 2005). Dunn's and Wissink's models are discussed in demonstrating that successful implementation of policies is possible, should all the factors be considered and accommodated.

2.9 THEORY OF CHANGE AS THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theory of change (ToC) approach is used in this study. Laing and Todd (2015:3) describes the ToC as a theory-based approach in the direction of planning, executing and evaluating change at community, organisational or individual levels. Reisman, Gienapp and Stachowiak (2007) refer to ToC as an engine of change, a roadmap, a theory of action and a blueprint. The ToC clearly enunciates how an initiative or a project will achieve outcomes. Weiss (1995) describes ToC as “a theory of how and why an initiative works”. Fullbright-Anderson, Kubisch, and Connell (1998:16) define ToC “as a systematic and cumulative study of the links between activities, outcomes, and context of the initiative”. The ToC is applied in various disciplines which include community development as well as education and public health. In the context of this study, ToC is applicable in implementing change with the purpose of developing communities. The ToC is in line with the aim of the study which seeks to determine how SAPS is implementing the NDP in building safer communities.

2.9.1 Development of ToC

As public policy theories have distinct models that describe how the relationships among variables should happen for effective public policy implementation, the ToC also has distinct models that guide its development. Different approaches can be used to develop project (plan) –driven or research–driven ToC and Laing and Todd (2015:4) define four of these approaches. See Figure 2.1 below.

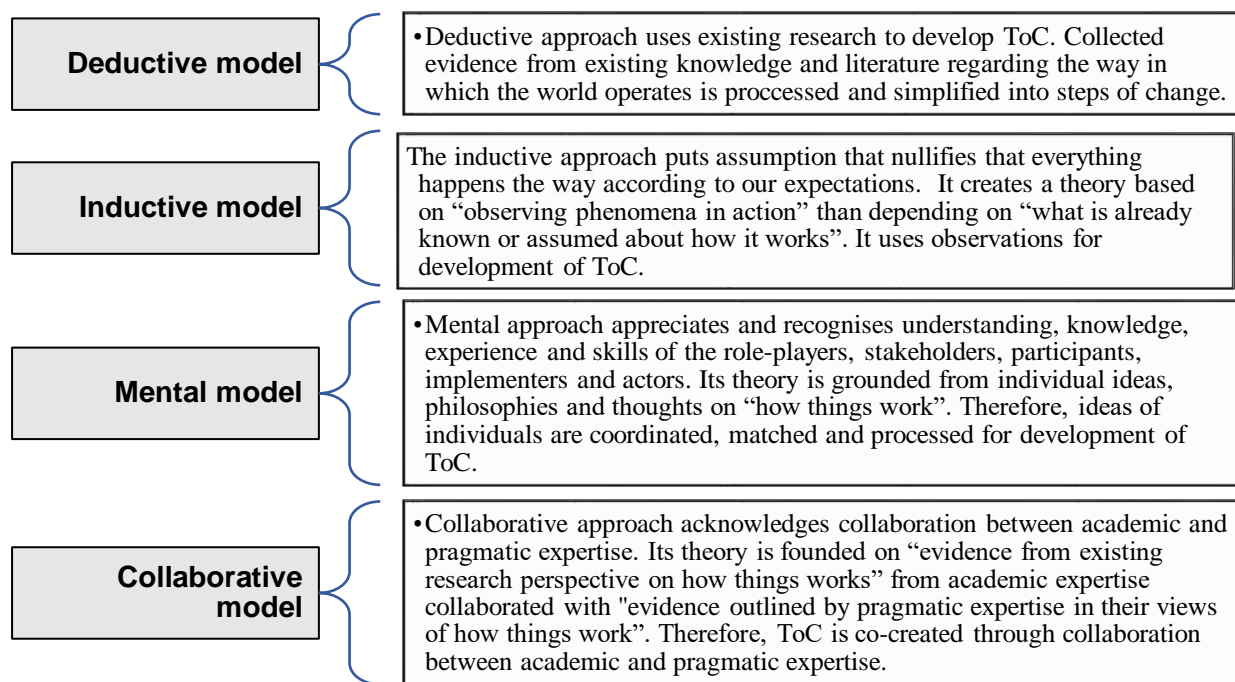


Figure 0.1: Four key approaches generally used to develop ToC

Source: Adapted from Laing, K. & Todd, L. (eds) (2015). *Theory-based Methodology: Using theories of change for development, research and evaluation*.

Guijt and Retolaza (2012:6) emphasise the significance of integrating “power analysis about ‘how change happens’ and the forces at play that help or hinder change in ToC approaches”. The implementers of initiatives or projects have knowledge of what they are doing as they implement, however lack of steps of change to impact can sometimes be a problem if they are not visible or not clearly articulated. According to Laing and Todd, 2015: 4), there are various elements of the ToC and steps of change to impact and they include: assessing the faced situation, getting underlying causes, identifying what needs to be change in the long run, identifying expected change or difference, identifying ways of creating changes and form of actions to be taken create change, identifying values and effects for change, identifying ways of understanding change and communicating change, identifying ways of measuring the impact of change, and identifying ways of dealing with the impact of change. These steps of change impact direct the research approach of this research.

2.9.2 Purpose of ToC

Laing and Todd (2015:4) point out various usage of a ToC in the lifecycle of any initiative or plan, beginning with “planning an idea through to implementation, delivery, and review”. The implementation and assessment of plan can be done using ToC. Using a ToC could facilitate an understanding of why a plan does or does not work, when the implementation of the plan is in progress, allows an actor or implementer to identify where the challenges are. The ToC contributes toward planning improvement and identification of gaps in knowledge that are lacking in clarity (Laing & Todd, 2015:5). Stein and Valters (2012:5) propose that ToC approaches should “be understood across a continuum”. Within this continuum, Stein and Valters (2012:6) identify four broad categories of ToC purpose. See Figure 2.2 below.

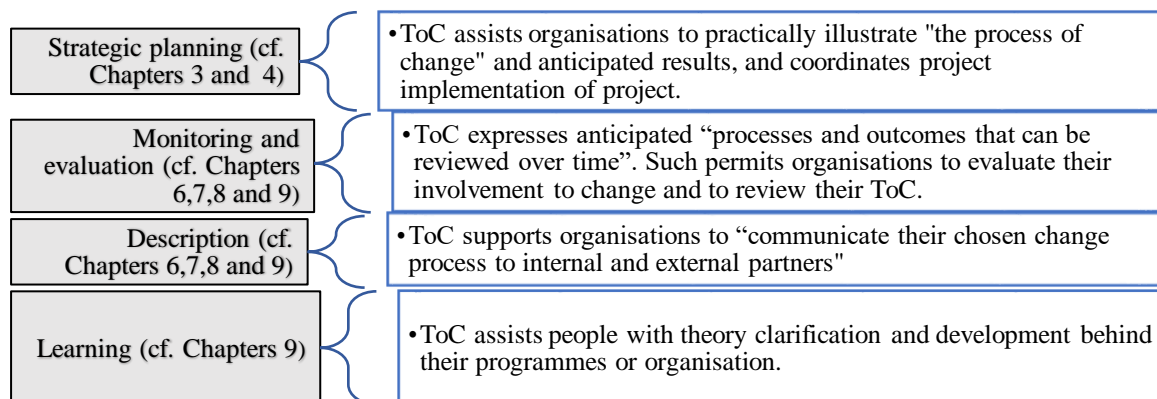


Figure 0.2: Four broad categories of purpose of ToC

Source: Adapted from Stein, D. & Valters, C. (2012). *Theory of change*. Justice and Security Research Programme, International Development Department.

Whether ToC is utilised to “implement or evaluate a plan, there needs to be some assessment of the chosen ToC” (Laing and Todd (2015: 5). The plan could indicate data collection methods, their appropriateness to “the type of change being studied” and the intention of using the ToC (Laing & Todd, 2015: 5). The adopted model (1-4 models’ previous definitions above in Figure 2.1), influences the utilisation of methods to develop a ToC. Laing and Todd (2015: 5) state that methods could include documentary analysis, workshops, literature review, individual interviews, observation; or workshops, and visual such as drawings, photographs and videos and participatory methods such as group discussions and role-plays.

2.9.3 ToC levels

Similar to the implementation maturity model, which has five levels or stages, ToC development has also various levels for conceptualisation of change. James (2011:7) identifies a wide number of “levels for ToCs”, which include “macro-theories of change, sector target group theories of change, organisational theories of change, and project or programme theories of change”. According to Shapiro (2006:5-6), to understand “the concept of levels in ToC” one should focus on “the actors and targets of the intended change process”. Change can be conceptualise by:

- Changing individuals – includes changing attitudes, feelings, perceptions and behaviours
- Changing programmes – includes changing relationships, creating new networks, and other cooperative relationships.
- Structural, institutional change – includes changing legislative, establishing infrastructure support for basic human necessities, establishing economic development initiatives, and establishing forums economic development initiatives.

Stein and Valters (2012:10) identify the “dimensions of change relating to four dimensions of conflict”, which are “personal, relational, structural, and cultural”. They maintain that “identifying dimensions of change” can assist organisations develop and clarify “the kind of change they hope to achieve”. Guijt and Retolaza (2012:6) make a useful distinction between ‘process’ and ‘content’ in ToC approaches.

2.9.3.1 ToC development process

Similar to the public policy implementation, which is process, ToC development is also process. According to Wigboldus and Brouwers (2011: 7) the “process of developing a ToC is in itself is as much an objective as the product that results from it”. ToC development process is grounded on “the context of each intervention and on an understanding of the role of the intervening party”. According to Stein and Valters (2012:14), this ensures “both the plausibility of achieving the goal outlined in the ToC, and the extent to which this goal is realistic”. The UNDP (2007:54) states that “proper grounding will also ensure that the ToC is useable or

doable”. Therefore, ToC’s process of articulation should “allow for the participation of a wide range of stakeholders” (Coffey and DFID, 2012:32), moreover, it must be grounded “on a variety of forms of rigorous evidence, including local knowledge and experience” (Vogel, 2012:24).

2.9.3.2 ToC content

As the public policy process comprises of various interlinked components, ToC has the key components for a broad ToC approach. Adapted from Stein and Valters, as cited in Van Stolk *et al.* (2007: 12), Table 2.1 below reviews the “key components” that are proposed by the literature as necessary “for a comprehensive ToC approach”. According to Van Stolk *et al.*, as cited by Stein and Valters (2012:14), ascertaining the “why, what, who, when, and how” is a useful technique of totally understanding the process of change.

Table 0.1: The key components for a comprehensive ToC

Element and Description	Alliance to chapters and policy implementation
Summary Statement: “One sentence describing the expected link between the intervention, the change process and the ultimate goal” (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	cf. Chapter 1
Problem Statement: “Identify the problem and examine its underlying causes” (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	cf. Chapter 1
Overall Goal: “Following from the problem statement, an identification of the goal to be achieved and how success will be identified.” (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 1,2,3, and 4)
Change Process: “Identify the mechanism of change linking the inputs to short-term output/outcomes and long-term goal”. (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 5 6,7 8 and 9)
Change Markers: “Identify milestones, indicators or other tools to assess/measure extent of change” (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,9 and 9)
Meta-Theory: “Define the underpinning theory that justifies the chosen change process”. (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7, 8 and 9)
Inputs: “Actions intended to catalyse the change process and corresponding timeline for change” (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)

Actors: “Identify the actors in the change process, define their roles and relationships: End-users / Intended beneficiaries; Implementing actors; Spoilers; Points of collaboration with other agencies; and Additional external stakeholders” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)
Domains of Change: “If applicable, identify various strands or thematic areas that must be addressed in order to achieve the change, potentially articulated as sub-theories” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)
Internal Risks: “Identify potential impacts of the programme that may undermine its success” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)
Assumptions: “Identify beliefs, values, and unquestioned elements for each step of the change process” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7, 8 and 9)
External Risks: “Identify external risks to the plan with the potential to undermine its success and outline strategies to overcome them” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)
Obstacles to Success: “Identify obstacles likely to threaten the change process and outline plans to overcome them”. (Van Stolk <i>et al.</i> , as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)
Knock-On Effects: “Identify the potential unintended consequences of the project, both positive and negative” (Van Stolk et al., as cited by Stein and Valters, 2012:14).	(cf. Chapters 6,7,8 and 9)

Source: Adapted from Stein, D. & Valters, C. (2012). *Theory of change*. Justice and Security Research Programme, International Development Department.

2.9.4 Implications of ToC development for this study

The ToC is utilised as instrument to conceptualise the NDP implementation in building safer communities and develop the police-based and community-based plans of developing community safety in SA. Such plans are grounded on three themes in the setting of police and communities, viz. (Laing and Todd, 2015): “the starting situation, the steps to change and strands of action”.

Based on Laing’s and Todd’s (2015) ToC approach, the study firstly looks at what is the current situation in terms of building safer communities and why (starting situation) as well as what are stakeholders, actors and implementers going to do about it (strand of action/intended inputs). Secondly, the study looks at what the stakeholders, actors and implementers should do differently (intended outputs). Thirdly, the study looks at how the current situation (starting situation) will change and how things will change for beneficiaries (steps of change/intended

outcomes). Lastly, the study develops two models, namely, the *Safer Community Model for South Africa* and a *Proactive and integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities*.

This study adopts both mental and collaborative models to influence the approaches used for development of a ToC. The mental model in this study acknowledges the knowledge and experience of stakeholders, role-players, actors and implementers “who have their own ideas about how things work”. The collaborative model acknowledges collaboration between academic and pragmatic expertise to influence the desired change in creating safer communities. To develop ToC, these stakeholders, role-players, actors, and implementers are facilitated to express their own ideas about how things work using mixed methods such as literature review, documentary analysis, individual and group interviews to support the building of safer communities in SA. This study is interested in how the SAPS is implementing the NDP to conceptualise its ToC in relation to building crime-free SA. The ToC method is used as the structure for allowing numerous voices to contribute to interventions aiming at building safer communities in SA.

Identifying the “why, what, who, when, and how” that link each key component for a comprehensive ToC approach is valuable in this study to totally understand the change process during the implementation of the NDP in developing safe communities in SA. Understanding the problem statement in the implementation of the NDP Chapter 12 is fundamental in developing the ToC for this study. This could be done by identifying and analysing the challenges the SAPS experiences in implementing the five NDP priority areas in building safer communities and scrutinising its underlying causes. This will assist the realisation of the goal to be achieved by this study and how success will be identified.

The study probes the change process through identification of the mechanisms of change in developing safer communities, connecting these mechanisms of change inputs to short-term output/outcomes and long-term goals. The ToC in this study is used to:

- Identify the actors and implementers in the change process and define their roles and relationships in implementation of NDP in developing safer communities in SA.
- Identify various components and areas that should be addressed in order to achieve the positive change in developing safer communities in SA.

- Identify potential impacts (internal risks) that may undermine the successful implementation of the NDP in developing safer communities in SA.
- Identify principles, beliefs, values, and accepted elements for each stage of the change process in implementation of the NDP in developing safer communities in SA.
- Identify external risks to the NDP with the potential to undermine its success and outline strategies to overcome them.
- Identify obstacles likely to threaten the change process and outline strategies to overcome them.
- Identify the potential unintended consequences of the plan, both positive and negative.

Using the ToC outlined above as well as the public policy implementation framework, the following key questions categorised into three groups are anticipated to be addressed by the study in order to check the direction of NDP implementation in developing safer communities in SA (Laing & Todd, 2015). See Figure 2.3 below.

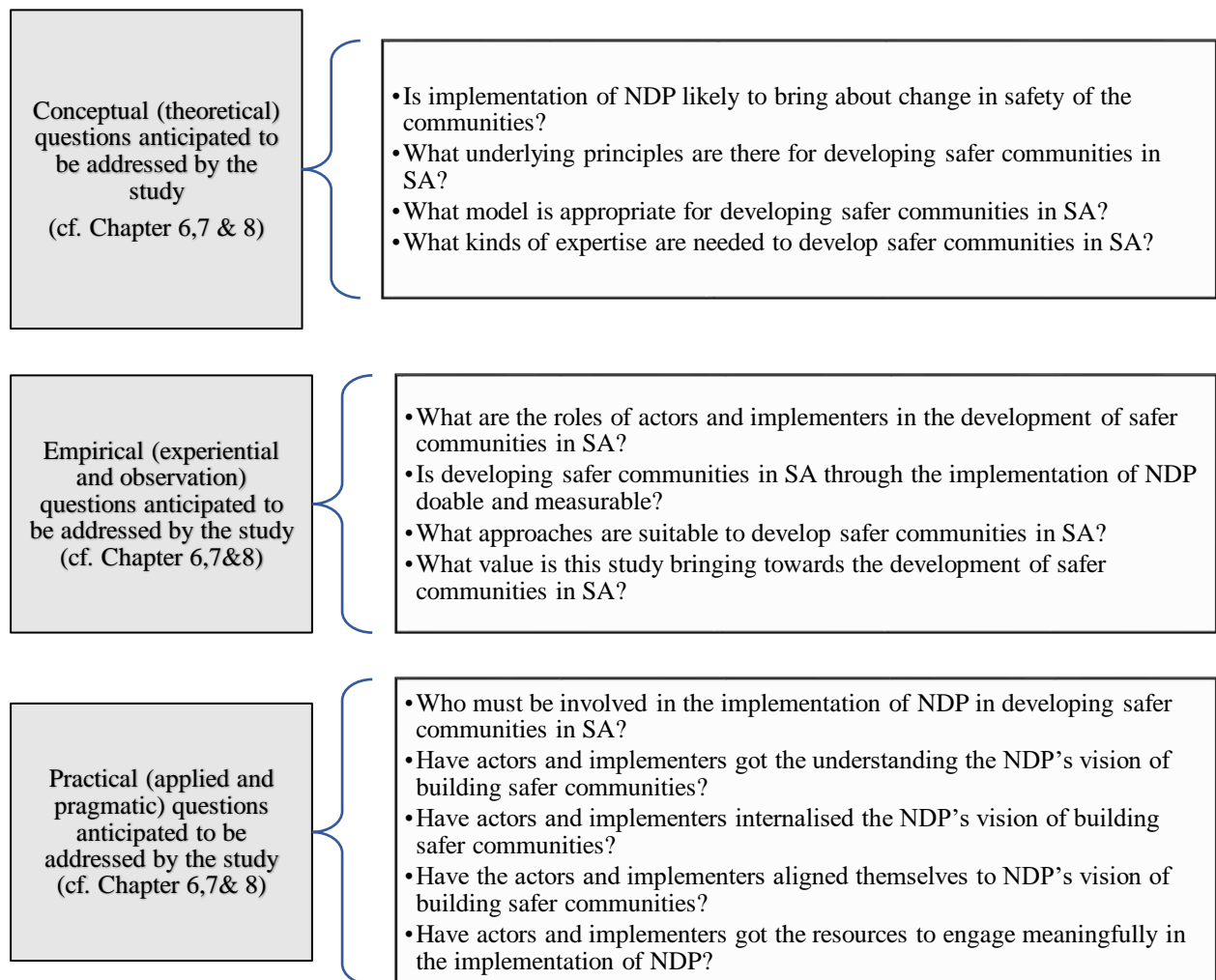


Figure 0.3: Key questions in three sections anticipated to be addressed by the study

Source: Adapted from Laing, K. & Todd, L. (eds) (2015). Theory-based Methodology: Using theories of change for development, research and evaluation.

2.10 THEORY OF INTERNALISATION AS THEORETICAL STUDY FRAMEWORK

In addition, to understanding how actors and implementers have internalised the NDP vision of building safer communities, the theory of internalisation will be used. To internalise is defined by the Oxford American Dictionary as to "make (attitudes or behaviour) part of one's nature by learning or unconscious assimilation: people learn gender stereotypes and internalize them" (Oxford American Dictionary, 2019). Scott (1971) describes "the process of internalisation and asserts that it starts with learning what the standards are, and then individuals go through a process of understanding why they are of value or why they make

sense, until finally they accept the norm as their own viewpoint”. He maintains that internalisation assists individuals define themselves and generate their “own identity and values within a society that has already created a norm set of values and practices for them”. These individuals through internalisation accept values and standards which are generated by groups or individuals, or society or entire organisation. The study is interested in understanding how the SAPS has internalised the values, standards and culture for building safer communities. Zittoun and Gillespie (2015) argue that the idea of internalisation has an important role “in cultural psychology”. Internalisation defines the process of culture formation. Therefore, the researcher uses the ‘theory of internalisation’ to determine the SAPS understanding and internalisation of the NDP’s vision of building safer communities and how the SAPS is building this vision in the SAPS culture.

2.11 CONCLUSION

The focus of this chapter is to outline aspects that influence the constructing of public policies and refers to the NDP and its implementation. It further details the policy development and implementation conceptual framework of building safer communities in SA and the contemporary challenges confronting this. Certain factors which have impact on policy implementation as well as the South African approach to policy construction are discussed.

As this this chapter concentrates on public policy implementation as conceptual framework of this study, policy development process is outlined and discussed. The discussions seek to establish how public policies are developed and implemented. These discussions among other things, respectively outline different theories and models informing the process of public policy and their implications on public policy implementation. Discussions broaden the comprehension of theories and models and embrace how public policy theories and models influence public policy development as well as theory of change and theory of internalisation.

The process of public policy also involves understanding all phases or stages of the public policy cycle. The importance for each phase or stage deliberated in Dunn’s and Wissink’s public policy stage models allowed the validation of what the process of public policy entails, that is, setting of agenda, formulation of public policy, adoption of public policy, implementation of public policy and evaluation of public policy. Actors involved in the public

policy process were discussed as significant role-players directing, shaping and implementing public policy. Their participation in the implementation of public policy process is crucial and takes on various forms and at different stages of the process of public policy.

The South African government has developed a number of comprehensive policies and strategies over years that provide important frameworks for preventing violence and promoting community safety. The following chapter focuses on the policy trajectory towards building safer communities in SA. The policy trajectory theory in the next chapter guides the discussions around building safer communities as entrenched in chapter 12 of the NDP. It singles out one of the policies and timelines that SA developed and reviewed as it moves towards building the safer communities.

CHAPTER THREE

LEGISLATIVE, POLICY AND STRATEGIC RESPONSE TRAJECTORY TOWARDS BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The dynamic nature of the environments in which policies are implemented is the reflection of non-static policy environments. The constantly changing and developing policy environments call for continuously review and development of policies to keep them appropriate and relevant to the period, conditions, contexts and time. South Africa experienced democratic dispensation in 1994 which came with lots of changes related to conditions and quality of lives. The conditions and contexts brought by democratic dispensation called for the development of numerous policies that aimed at improving the lives of people. Safety and security issues were among the focus areas that the country acknowledged that needed to be addressed. Development of policies to support safety and security in SA and improve peoples' lives was prioritised, developed and enacted. Therefore, policy-formulation towards building safer communities has come a long way. As the policy environment is constantly evolving, this chapter looks at trajectory of policies supporting safe and secure environments since 1994. However, this chapter will not try to address all the policies as the list is far-reaching but will select the critical ones that in one way or another supports building safer community concept.

It does not matter how excellent the policy document is in theory, in an absence of comprehensive policy implementation, the intended outcome cannot be achieved. Policy formation and implementation remains a prolonged process founded within a realm of policing transformation from its history during oppression to a service organisation in a democratic and dynamic dispensation in globally evolving conditions and demands internationally. Speedily growth of predominant safety, policing, and security policy development framework in SA has been witnessed (Spohr & Erkens, 2016:10). Therefore, it is essential to trace historical analysis of the most important conversational realities underpinning the policy development framework related to policing, safety, and security over time since 1994, along with the implementation of the NDP Chapter 12. In this case, the theory of policy trajectory provides a clear view through which the SA government's building of a safer community is analysed (Ball, 1997). This kind

of approach generally constitutes a micro-level (local) and macro-level (national) policy trajectory theory which, among other things, is concerned with the evolution of policies over period, conditions, contexts and time, as well as the ways in which the policy dynamics accumulation are interwoven and contested and gain access to the policy development framework over time (Ball, 1998). The policy trajectory theory in this chapter guides the discussions on building safer communities, as entrenched in the NDP Chapter 12.

3.2 CRITICAL LEGISLATIONS ENACTED TO SUPPORT POLICING IN SA

In understanding public policy analysis, Dewey (1927), an American philosopher, explores public policy focuses in his book '*The Public and its Problems*'. He investigated the feasibility and formation of a real democratic society "in the face of the major social changes" as well as attempt to outline "what the 'public' and the 'state' constitute and how are they created" in comprehending and promulgating the public good. Dye (1998) argues that public policy explores government's work, rational for doing it and its impact. Nagel (2002) outlines evaluation of public policy evaluation. However, his work is also centred on the key elements related to creating goals for society that need to be realised, formulation of alternative policies for achieving the goals, and selection of the best policy to achieve goals (Nagel, 2002). This theory provides a framework for contextualising the analysis of critical legislations enacted to support policing in SA.

3.2.1 Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996

Chapter 11 of the 1996 Constitution of the RSA provides for the security services of the RSA (Government of SA, 1996). Section 199 (1) of the Constitution states that "the security services of the Republic consist of a single defence force, a single police service and any intelligence services established in terms of the Constitution". The police service denoted in the Constitution is the SAPS. As the SAPS executes its mandate it is required that it conducts itself according to the values of constitutional democracy that reflects the South African society. Respect for human rights as captured in Chapter 2: Bill of Rights of the Constitution is of paramount importance. In addition, Section 199(5) compels the police to act in accordance with "customary international law and international agreements binding on the Republic" (Government of SA, 1996). This is an indication that South African inhabitants are not immune

to social ills that impact negatively on the safety and security of communities and economic growth of individual countries globally. As a result, Section 199(5) encourages collaborative efforts with other countries to the fight against crime.

The constitutional mandate of the SAPS as per the 1996 Constitution of RSA Section 205 (3) is the basis for building safer communities and safeguarding that “all people living in SA are and feel safe”. Section 206(1) of the Constitution maintains that the police minister is accountable for determining “national policing policy after consulting with the provincial governments and considering the policing needs and priorities of the provinces”. In terms of Section 206 (3) of the Constitution of RSA (Act 108 of 1996), each province is entitled to (a) monitor police conduct. (b) oversee “the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service, including receiving reports on the police”, (c) encourage “good relations between the police and community”, (d) assess “the effectiveness of visible policing”, and (e) “liaise with the Cabinet member responsible for policing with respect to crime and policing in the province”. According to Section 207(2) of the Constitution (Government of SA, 1996), the President ought to “appoint a woman or a man as National Commissioner of the SAPS to manage and control the police service”. Section 208 of the Constitution provides for the formation of the Police Civilian Secretariat. According to the Annual Report of the SAPS (SAPS, 2015:36) the Minister of Police has the succeeding entities reporting under him or her (Table 3.1 below):

Table 0.1: Entities under Minister of Police and their mandates

Name of entity	Legislation	Nature of business
The SAPS	The SAPS, Act 68 of 1995	Creation of a safe and secure environment for all people in SA
The Civilian Secretariat for Police Service (CSPS)	The Civilian Secretariat for Police, Act 2 of 2011	Providing support to the Minister in execution of his/her duties
The Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID)	The Independent Police Investigative Directorate, Act 1 of 2011)	Investigation of complaints on allegations of misconducts and criminality against the SAPS’s and the Metro Police Service’s members.
The Private Security Industry Regulatory Agency (PSIRA)	The Private Security Industry Regulation, Act 56 of 2001	Providing Private Security Industry regulation

3.2.2 South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995

Section 205(2) of the RSA Constitution informs the enactment of the SAPS (Government of SA, 1996). The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 makes arrangement of formation, organisation, regulation, and control of the SAPS (SAPS, Act 68 of 1995). Section 10 (1) of the Act provides for the establishment of the Board of Commissioners that shall comprise of the National Commissioner and Provincial Commissioners. As enshrined in Section 10(2), “the functions of the board shall be to promote co-operation and co-ordination in the service”.

According to Section 11 (2), the National Commissioner has the responsibility to exercise the powers, duties and functions on: (a) plan development and policing priorities and objectives setting, (b) determination of SAPS fixed establishment and post grading (c) determination of SAPS strength once consulted with the Board of Commissioners, (d) organisation and reorganisation of the SAPS, (e) establishment and maintenance of SAPS training institutions and centres, (f) establishment and maintenance of SAPS bureaus, depots, quarters, workshops, or “any other institution of any nature which may be expedient for the general management, control and maintenance of the SAPS”, and (g) “perform any legal act or act in any legal capacity on behalf of the SAPS”.

Section 12 (1) of the Act gives the Provincial Commissioners commanding and controlling powers” over the SAPS under their jurisdiction in the provinces. Section 12 (1) (b) gives Provincial Commissioners powers for establishment and maintenance of SAPS police stations and units in the province and determination of station or unit areas. The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 in Section 13 (1) to (13) based on the Constitution provides recognition of the “fundamental human rights of the person, a member may exercise given powers and shall perform the duties and functions”. The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 further provides for the establishment of a secretariat in order to give effect to Section 208 of the Constitution. Section 2(1) paragraphs (a) and (b) empower the Minister of Police as well as provincial government for “establishment of the secretariat for police respectively”. Furthermore, Section 3(1) outlines the functions of secretariat, while Section 3(3) provides the Minister of Police with the option of making regulatory framework concerning the establishment and appropriate functioning of secretariat.

Chapter 6A of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995 makes arrangement for formation of the Directorate for Priority Crime Investigation (DPCI) and mandates DPCI to “prevent, combat and investigate national priority offences and selected offences not limited to offences referred to in Chapter 2 and Section 34 of the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act, 2004 (Act 12 of 2004) and any other offence or category of offences referred to by National Commissioner”. Crimes mostly dealt with by DPCI include and serious corruption, serious commercial crime, and organised crime. The establishment of the office of the DPCI Judge is provided by Section 17L of the Act, as amended. Subsection 4 states that “the retired judge may receive complaints in the presented form and manner from any member of the public who can provide evidence of a serious and unlawful infringement of his or her rights caused by an investigation by the Directorate, or any member of the Directorate who can provide evidence of any improper influence or interference, whether of a political or any other nature, exerted upon him or her regarding the conducting of an investigation”.

As stated by Section 17(1) of the Act, the National Commissioner ought to “establish and maintain a national public order policing unit”. The Section also empowers the National Commissioner to deploy and withdraw the national public order policing unit. Section 64A is responsible for the formation of the municipal police services. In accordance with Section 64E, municipal police services are responsible for traffic policing, in relation to any legislation guiding road traffic, municipality by-laws and regulations which remain the accountability of the municipality and crime prevention. Metro police officers have a right to arrest, however they do not carry dockets. Therefore, the registration of cases and the investigation thereof still rests on the SAPS as they are mandated.

The SAPS Act 68 of 1995, Section 18 (1) provides for “the establishment of Community Policing Forums and Boards” in order to give effect to Section 215 of the Constitution. The Act makes provision for the SAPS to interact with the community by means of “community police forums and area and provincial community police boards”, as stated in Sections 19, 20 and 21 of the Act, with intention of (a) initiating and upholding police-community partnership, (b) endorsing police-community interaction, (c) encouraging police-community cooperation on policing, safety and security matters, (d) enhancing police service delivery police the community at all echelons, (e) ensuring police transparency and accountability to the

community, as well as (f) encouraging shared problem detection and problem-resolving jointly by community and the police.

3.2.3 National Strategic Intelligence Act 39 of 1994

The National Strategic Intelligence Act, 1994 (Act 39 of 1994) mandates the establishment of a National Intelligence Co-ordinating Committee (NICOC) (Government of SA, 1994). The configuration of NICOC includes the Director General of the State Security Agency, the Director, or Head of Domestic Intelligence, the Head of the Crime Intelligence Division of the SAPS and the Chief of the South African National Defence Force Intelligence Division and the Intelligence Co-ordinator. The functions of NICOC as outlined in the Act include: (i) intelligence coordination gathered through the services of South African Intelligence structures, (ii) intelligence interpretation collected to detect and defect terrorisations and threats to South African National Security, (iii) coordination and prioritisation of intelligence actions inside the national intelligence structures, (iv) preparation and interpretation of “intelligence estimates”, and (v) propose recommendations to Cabinet on priorities related to intelligence.

3.2.4 Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act 1 of 2011

The Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) is enacted in accordance with Section 206 (6) of the Constitution which states that “on receipt of a complaint lodged by a provincial executive, an independent police complaints body established by national legislation should investigate any alleged misconduct of, or offence committed by, and a member of the police service in the province”. Therefore, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act, 2011 (Act 1 of 2011) aimed at the establishment of the IPID (Government of SA, 2011a).

According to Section 50 (1) (a) of SAPS Act, the Independent Complaints Directorate, ought to be organised equally at national and provincial tiers. Section 50 (2) provides for the IPID to “function independently from the Service”. Section 50 (3)(a) states that “no organ of state and no member or employee of an organ of state nor any other person shall interfere with the Executive Director or a member of the personnel of the directorate in the exercise and performance of his or her powers and functions”. Further Section 50 (3) (b) warns police against interference with “the Executive Director or a member of the personnel of the

directorate in the exercise or performance of his or her powers or functions” as this is tantamount to an offence. Section 50 (4) grants consent to all organs of state to seek help as sensibly required for “the protection of the independence, impartiality, dignity, and effectiveness of the directorate in the exercise and performance of its powers and functions”. The IPID performs independent oversight functions over police with the aim of encouraging respect and appreciation for “the rule of law and human dignity”. Further, the Act empowers the IPID to embark on investigations of established and alleged criminal offences to be committed by SAPS members and Metro Police Services members, and to give suitable recommendations according to the provisions of the IPID Act.

3.2.5 Civilian Secretariat for Police Service Act 2 of 2011

Section 208 of the 1996 Constitution endorses the establishment of a civilian secretariat for the police service. The Civilian Secretariat for Police Service Act, 2011 (Act 2 of 2011) gives provision for the creation of the Police Civilian Secretariat (Government of SA, 2011b). This Act orders the Civilian Secretariat to perform the advisory role on matters including *inter alia*, legislation, strategy and policy for the department of police, international liaison and commitments, functioning within united justice system, performance of police, and mobilisation of community to partner on prevention of crime. In addition, the mandate of the Civilian Secretariat is to organise and engage with stakeholders, community, role-players, and external partners on policing issues and crime prevention.

3.3 POLICY DESIGN AFFECTING COMMUNITY SAFETY

The quality of life of citizens and mobility are highly affected by safety within communities and public spaces. Furthermore, this affects citizen’s opportunities to freely engage in developmental processes and public life. Crime and violence causes in SA remain multi-layered and complex. Confronting them requires a systemic approach that facilitates active cooperation across disciplines and stakeholders as well as on all levels, from national to local. Since 1994, among other things, SA partaken in development of several policies and laws supporting advancement to a democratic state.

It is government's commitment that "all people in SA are and feel safe" (Government of SA, 2012). The government's strategic priorities commit to address the safety matters. To address the issue of "feeling safe", the South African government enacted various policies in an effort to achieve safety in society. This suggests that prevention of crime and violence remained subject of importance and priority for the South African governments from the time of 1994 democratic dispensation. A number of comprehensive policies and strategies over years that provide important frameworks for preventing violence and promoting community safety have been developed by the South African government. These include the NDP, National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF), Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) and 2016 White Paper on Safety and Security.

Is South Africa on the right track on achieving NDP Vision 2030 where "people living in South Africa" in 2030 will "feel safe and have no fear of crime"? Table 3.2 below depicts the some of the critical pieces of policies and strategies that have been adopted over the years providing important frameworks for preventing crime and violence and promoting community safety. The sub sections below review some the some of the critical pieces of policies and strategies.

Table 0.2: Timeline for the development of policy framework for community safety

Year	Policies and strategies adopted for preventing crime and violence and promoting community safety
1994	Comprehensive legal and institutional reforms brought transformation of Department of Law and Order to Department of Safety and Security
1996	The enactment of Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996 enacted
1996	The endorsement of National Crime Prevention Strategy aimed at promoting all-inclusive technique of addressing developmental and social crime generators.
1998	The enactment of White Paper on Safety and Security for execution by Department of Safety and Security
1999	New administration
1999	The establishment of Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster to promote cooperation between law enforcement and security departments in the execution of programmes to enhance functioning of the Criminal Justice System (CJS)
2004	The endorsement of Service Charter for Victims of Violence and Crime to promote unwaveringly extraordinary service levels to victims through commitment of entire criminal justice organisations in SA
2007	CJS revamp was the review of the CJS and Cabinet adoption of a seven-point plan to transform the CJS

2009	New administration
2011	The endorsement of Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) for promotion of “integral approach” in the direction of “a Safer Community of Opportunity” by the Department for Social Development addressing community safety in a bottom-up-approach
2011	The promulgation of Community Safety Forums Policy aimed at promoting CSFs to “serve as platform for coordination, integration and monitoring of the implementation of multisectoral crime prevention and community safety initiatives”
2012	The enactment of the National Development Plan – Vision for 2030 for promotion of broader and holistic reflection on crime and violence, multisectoral collaboration among governmental actors and non-governmental actors to deal with crime and violence generators.
2014	New administration
2016	The promulgation of White Paper on Policing endorsing “a community-oriented police service and professionalisation of SAPS”
2016	The endorsement of revised White Paper on Safety and Security underlining the significance of “a holistic approach” as well as “the role of local government in building safer communities”
2018	The consultation on draft implementation plan of White Paper on Safety and Security underscoring the importance of “a holistic approach” as well as “the role of local government in building safer communities”
2019	New administration

Source: Adapted from Spohr, H. & Erkens, C. (2016). *Building safer communities through systemic approaches to violence prevention*

3.3.1 Constitution of Republic of SA, 1996

According to Section 205(1) of the Constitution, “the national police services should be structured in a manner to function in the national, provincial and, where appropriate, local spheres of government” (Government of SA, 1996). By virtue of being the only constitutionally mandated police service, the police has a leading obligation in preservation of the safety and security of South African inhabitants. The objective of the police service is explained in Section 205(3) of the RSA Constitution which is to “prevent, combat, and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and uphold and enforce the law” (Government of SA, 1996).

3.3.2 National Crime Prevention Strategy (1996)

Cabinet of South Africa in May 1996 passed the National Crime Prevention Strategy, which recognised the importance of a “new paradigm for dealing with crime” in SA (Department of Safety and Security, 1996:6). South Africa’s NCPS defines the importance of a “holistic approach” in addressing crime. It further puts emphasis on proactive measures to prevent crime and violence while appreciates reactive measures to control crime and violence. It underscores the importance of establishing broad accountability for prevention of crime and shifting from “reactive crime control towards a proactive crime prevention approach” which is aimed at preventing crime from occurring (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). It further presents the opportunity for development of a framework of national projects related to crime prevention. A four-pillar approach was adopted as framework to guide national projects related to prevention of crime. These pillars focus on (i) improving the effectiveness of the CJS, (ii) reduction of crime by improving environmental design and settings, (iii) developing values for public and school education system, and (iv) tackling transnational, transcontinental and international criminal activities. (Department of Safety and Security, 1996).

The NCPS calls for an all-inclusive and broad policy framework which will empower the policing system to deal with crime in a focused and co-ordinated way (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). This policy framework should pull together civil society and all government resource and agencies. Supported by the NDP, in addition, the NCPS objectives promote shared vision and understanding in cooperatively tackling crime, establishment of national programmes to cooperatively focus the efforts in rendering excellent service and resolving the problems contributing to uncontrollable crime levels, and maximisation of civil society participation in rallying and supporting crime prevention interventions, and creation of a committed and integrated capacity to prevent crime (Department of Safety and Security, 1996).

The NCPS requires all government departments including the SAPS to maintain the function of the mentioned pillars. Professional associations belonging to the security industry, town planners and architects, as well as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and development agencies, are required to do the same. The capacity and the programmes defined for execution in terms of each pillar are also meant to be made functional by the provincial and local levels

of the government. The NCPS recognises that this would require a proactive approach that could be achieved through the employment of the following three principles, which remain aligned with the NCPS (they are also retained and elaborated on in the NDP) (i) A multi-disciplinary approach towards crime prevention, (ii) involving civil society in tackling crime, including community and community-based organisations (CBOs), and (iii) combined government efforts aimed at delivering quality service to solve problems that lead to high crime levels.

3.3.3 White Paper on Safety and Security (1998)

The framework of policy for safety and security from 1999 to 2014 is established by White Paper Safety and Security which was formulated by the South African Government in 1998 to reply to the challenges around enhancing police transformation (Department of Safety and Security, 1998). The 1998 White Paper Safety and Security's objectives focused on: (i) defining the strategic priorities to tackle crime, (ii) articulating the responsibilities and roles of different role-players in the domain of safety and security, and (iii) clarifying the Department of Safety and Security's role within a legal framework of the constitution. It focused mainly on the reduction of crime by advocating the need for improving on law enforcement, crime prevention and reformation of institutions to achieve goals of the White Paper (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016a).

According to Spohr and Erkens (2016:8), the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security offers a supportive "distinction between two perspectives and approaches to reduce and prevent violence and crime", i.e. "crime prevention through effective criminal justice", as well as "social crime prevention", on the other (Table 3.2).

Table 0.3: Crime prevention: effective criminal justice and social crime prevention

Crime Prevention through Effective Criminal Justice	Social Crime Prevention
Reduction of the opportunity for crime by strengthening effective law enforcement and strengthening prevention of crime.	Reduction of the environmental and socio-economic factors that present opportunity for commission of crime and reoffending.
Means of achieving it:	Means of achieving it

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Strengthening the justice system to enhance prevention ▪ Strengthening law enforcement ▪ Strengthening restorative justice system ▪ Strengthening the police visibility ▪ Strengthening investigations to ensure successful convictions ▪ Empowering victims and provide them with necessary support 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Misplacing by Crime Prevention through Environmental Design – CPTED) ▪ Offering educational and awareness programmes ▪ Promoting social cohesion ▪ Providing vulnerable groups with support ▪ Breaking cycles of violence ▪ Promoting individual responsibility ▪ Strengthening socio-economic interventions to destabilised roots of crime
Level of accountability and responsibility <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All levels of government ▪ All government departments, mainly those in the NCPS ▪ SAPS 	Level of accountability and responsibility <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ All levels of government ▪ Government departments such as “Housing, Education, Welfare, Health” ▪ Metropolitans and municipalities ▪ National Crime Prevention Strategy ▪ Civil society organisations ▪ Residents and citizens and of SA.
Role of Community Policing Forums (CPFs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Strengthening co-operation between community and police ▪ Strengthening neighbourhood policing 	Role of Community Safety Forums (CSFs) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Strengthening coordination, monitoring and integration of the implementation of community safety initiatives and crime prevention. ▪ Strengthening integrated violence and safety prevention programmes.

Source: Adapted from Spohr, H. & Erkens, C. (2016). Building safer communities through systemic approaches to violence prevention.

In summary, the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security attempts to provide enforcers of law with approaches to decrease the crime commission and enhance social crime prevention activities. Its principles remained aligned with the NCPS, however, they were also retained and further elaborated upon in the NDP, 2012 and the two White Papers prepared in 2016 by the CSPA. The NDP and the two White Papers are described below.

3.3.4 Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster (1999)

Since 1999 an attempt was made by government to strengthen measures for crime prevention by shifting from violence prevention and concentrating to enforcement of law and control of crime. The Justice, Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) Cluster is among the clusters that were established in 1999 in an attempt to enhance integration and efficiency of government (Government of SA, 1999). The Cluster aims at providing an integrated approach to ensure

cooperation between law enforcement and security departments in the implementation of programmes intended to enhance the CJS. The purpose is to have a common goal of securing the entire country so that it becomes a place where people can live in freedom and enhanced security (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2009). Major role-players in cluster are the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, the SAPS (cluster co-chairperson of the cluster), National Prosecution Authority (NPA) and SSA. The following departments are also included: Correctional Services, Home Affairs, the South African National Defence Force (SANDF) and Social Development (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2009). The cluster embraces an “integrated approach to crime prevention and combatting” to make certain that crime is reduced, the CJS’s efficiency is improved, borders are successfully managed, corruption is effectively dealt with, cybercrime is effectively combatted and that population registration systems are improved.

3.3.5 Service Charter for Victims of Crime and Violence (2004)

The Victim Charter’s goal is to provide a framework of policy that aims at preventing “secondary victimisation of victims of crime” as well as ensuring increasingly professional and excellent service to victims by agencies in criminal justice (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 2004). The Victim’s Charter further suggests a victim-centred approach to the CJS reaction to violence and crime. It further drives a cohesive, integrated and inclusive centre of services to victims of violence and crime. It emphasises the importance of victim empowerment and accessibility of psycho-social support services and provision of correct information to victims.

3.3.6 Criminal Justice System Revamp (2007)

In 2007 Advocate Johnny de Lange led the review of the CJS and recommended a seven-point plan to transform the CJS. This was adopted by Cabinet. The NDP endorsed the seven-point plan which “set out how to establish a new, modernised, efficient, and transformed system, setting up a new coordinating and management structure at every level, from national to local; greater cooperation between the judiciary and magistracy, the police, the prosecutors, correctional services and the Legal Aid Board; and other initiatives such as empowering policing community police forums” (Government of SA, 2012). The seven-point plan calls on

all role-players in the CJS for: (i) approval of an unique “vision and mission leading to a single set of objectives, priorities, and performance measurement targets for the CJS” by the Justice Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) Cluster, (ii) formation of “a new and realigned unique coordinating and management structure for the system, flowing seamlessly from cabinet to court”; (iii) creation of “substantial changes to present court process in the criminal matters through practical, short-term and medium term proposals”, (iv) placement of established operational priorities for the CJS, (v) establishment of “an integrated information and technology database or system for the national CJS”, (vi) rationalisation of entire the systems and tools, including rapid tracing of the execution of plans, rationalisation of enterprises, “investigation-docket management systems, and parole systems”, and (vii) participation of the community in crime and violence combatting through transforming community policing settings (Government of SA, 2012).

The Advocate Johnny de Lange Commission recommended the (i) alignment of strategic plans with the seven-point plan, (ii) appointment of a project manager to the office for Criminal Justice System Reform for coordination of programmes and the activities in the plans (iii) establishment of dedicated budgets for participating department and reporting of outcomes regarding the plan, (iv) monitoring and reporting on plan implementation by the cluster, and (v) annually assessment of the plan implementation alongside the comprehensive plans’ objectives. The seven-point plan and alignment of strategic plans with the seven-point plan and consistent reporting were endorsed by the NDP (Government of SA, 2012, 2012).

3.3.7 Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (2011)

Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) aims at formation of a framework for assisting with a coordinated and targeted reaction by government to crime and violence was launched in 2011 by the Department of Social Development (DSD) (Department of Social Development, 2011). The ISCPS envisions safe communities, South Africa, and families while acknowledges the importance of responsible individuals in realising the vision. The ISCPS undertakes to implement a “safety lens to all mandates of government departments” and to ensure that “the objectives of the strategy” are met. Further, the ISCPS intends tackling violence and crime prevention through collaborative effort (Department of Social Development, 2011). The ISCPS recognises the significance of the subsequent areas for urgent intervention:

“Early childhood development, families, child abuse, social assistance and support for pregnant women and girls, neglect and exploitation, domestic violence and victim empowerment programmes, Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) and aids (acquired immunodeficiency syndrome) and feeding and health programmes, victim support and dealing with trauma, extended public works programmes, schooling, prevention, reduction and law enforcement with regard to gun violence, and community mobilisation, and social development, alcohol and substance abuse, social crime prevention programmes”.

In line with the NCPS and NDP, the ISCPS supports collaborative efforts, initiatives and interventions for building a shared vision and understanding on fighting and prevention of crime within government departments as a whole. The ISCPS advocates partnerships, mutual collaborations among government departments to respond to violence and crime through interventions at all levels. Further, the ISCPS promotes mobilisation of community and civil society organisations, through support and assistance of leading government departments, to intensify crime prevention capacity and community resilience.

3.3.8 Community Safety Forums Policy (2011)

Following the respective visions of the NCPS, NDP, ISCPS, the Community Safety Forum (CSF) Policy gives an agenda designed for integration and localisation of safety planning and co-ordination. As endorsed by the NDP and ISCPS, this policy also promotes alignment of national and provincial priorities. The CSFs focus on delivery of crime prevention projects and programmes to enhance the CJS functioning (CSPS, 2013). The CSFs' establishment advances community development, safe environments, accessibility of quality services at local precinct through coordinated and integrated cross-agency cooperation among various communities and organs of state. The CSF advocates collaboration of role-players through coordinated execution of safety projects and programmes and integrated planning at local government (CSPS, 2013).

The CSFs coordinate the “delivery of a multi-sectoral governmental approach” on safety in the community. They drive the facilitation of safety audits, development and implementation of

safety projects, programmes, strategies and plans and subsequently, monitoring and evaluating them in collaboration with civil society. The CSF approach is far-reaching compared to the scope of functions of the Community Policing Forums (CPFs) in that it comprises the responses from all the departments in the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) cluster. Therefore, the departments of Justice and Constitutional Development, Correctional Services, Defence, Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA), Home Affairs, Social Development, Police, and other relevant social cluster departments are considered to be critical in the CSF because of the roles they play. The CPF's role is limited, as per the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, to partnership with SAPS in coordinating the community in crime combating, hence the CPF is restricted to a police station precinct. (Government of SA, 2012).

3.3.9 White Paper on Families in South Africa (2013)

The 2013 White Paper on Families in SA opines the “family as a key development imperative”. Therefore, this White Paper places emphasis on (i) improvement of social issues related to socialisation, nurturing, supporting and caring capabilities of families for the complete country development, (ii) empowerment of families with the aim of enabling them to make best use of economic opportunities and (iii) improvement of family capacities to advance towards creation of national solidarity, social interactions and cohesion (Department of Social Development, 2013). According to Zulu (2001), hostile conditions hamper socialisation, caring, nurturing, and supporting abilities of families.

The 2013 White Paper on Families in SA is informed by seven principles which should guide the stakeholders' and government's engagement with families. These principles includes: (i) Institutionalisation of human rights, (ii) Appreciation of family diversity (iii) Recognition of family resilience, (iv) Promoting community participation, (v) Strengthening and supporting marriages, (vi) Supporting and endorsing responsible parenting, and (vii) Promoting strategic partnerships as government's and other role-players' service delivery should define mutual partnerships with the family (Department of Social Development, 2013). The White Paper on Families in SA promotes social conditions through improving the “socialising, caring, nurturing and supporting capabilities of families, empowering families to make best use of economic opportunities” and making a significant contribution towards social cohesion (Department of Social Development, 2013). According to Zulu (1999:29) if families are not

adhering to principles of appreciating and supporting each other, unity, love, caring and mutual respect, family structures can become the breeding grounds of antisocial behaviour and violence.

3.3.10 National Development Plan Vision 2030

According to the NDP, a National Planning Commission was appointed by the President in 2010 to draft a national development plan (Government of SA, 2012). The Diagnostic Report on South Africa's accomplishments and shortcomings since 1994 democratic dispensation was released by the Commission in 2011. The failure to implement policies and lack of broad partnerships were cited as the main reasons for sluggish progress, hence the development of the draft national development plan a year later was instituted. Community safety, rural economy, social protection, regional and world affairs were initially the NDP four focus areas after the Diagnostic Report. The draft Plan was consulted widely by the Commission and South Africans widely supported it. The final NDP was informed by the consideration of consultation and adopted in 2012. A long-term vision for the country is provided in the Plan. The attainment of a decent standard of living through the elimination of poverty and reduction of inequality by all South Africans by 2030 is the vision of the Plan.

The five-year Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) and Annual Performance Plans (APPs), annually, were developed and aligned to the NDP 2030 vision by government and its entities in order to ensure achievement of the NDP vision. The Department of Planning Monitoring and Evaluation (DPME) monitored the progress on implementation.

Safety and security are amongst the fundamental components of a good and respectable standard of living acknowledged in the NDP. Increasing levels of violence and crime, according to the NDP, are major obstacles to the country's progress and growth. Yearly release of crime statistics in SA shows that the levels of crimes are steadily increasing. The importance of guaranteeing that by 2030 "people must be and feel safe in the country and this includes while at home, work, school, and everywhere where they might be able to live freely without fear of some sort" is emphasised in Chapter 12 of the NDP (Government of SA, 2012). The NDP places importance on the safety and security of women, children, and in particular, girl children and youth. It further suggests an "integrated approach" to resolve the crime which

includes an “active citizenry” and integrated accountabilities and coordinated rendering of service by public and private actors. In addition, it places the importance of institutionalisation and internalisation of SAPS values, code of conduct and ethics as the SAPS participates moves towards building safer communities.

The NDP advocates putting the community at the centre of policing and requires internal change in the SAPS. The required internal changes include demilitarising, professionalising, and improving integration of services with other stakeholders, and involving the community in community safety matters. At the same time, the NDP emphasises a strengthening of the CJS (Government of SA, 2012:385-406). The desire of the NDP is to demilitarise and professionalise police service. The embracement of discipline, development of professional character and demonstration of proficiency and competency as well as maintenance of integrity and execution of obligations expertly and knowledgeably are professional qualities respected and valued by the NDP. Further, the NDP stresses the significance of performing comprehensively responsibilities and roles of serving the community in a professional manner. There is a necessity for policemen and –women to endorse the police code of conduct, code of ethics and values of the SAPS (Government of SA, 2012:389). The NDP obligates the police to “...serve the community, safeguard lives and property without discrimination, protect the peaceful against violence and the weak against intimidation, and to respect the constitutional rights of all to equality and justice” (Government of SA, 2012:390). Acting impartial, and independent and inculcating confidence when police are responding to the needs of the community is further highlighted in the NDP.

The NDP furthermore endorses “an integrated approach to safety and security where government departments, the private sector and community bodies coordinate their activities”. The NDP advances reinforcement of the CJS to expedite criminal procedures and measures which may possibly improve the system making it effective. Further, the NDP supports enhanced community participation safety (Government of SA, 2012:392).

Moreover, dealing with the fundamental causes of SA’s violence and crime concerns is underscored by NDP. The contributory factors to increasingly crime and violence levels such as “unemployment, poverty, inequality, a lack of social cohesion, inadequate care of children, apartheid’s spatial legacy in cities and towns, the extensive accessibility of lethal weapons and

alcohol and drug abuse” are accentuated. It encourages the strong involvement and cooperation of communities also calls for alignment of strategies, policies, plans and resources in the direction of realising the objectives of the NDP. The NDP (Government of SA, 2012:352) further proposes “strengthening the CJS; building a “professional police service”, demilitarising the police service, using an integrated approach to safety and building community participation in community safety”.

3.3.10.1 Strengthening the CJS

Strengthening the CJS requires collaboration of entire JCPS Cluster stakeholders and role-players. As stated by the NDP (Government of SA, 2012), rebuilding of community confidence is needed within the CJS as well as prevention of crime and elevating safety levels. A crime-free and safe SA by 2030 is achievable through a well-founded criminal justice system. Therefore, the NDP calls for a strengthened CJS. Low rates of arrests of criminals and low rates of convictions and escape of prisoners reduce confidence in the CJS, hence the NDP recognises the importance of cooperation among all its departments.

3.3.10.2 Professionalising the SAPS

For police professionalisation, the NDP maintains that there is a need for rendering of professionalized service that conform to high level of standards, “set by a professional body, for recruitment selection, appointment and promotion” (Government of SA, 2012:390). It further upholds that “the National Commissioner of the Police and deputies should be appointed on a competitive basis and a selection panel, established by the President, should select and interview candidates for these posts”. It emphasises importance of professionalisation of training. It underscores the renewed focus on “strengthening the capacity and standing of detectives and specialised investigators, particularly in the fields of forensics, ballistics and crime investigations” (Government of SA, 2012:391). Further, it calls for the re-establishment of “specialised units, staffed with highly trained and professional police officers, to respond to changing crime trends such as cybercrime, human trafficking, crimes against women and children, and international crime syndicates” (Government of SA, 2012:391). The NDP observes development of technology as having an influence on crime patterns and the commission of crime. Therefore, the NDP stipulates that training of police desires

improvement and argues that cooperation with the universities and private sector can possibly upsurge the competence of the police (Government of SA, 2012).

The commission that developed Chapter 12 of the NDP recommends police professionalisation through (i) enforcement the “code of conduct and a professional police code of ethics”, (ii) appointment of “trained and skilled personnel”, and (iii) formation “a professional body to set and regulate standards”. The NDP emphasises that the police code of conduct should put forward “the off-duty obligation of police officials to honour the badge as a symbol of public trust”. Police professionalisation calls for the law enforcement agency to act with integrity and develop professionalism and discipline in the SAPS. Code of Conduct ought to embrace performance assessment systems and disciplinary regulations for police. Law enforcers and police ought to be skilled and assessed on application of professional ethics and Code of Conduct (Government of SA, 2012).

The NDP further calls for disciplinary action against police members contravening the Code of Conduct. Police’s extra duties which are to “serve the community, safeguard lives and property without discrimination, protect the community against violence and intimidation, and respect the constitutional rights of equality and justice for all” are reiterated in the NDP (Government of SA, 2012). The NDP advances the development of a “National Policing Board” (NPB) with various expertise from different sectors and disciplines. This NPB, as per NDP, has a duty to “set standards for recruiting, selecting, appointing and promoting police officials and police officers and also develop a professional code of ethics and analyse the professional standing of policing, based on international norms and standards”.

3.3.10.3 Police service demilitarisation

The police are expected to discharge their functions with confidence and according to the 1996 Constitution, civil and criminal law. Policing in SA prior 1994 was highly militarised and politicised, therefore transformation of the police agency immediately after the 1994 elections was a key objective. According to the NDP (Government of SA, 2012), it was essential to “professionalise the police” and create community relationships, build trust and assurance in the police and stimulate positive community-police relations. This called for the police civilianisation. Civilianisation necessitates shifting and removal “of police insignia, military

ranks and force orders”, in order for the police to establish rapport with communities (Government of SA, 2012),

According to NDP (Government of SA, 2012), from year 2000 the police service gradually started reverting to a semblance of a paramilitary force which was formalised with the reintroduction of military ranks in 2010. The NDP contends that the reinstatement of army ranks and titles in year 2010 contributed to upsurge of violent crime, escalation of frustration around community and fear. Nevertheless, these point of views were not along police professionalisation (Government of SA, 2012). According to NDP police’s efficiency and effectiveness make them to receive the community respect and admiration.

3.3.10.4 An integrated approach in building safety using

An integrated approach is fundamental in nation development and the NDP suggests that all aspects of safety and security should be taken into account and viewed as one piece in building safer communities (Government of SA, 2012). This suggestion of the NDP dictates that, in order to build safe communities, there should be certain consideration of contributory factors to unsafe and insecurity. These factors includes root cause analysis of safety problems, e.g. motivators and stimuli of criminal actions, absence of social cohesion and inequality and lack of acceptance and internalisation of respectable norms and standards of the society, and situational aspects that also precipitate criminality and wrongdoing such as the accessibility of illegal firearms, drugs and accessibility of targets and accomplices.

According to the NDP (Government of SA, 2012), the recommendation was made by the commission that developed Chapter 12 of NDP for “an effective, integrated strategy is needed to address the pervasive problem of violence”. The commission further argued about how crime is commonly debated about and alluded to “the danger of focusing too much on policing as the only solution” during the deliberations. Much as police visibility is viewed by the community as deterrence of crime, crime reduction can be realised through integrated interventions and coining of these interventions is not limited to the CJS. The emphasis from the NDP is on the paradigm shift from focussing on law enforcement method as deterrence of crime but concentrating on identification of and resolving crime root causes. Through mobilisation of a variety of government and private capabilities at all levels and in each aspect and shifting to an

integrated approach where citizens are actively involved and have co-responsibility in building safer communities, safety and security can be realised (Government of SA, 2012).

3.3.10.5 Build community participation in community safety

Police's accountability and answerability to community they serve, not only build trust in the community but also build confidence. Answerability and accountability also promote and motivate participation of community in policing (Civilian Secretariat for the Police, 2016:12, 19). Hence, a safe and secure society is grounded in community participation in policing. It is vital that the service of the police commits "to adherence to human rights principles and providing effective policing that is fair, transparent, just and equitable"...[and ensure that]...."the rights of the people are respected by all means, as stipulated in the 1996 Constitution (Civilian Secretariat for the Police, 2016:19).

The NDP's suggested initiatives that can be used for improvement of public participation which include, review of centres for community safety, safety audits development, community consultation in planning, promotion of urban design that would facilitate prevention of crime through environmental design, the roll-out of community safety volunteer programmes, addressing community's needs and concerns, promotion of victimisation reporting mainly by the vulnerable groups, formation of police-community partnerships for information-sharing, and promotion of police-community relations, (Government of SA, 2012).

3.3.11 National Security Strategy (NSS) (2012)

Many role-players are essential to realise violence and crime reduction. These role-players are located in various government departments. The NSS looks at how the country can respond to crime and violence root causes in "comprehensive and co-ordinated" manner. Violent and organised crime is the main focus of the NSS, more especially the influence of it on "people's sense of safety and security, social cohesion, and the economy of the country". Further, the NSS identifies "connections between crime combatting and land and air border security, the activities of the private security industry, domestic stability challenges, counter-corruption work, managing illegal migration and efforts to eradicate the illicit economy" (Government of SA, 2012).

3.3.12 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) (2014–2019)

Subsequent to the endorsement of the NDP, the South Africa's 2014-2019 Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) was the foremost agenda that was developed to respond to the priorities of the NDP. As stated by the NDP, "in 2030 all people living in SA should feel safe, have no fear of crime, including corruption, and be properly served by the police and courts" (Government of SA, 2012). The 2014-2019 MTSF set out the required actions of the government and its partners in implementing the NDP within the five year period. Fourteen NDP priorities were identified in the MTSF and Outcome 3 which stated that "All people in SA are and feel safe" was among them. Outcome 3 worked in the direction of safeguarding that "all people in SA were and felt safe". It placed emphasis on enhancing the CJS; using "an integrated approach to safety" and "community participation in community safety" (Government of SA, 2012). Outcome 3 did not, however, mention a professional police service and demilitarisation. Does this mean that a professionalised and demilitarised police service would not necessarily impact on communities' feeling of safety? This, then, gives rise to the further question: What actually makes people feel safe and how could be habitants in SA be made to feel safe?

The study attempted to determine what makes most people feel safe.

3.3.13 National Integrated Early Childhood Development Policy (2015)

This 2015 National Integrated Early Childhood Development (ECD) Policy highlights "the needs of children through a comprehensive and equally accessible ECD system" (Department of Social Development, 2015). This policy in summary acknowledged the "risks at the individual, relationship, community and microstructural levels, and the need to support early interventions to prevent the cyclical nature of crime and violence" (Department of Social Development, 2015).

3.3.14 White Paper on Safety and Security (2016)

This 2016 White Paper on Safety and Security comes after "a review of the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security". The focus on this policy is "on safety, crime and violence prevention

that promotes an integrated and holistic approach to safety and security”. According to the 2016 White Paper on Safety and Security (2016), “a review of the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security identifies the need for the two distinct policy interventions, i.e. a White Paper that would focus on the policing environment, and a White Paper that would focus on an integrated and developmental approach to crime and violence prevention, recognising the fact that safety extends far beyond the purview of the police” (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016a).

This White Paper is primarily informed by the following policy instruments: “the NDP, NSS, Rural Safety Strategy, Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, the White Paper on Families, CJS Revamp, CSFs Policy, Early Childhood Development Policy, NCPS, White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998, National Service Charter for Victims of Crime and Violence and the draft Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF)” (Civilian Secretariat for the Police, 2016:30). The 2016 policy has strongly stressed the community-based crime prevention (Government of SA, 1996). It aimed at “promoting an integrated and holistic approach to safety and security, providing substance and direction to achieving the NDP objective of building safer communities”...[and its main emphasis is]...“on the prevention of crime and violence as a necessary precondition for increasing people's feelings of safety and building safer communities” as per NDP’s vision (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016a).

In ensuring community safety, the White Paper on Safety and Security (2016) espouses an operational CJS, prompt intercession to crime and violence prevention and promotion of safety, support and empowerment of victims; holistic safety, security, violence and crime prevention service delivery, prevention of crime by addressing environmental plans, and strong community participation in safety and security matters (Civilian Secretariat for the Police Service, 2016a). In line with the NDP, the White Paper on Safety and Security acknowledges that “building safer communities is a collective responsibility of both the state and its citizens, and is located within the broader developmental agenda of government” and confirms that civil society, private sector and an active citizenry contribute to the continuing efforts of government to safety and violence and crime prevention (Civilian Secretariat for the Police Service, 2016a).

Unlike the 1998 “White Paper Safety and Security”, this “2016 White Paper” locates plus provides its ownership. This Paper recognises the need for (i) the suitable level of governmental

leadership to champion it, (ii) government's prioritisation of safety, violence and crime prevention, and (iii) coordination of integrated community safety, violence and crime prevention across the governments departments and spheres of government. It further accepts various challenges of preceding policy tools to perform integrated implementation through government and embrace accountability in departments. Therefore, it answers to related challenges through "locating ownership of the White Paper at the level of the Presidency to drive intergovernmental cooperation at the highest level and to facilitate integration with the government-wide Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF), and monitoring and evaluation systems through" the DPME (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016a). It advocates that it is the responsibility of "respective line functions of departments and spheres of government" to implement the White Paper and to create an empowering environment for non-state actors' participation in the facilitation, coordination and implementation techniques for establishment of an enabling environment.

3.3.15 White Paper on Policing (2016)

This 2016 White Paper on Policing emphasises "the internal policing environment and the role of the police"... [as well as supplements] ... "the White Paper on Safety and Security" through indicating "a clear role for the police in crime prevention" (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016b). The following policy instruments, according to Civilian Secretariat of Police Service (2016b:30), primarily inform the 2016 White Paper on Policing: the NDP, the National Security Strategy (NSS), Rural Safety Strategy, Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS), the White Paper on Families, Criminal Justice System Revamp, Community Safety Forums (CSF) Policy, Early Childhood Development Policy, NCPS, White Paper on Safety and Security (1998), National Service Charter for Victims of Crime and Violence and the Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF).

The 2016 White Paper on Policing is derived from "the review of the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security" (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016b). Its two major changes from "the 1998 White Paper on Safety" include distinct police-focused policy replacing the wider safety and security policy as well as provision of a supporting legislative framework for alignment of the police service with other public service and civilian oversight. The aforementioned

introduced developments directed the review of “1998 White Paper on Safety and Security” (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016b).

The White Paper on Policing’s focus is on policing and law enforcement and it intends to build safer communities and decrease crime in line with the NDP. It supports the vision of NDP of “a modernised, transformed, and efficient CJS, and a professional and highly skilled police service, providing a policy framework for achieving the NDP policing vision” ...[and] a shared responsibility”...[as well as]...“a developmental approach to safety and security, and strengthening of sustainable community safety efforts through collaborative partnerships with role players across government, business, civil society, and academia in the context of an integrated justice system” (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016b).

The 2016 White Paper on Policing suggests that in order to counter a demilitarised police service, police management vocabulary should be transformed and the conduct of the police should be concomitant with the human rights principles that mirror a constitutional democracy. The transformation of the vocabulary was deemed necessary due to the fact that while speechmaking and slogans like “zero tolerance” as well as “a war against crime” encourages plus supports “a tougher stance on crime”, it could be perceived to also contribute to police acting with impunity and with utter disregard of human rights (Civilian Secretariat of Police Service, 2016b). The White Paper on Policing (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016b) further promotes community-centred policing and emphasises the police’s placement of “the community at the centre of policing by committing to provide and maintain an environment that will facilitate the building of sustained community support and participation”.

3.3.16 Integrated Urban Development Framework (2016)

In South Africa “almost three-quarters (71,3%) of its population will be living in urban areas” and is understandable why the 21st century is “described as the urban century” (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016). Addressing reduction of poverty and sustainable growth is placed as key element for urban development while urbanisation is placed as growth and development accelerator. Supporting policies as well as frameworks to influence process of urbanisation process for improved growth achievements as well as sustainability

remain desired. As a result, the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) in 2016 presented the “Integrated Urban Development Framework (IUDF)”, which is the “government’s policy position to guide the future growth and management of urban areas in SA”. Its goal is “to guide the development of inclusive, resilient, and liveable urban settlements, while directly addressing the unique conditions and challenges facing SA’s cities and towns”... [and]...“to respond to the Sustainable Development Goals 2015-2030 (SDGs), specifically Goal 11: Making cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient, and sustainable”...[as well as]... “to build on pillars of the NDP, specifically the pillar provided for in Chapter 9, which advocates transformation of human settlements and the national space economy” (Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs, 2016).

3.4 CONCLUSION

Effective NDP implementation and the achievement of NDP goals and objectives are dependent on active involvement of all government actors. This includes the facilitation, coordination and implementation techniques for establishment of an enabling environment for active participation of community and civil society. Most of the above discussed regulatory frameworks supported a collaborative and shared approach among government and non-government in promoting safety. Working together of all related stakeholders and role-players inside the three domains of government, private sector, civil society and community was further supported by these regulatory frameworks. The discussed regulatory frameworks’ applications are connected to constitutional and legal fundamentals leading intergovernmental relationships, competencies and directives of government institutions as well as the advancement of citizen participation, consultation and engagement. Furthermore, the discussed regulatory frameworks recognises the necessity for institutionalisation of interventions directing socio-economic issues such as effectiveness of the government, broader security and state security, social welfare, health and education, inequality, poverty and unemployment. These required complementary interventions are also addressed in other policy instruments. If socio-economic challenges contribute to lack of safer communities, the NDP Vision will remain a dream as long as they are not addressed.

Based on the legislative, policy and strategic response trajectory towards building safer communities in SA, it is clear that there a need for a predominant policy for crime and violence

prevention and community safety to coordinate cooperation and configuration of government policy as well as facilitate the establishment of well-resourced, sustainable, coordination and implementation mechanisms in aligning government and non-government actors. Successful NDP implementation in different spheres and departments within government depends on their cooperation in bringing high-quality, comprehensive and integrated services in partnership with communities and civil society.

Sufficient budget and resources allocation to safety, and prevention of crime and violence is significant for effective implementation of the legislative, policy and strategic response trajectory towards building safer communities in SA. Alignment of strategies with the NDP Chapter 12 by all government departments and spheres of government is underscored. It is also critical to incorporate them into annual performance, operational and strategic plans as well as to standards and norms. There is a need for active community participation and capacitating the implementation structures and institutional mechanisms supportive of NDP Chapter 12 execution. Utilisation of evidence-based planning and NDP implementation by all spheres of government and government departments is paramount important.

For effective delivery of interventions and programmes to advocate crime and violence prevention and community safety, requirements of the system-levels are imperative to build essential enabling environments and to coordinate implementation. Chapter 4 introduces the Building Safer Communities Conceptual Framework. The theoretical and conceptual perspectives in building safer communities are comprehensively deliberated. These perspectives are local, region, continent, and international based theoretical frameworks for building safer communities. Chapter 4 contextualises the models of building safer communities and evaluates the possible models that can be implemented towards building safer communities.

CHAPTER FOUR

BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Crime is a universal phenomenon. It is in the public domain that crime patterns and trends show that crime is becoming increasingly violent and inflicting fear and making people in SA feel unsafe. Crime, violence, disorder, victimisation and fear of crime are major reasons for communities not feeling safe (Ekblom, 2005:28; Tilley 2007). Ekblom (2005) and Tilley (2007) state that “crime and disorder comprise a vast set of events involving behaviour formally deemed to be against the law and are usually committed with evil intent”...[and such]...“range from murder to fraud, theft, vandalism, dealing in drugs, computer hacking, and terrorist bloodsheds”. Existence of crime is associated with existence of physical, psychological, emotional, or logical fight among groups or individuals (Tilley, 2007).

Brown (2013:154) states “being tough on crime and effective in dealing with crime is the first objective of community policing” in building safer communities. He adds that through tactics, such as organising communities to identify those who victimise others by strengthening the quality of the criminal investigation process and by generating a community commitment, community policing provides a strong and highly effective approach to reducing criminal activities. Community policing focuses not only on reducing the incidence of crime, but also on reducing the fear of crime (Brown, 2013:155). This is realised through several ways, including, the police getting to know people in the communities where they are deployed and while collaborating with them to solve problems. According to Brown (2013:155), this process gives residents a feeling that their problems are being dealt with, thereby reducing fear and also places the police “in a better position to understand and be better equipped to address problems”.

Tilley (2007:762) describes fear of crime as anxieties about crime or the perceived prospects of victimisation. Many people fear crime and the prospect that they will be crime victims. According to Brown (2013:388), “victimisation is an obvious result of criminal behaviour ... less obvious, but equally prevalent is the fear of crime.” Research reveals that the fear of crime

is greater than the actual incidence of crime (Brown, 2013:388). When there is a strong fear of crime, there is correspondingly less loyalty to neighbourhoods. Hence, the fear of crime can result in a breakdown of a community. Tilley (2007:157) maintains that strong prevention measures, multiple tactics, and strict implementation of prevention measures and focus on situations with high rates of repeat victimisation assist in preventing it. As people feel safer in their communities, they are more likely to walk in their neighbourhoods and, when necessary, leave their homes. The presence of people on the streets serves as a deterrent to crime (Tilley, 2007).

Sutton (2007:298-299) maintains that illicit drug use is a significant factor in crime and that the sales and use of drugs constitute major problems for communities, as the life quality decreasing and the fear of crime increasing. McSweeney and Hough (2007:563) state many robberies, burglaries, and thefts are motivated by drug dependency. They further explain the links between drug and alcohol use to reoffending or recidivism. They further link offending among young people to drug and alcohol use. Furthermore, they argue that illicit drug use and heavy drinking are more prevalent amongst known offenders than the wider population. They suggest that effective strategies to reduce drug and alcohol-related crime should be developed (McSweeney and Hough, 2007:565). Smith and Tilley (2005:28) emphasise the importance of applying the scientific methods and deployment of any scientific disciplines to prevent, detect and reduce crime.

This chapter's objective is to pay attention to both conceptual and theoretical perspectives of building safer communities as set out in the NDP. This chapter reflects on how the NDP is applied in ensuring the vision of building safer communities. It reveals how building safer communities as a concept for improving community safety has been sustained and explains some of the existing challenges and lessons learned to date. It contextualises the building safer communities' concept through the review of theory on the integrated approach to building community safety, strengthened CJS, and building a professional police service.

4.2 CRIME PREVENTION AND COMMUNITY SAFETY

Economic and social conditions influence community safety (Zulu, Urbani & van der Merwe (2004:175). In building safer communities there are various crime prevention strategies and approaches for decrease of real levels of anti-social behaviour and crime that cause distress as well as anxiety regarding communities' quality of life. According to Shaftoe and Read (2007:248-249), using "Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED)" stays among the approaches that "focuses on the design of the physical environment and situational crime prevention" as a method to prevent crime and reduce opportunities for crime to occur. This includes developing social and economic strategies to produce sustainable communities.

Kruger, Lancaster, Landman, Lieberman, Louw, and Robertshaw (2016:5) describe strategy for community crime prevention as "an action plan or strategy to prevent crime and violence and reduce public fear of crime [...] A tool to bring together different role-players involved in crime prevention [...] A means of developing local crime prevention partnerships [...] A method to ensure co-ordination and management of crime prevention initiatives [...] A way to identify priority areas and tasks". According to Brown (2013:163), crime prevention, in contrast to community policing, is a set of programmes designed by the police to involve the community in the process of preventing crime. Crime prevention is an educational programme the police provide to teach the public how the best to protect themselves from becoming victims of crime. Community policing, however, incorporates the concepts of crime prevention into its philosophy. According to Kruger *et al.* (2016:7), "crime prevention aims to address some of the causes of crime". As stated by the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC, 2010), prevention of crime includes approaches as well as measures that look for reduction of crime risks happening, and their possible harmful effects on society and individuals, including crime fear, by means of intervening to influence their multiple causes.

Zulu (2001) maintained that deficiency of family relations, socio-economic factors such as poverty and unemployment, psychological factors, impeded relationships and other factors like drug and alcohol abuse as well as programmes that are being broadcasted through different media platforms contribute to general culture of violence. Zulu (2001) recommends that that South Africans should actively participate in preventing, detecting and curbing the perpetuation of the culture of violence at homes and schools. Spohr and Eryk (2015:15) deliberate on "what

works in violence prevention, international promising practices” and connect to approaches and policies of SA, based what World Health Organisation (WHO) published in 2010 as a synopsis of study results on violence-prevention interventions’ effectiveness.” It also offers a synopsis on the assessment outcomes as well as displays range of intervention types with their influence on the specific violence types. The specific types of violence include sexual violence, youth violence, child maltreatment, elderly abuse, intimate partner violence, other kinds of self-directed violence and suicide. Well-supported by evidence, the study reveals which various kinds of intervention, impacting on specific types of violence. Such interventions are discussed below.

According to Spohr and Eryk (2015:16) there is much which experts based on various countries could learn from one another’s capabilities, experiences and understandings. For realisation of learning from each other, a detailed analysis of respective conditions and planning processes should be put in place. As stated by Spohr and Eryk (2015:16) “we cannot take a short-cut and use general evidence instead of specific analysis. Nevertheless, general conclusions can provide helpful insights for analysis and planning”.

Spohr and Eryk (2015:17) further analyse two South African perspectives on violence and crime prevention and approaches, namely: (i) “the national perspective of the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, with 13 prioritised focal areas for interventions on all levels”, and (ii) “a local perspective with nine prioritised themes for community safety”. These perspectives in a South African context are presented on Table 4.1 underneath:

Table 4.1: Two South African perspectives on violence and crime prevention approaches

Interventions for Integrated Social Crime-Prevention Strategy, 2011	Subjects for Safety of Community
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Family structures and cohesion ▪ Social support and assistance for pregnant girls and women ▪ Early Childhood Development (ECD) ▪ Exploitation, abuse, and neglect of children ▪ Empowerment of victims and programmes for domestic violence ▪ Addressing trauma and providing victim support ▪ Mobilisation and development of community ▪ Addressing abuse of substance ▪ Programmes for health, HIV & AIDS and feeding ▪ Programmes for social crime prevention ▪ Programme for extended public works ▪ Programmes for schooling ▪ Prevention and reduction of gun violence, and enforcement of law 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Maintainable forums aimed at coordinated actions in safety of community ▪ Accessibility to essential services intended for safety ▪ Community free of alcohol and drug abuse ▪ Sustainable programmes for pre-school education. ▪ Conducive, supportive and safe environment designed for youth and children ▪ Conducive, supportive and safe environment designed for women ▪ Sustainable programmes aimed at safety in streets as well as in neighbourhoods ▪ Providing basic economic needs ▪ Communities free of weapon

Source: *Spohr and Eryk*. (2015) Building safer communities through systemic approaches to violence prevention.

Spohr and Eryk (2015:18) maintain that there are several models of successful violence and crime-prevention initiatives in SA and they argue that these models are very often “community-based, with a holistic perspective on violence and crime and their prevention”. Kruger *et al.* (2016:5) state that “a crime prevention strategy provides a useful framework to support the development and implementation of crime prevention initiatives at local level”. The strategy for community crime prevention gives a “framework for the crime and violence prevention activities that will make the community safer”. In addition, certain societies devised supportive strategies as well as handbooks for backing experts in prevention of crime and violence operations to organise and realise their tasks, projects and programmes. Various authors have published these supportive strategies and handbooks on prevention of crime and violence for easy referencing. The work of these authors is outlined below:

Lieberman *et al.* (2000) provide a conceptual foundation and model “for the development of crime prevention strategies”. A tool with valuable directing “questions” that gives overall planned “questions” appropriate process for planning process of strategies for crime prevention is provided. Local governments and municipalities are the targeted groups for this model. The

model offers “step-by-step guidance on how to develop a local crime prevention strategy in SA”. Its approach gives direction for the creation of a localized crime prevention strategy, supporting wide participation of various stakeholders and community. The model has a step-by-step approach in conducting a community safety audit. This includes community crime problems identification by means of gathering information and facts, identifying role-players at present participating in community prevention of crime initiatives, analysing areas’ profile and environmental designs, problems ranking, deciding and prioritisation, analysing community prioritised problems, creating focus areas to prioritise, ascertaining likely partners and associates, identifying potential solutions, choosing the best appropriate programmes and projects and purifying them, and getting relevant support for the selected programmes (Lieberman *et al.*, 2000).

Holtmann (2010) describes the model that offers useful outline of separate components of community safety. Holtmann (2010) further provides a wide variety of ideas as well as information concerning safety, crime and violence, concentrating “on an integrated community safety concept”. Information Communication and Technology (ICT)-based instruments provide “a set of analysis tools for complex analysis with a safety lens”. The model is community-based; therefore, its target group is community. The Local Society Strategy Toolkit (LSST) gives “sets of tools, templates, and instruments that can be used by officials to develop their own strategies”. It offers a valuable “framework for social crime prevention at local level”. The approach of this model mentions the model of “Safe Community of Opportunity” that Holtmann (2010) formulated. It is an “integrated community safety approach” that deals with lack of safety “as a whole-government and whole-society problem”. It is a systemic bottom-up and process approach. Since this model is ICT-based, hence accessibility challenges. Strongly promotion of collaboration between local role-players is acknowledged by the model and the ICT toolkit. The planning, monitoring and evaluation of this model provide a set of planning tools that are ICT-based. It is regarded as “a tool for the facilitation of a shared vision for a Safe Community of Opportunity and proposed indicators for performance measurement towards the achievement of such community of opportunity” (Holtmann, 2010).

Mgudlwa and Ström (2010) describe a model that provides a “broad range of concepts and information on violence and crime prevention”. They refer to institution and success stories. The model stresses community safety as an entire problem or task of the society. It also offers

“tools for community safety analysis with a safety lens”. It targets community mobilisation as well as community awareness-raising programmes. The study focuses at prevention of crime at level of community, and, starting on causes, attends to problems of enforcement of law as opposed to prevention of crime. This model is simply applied with certainly not having detailed knowledge and skills needed. It encourages for instance active support of community safety, e.g. in a CPF. The planning, monitoring and evaluation of this model promotes acting “with small steps to start and support for developing an action plan” (Mgudlwa and Ström, 2010).

Landman, Meiklejohn, and Coetzee (2008) elaborate on the model that supplies “conceptual context information”. The model mentions as a “*Safety Strategy for Gauteng, 2009-2014*” that has four pillars that focus on, firstly, enhancing policing quality; secondly, advocating “social crime prevention”; thirdly, establishing institutional engagements; and lastly, promoting participation of community. The model’s main focus is crime and security. The model attends to “Stage 1 of a community safety audit”, by identifying community problems and community understanding. In this model there is a robust “focus on crime” compare to “violence and crime and respective risk and protective factors”. This model targets local government and municipalities and integrates “a safety planning process under the Integrated Development Planning (IDP) of local municipalities”. This approach, as guideline, provides “a description of the integration of processes”... [and]...“incorporates safety planning into the integrated development planning process by local authorities”. It endorses “Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) measures of local governments”. This model supports “municipal governance instead of government”, as well as wider understanding underlining significance of participation of community, stakeholders and civil society. Stage 2 deal with developing a community participation strategy that expounds on planning, monitoring and evaluation, Stage 3 deals with management and implementation of strategy for the community participation strategy, and Stage 4 deals with strategy for monitoring and evaluation of the strategy for community participation (Landman, Meiklejohn, and Coetzee, 2008).

Kruger and Landman (2008) compiled Gauteng Department of Community Safety training manual which focuses on CPTED, crime and security. In this model they provide a tool with checklists regarding concerns around the CPTED and the characteristics of the physical environment. The checklist further provides “a range of questions on information regarding the characteristics of the physical environment in order to identify links with crime patterns and

crime in specific hotspots”. It further provides the key questions to consider for project management, such as defining prerequisite kinds of “management skills” and common management prerequisites. It identifies whether there is a need for local implementers and aims to incorporate CPTED to bigger prevention interventions. This model direct “checklist for the physical analysis of the neighbourhood and processing relevant information about the neighbourhoods’ safety aspects”. It further provides the tool with the “checklist for the analysis of crime hotspots and getting and processing relevant information on crime hotspots”. The questions in this toolkit “identify the specific spatial and a few social characteristics of a place to determine which factors offer opportunities for crimes to occur” (Kruger and Landman, 2008). The model focuses more on crime than on violence. It targets officials from local government as well as advocating for CPTED measures’ implementation. The planning, monitoring and evaluation of this model provides, among others, tools to support decision-making regarding prioritising strategies and programmes.

4.3 BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES MODELS

There are views that the entire NDP stands for achievement of “a better future for all”. In the same vein, there are various views of Chapter 12 of the NDP. One of the views is that it is “a strategy” for violence and crime reduction. The NDP recognises “an integrated approach to safety and security requiring co-ordinated activity across various departments, the private sector, and community bodies, and it encourages community activism and responsiveness” (Government of SA, 2012:350). Through dealing with violence and crime problems “the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development” is supported. As stated by Kruger *et al.* (2016:9) provide the example of a multi-pronged approach using “a crime such as hijacking” and further argue that “police could patrol a high-risk area, arrest the suspects and investigate the case. However, they could do even more, by getting other role-players to provide better street lighting in high-risk areas, cut the grass at intersections, convince vehicle owners to take precautions and be more vigilant, and provide potential offenders with alternative employment opportunities”. Metropolitan area should collaborate with government and non-government to create their safety desires and strategies to achieve their goals and objectives and create community safety evaluations as well as improve “street lighting, remove rubbish dumps and hazardous waste and municipal bylaws to increase community safety and wellness” (Government of SA, 2012:358).

4.3.1 Community-based crime prevention

The creation of a safer living environment is highly dependent on an integrated approach involving policing and community participation. Tilley (2007:758) clarifies the two terms participation and community as “community” alluding to “small neighbourhoods, small towns, or villages, areas of city, whole cities, the populace at large or subgroups defined by some common attribute other than shared geographic area residence” while “participation” referring to “identification of priority issues, development of preventative responses, and engaging in efforts to reduce crime”. Kruger *et al.* (2016: 26) describe “community participation as an important and valuable tool to assist in the process of changing perceptions, empowering people and developing a mutual understanding”. Hence, community participation remains a fundamental tool for the effective implementation and monitoring of the NDP in building safer communities.

According to Kruger *et al.* (2016: 26), community participation should not be confused with consultation as community participation involves far more than that. They describe meaningful community participation as “where people are actively involved in making decisions about the planning and implementation of the processes, programmes and projects that affect them [...] it ensures that people are equal and active partners in the decision-making process. [...] not just getting opinions and feedback on proposed actions [...] have a better understanding of the issues and difficulties associated with their particular problem or need [...] share the responsibility to develop practical solutions to the issues raised”. Wilson (1950:420) highlights the importance of good police–community relations for successful policing. According to Wilson (1950), the “active interest and participation of individual citizens and groups are vital to the success of most police programmes”.

According to Kruger *et al.* (2016:25), “community involvement, in all of the aspects of developing and implementing crime prevention strategy, is vitally important”. They affirm that “community participation is an integral part of the entire process of developing and implementing programmes geared to build safer communities [...] should be the underlying approach that governs all aspects from inception through to implementation and monitoring of the different projects that make up crime prevention strategy”,

4.3.2 Understanding aims and objectives in building safer communities

Kruger *et al.* (2016: 49) maintain that “it is not always easy to get a common understanding of the meaning of aims and objectives, and it could be a challenge to define these for a project (plan, strategy)”. The authors explain that the aims of the plan clarify “what the desired end results or intentions of the plan are”. In the case of the NDP, its aims are “what it would like to accomplish and not how it will be done” and “how the aims will be achieved” (Kruger *et al.*, 2016: 49).

4.3.2.1 Understanding of outputs and outcomes in building safer communities

Kruger *et al.* (2016: 50) define outputs as the “tangible or intangible deliverables that are produced as part of certain tasks in the process of meeting the objectives or ultimate aim of the project (plan, strategy)”. Therefore, visibly describing the NDP Chapter 12’s outputs carries value for those responsible for the implementation of it, especially for understanding the expectations and the level of accountability. Kruger *et al.* (2016: 50) explain outcomes as the result of implemented activities and outputs. In this case, effective implementation of the NDP Chapter 12 could result in safer communities as the outcome. For successful NDP implementation, it is also required that the NDP’s tangible and intangible deliverables tackle actual problems and challenges, bear objectives that are clearly defined, grounded on precisely crafted and clearly assessed plans, closely implemented and managed through a skilled knowledgeable, inspired and dedicated team, who receives the vital stakeholders’ support, sufficiently capacitated and resourced, possessing strong leadership skills; and their evaluation founded on effective delivery of service (Kruger *et al.*, 2016: 50).

4.3.2.2 Understanding monitoring in building safer communities

Successful NDP implementation also requires monitoring and evaluation. Monitoring is described by Kruger *et al.* (2016:53) as “ongoing process that measures progress of an initiative by tracking activities, milestones and outputs to establish if planned results are being achieved.... normally a management function that improves decision-making and helps identify the need for remedial action”. Kruger *et al.* (2016:53) mention involvement of “continuous, systematic collection of data and information and the documenting of processes

and results to guide decisions regarding the future of the initiative”. From monitoring the NDP Chapter 12 implementation, the SAPS and other stakeholders could learn from experience which can enhance future implementation as well as advantage further interventions aimed at improving safety of communities.

4.3.2.3 Understanding of evaluation in building safer communities

Evaluating policing successes and effectiveness is essential (Brown, 2013:171). According to Kruger *et al.* (2016: 53) “evaluations are conducted to find out if an initiative has achieved the desired results as a consequence of the activities being implemented and the outputs being delivered”. During evaluation, achievements, results of the initiatives of the plan, as well as priorities, objectives and aims are assessed. Therefore, evaluation of NDP implementation is the cornerstone for realising safer communities in SA. Kruger *et al.* (2016:53) argue that evaluation involves a “systematic assessment of aspects such as efficiency, impact, effectiveness, relevance, quality, and sustainability”. They further argue that preferably and regularly “the responsibility for an evaluation should be given to an external, independent agency in an effort to ensure impartiality”. The initiatives are usually evaluated after the work is done or in phases during implementation. Evaluation of NDP Chapter 12 evaluation should not just be a compliance issue but should also add value: the information gathered should inform “strategic decisions as well as offer learning that could be applied to other initiatives that support the realisation of safer communities” (Kruger *et al.*, 2016: 53).

4.3.2.4 Selection of SMART indicators in building safer communities

The SMART indicators refer to goals that are Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timely.

Kruger *et al.* (2016: 57) argue that carefully selected indicators help with the monitoring and evaluation function, to “ensure that they provide reliable information when needed and without undue effort”. Therefore, identification and selection of indicators to measure execution of the NDP and associated strategies is paramount important. It is important that indicators must assist with facilitation of the SAPS’ assessment of progress achieved in implementing NDP Chapter 12 concentrating on and aligning with inputs, outputs, results, objectives and aims. In a

nutshell, these indicators are generally selected to aid tracking progress in reaching certain milestones and delivering planned outputs.

As the NDP is executed, associated strategies, plans, programmes, and projects should use “various types of indicators to measure performance, including input, process, output, outcome, and impact indicators” (Kruger *et al.* 2016:57). Usually, straight monitoring is linked with the first three types (input, process, and output) while the last two (outcome and impact) is linked more with straight evaluations. Kruger *et al.* (2016) further emphasise the importance of selecting smart and good indicators that are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-related.

Establishing indicators related to monitoring NDP implementation and developing specific indicators for Chapter 12 and each of the individual strategies, plans, programmes, and projects should be a priority for the SAPS. Through monitoring, stakeholders’ commitment levels in implementing the NDP could be measured. Implementation of effective local crime prevention plays a key role in realising the vision of safer communities. Kruger *et al.* (2016:63) argue that “institutionalising the local crime prevention process means changing structures and/or attitudes”. This is key to institutionalise, mostly for the following:

- a. **Mainstreaming:** Integrated approach of crime and safety prevention from policy-making to working and execution modalities.
- b. **Policy and legal reform:** Policies, regulation and laws identification to improve prevention of crime and safety of community, collaboration of inter-agency and participatory action for localised crime prevention.
- c. **Attitudinal change:** Individual organisation’s methods of operation, activities and policies and individual job descriptions and working modalities in relation to their implications for crime prevention and safety.
- d. **Strengthening local governance:** Policies, regulation and laws identification and development to strengthen and empower local government, improve local governance and municipal service delivery.
- e. **Public and political support:** Development of awareness, capacities and knowledge to prevent crime and improve and maintain safety of community safety.

4.3.3 Community policing in building safer communities

The concept of community policing did not emerge overnight and it has been evolutionary process and among others, its main goal is to enhance “the quality of life in a community” (Brown, 2013:172). Therefore, safer communities remain the sign of “the quality of life in communities”. Community policing’s objectives include crime, victimisation and crime fear reduction, as well as crime prevention, arrest of criminals, and promotion of security of the community (Farrell 2007; Brown, 2013). Community policing seeks to directly reduce the frequency of the victimisation in a number of ways.

Tilley (2007:758) describes “community policing” as a “decentralised form of policing with a particular focus on local neighbourhoods where local priority issues are identified and addressed, often through problem-solving involving residents and businesses”. According to Brown (2013:152), the overall philosophy of community policing acknowledges police’s accountability not only “to the law” but also to law-abiding people. To ensure effective policing and have police actions accepted and supported by the community, people should authorise police actions that deal with crime and disorder, and should approve of the strategies used.

Accountability is critical in policing. Accountability strengthens partnership, collaboration, and trust. The community policing philosophy, according to Brown (2013:152), provides a mechanism for police accountability to communities, recognises need for community legitimacy, and creates a framework within which the police can work in collaboration with residents to solve community problems that are related to crime, fear, violence, and quality of life. The basic principles of community policing are community collaboration and problem-solving. Based on analyses of communities’ crime and disorder problems, prioritised in collaboration with citizens, officers seek to identify police government, business, and citizen resources that could be mobilised to eliminate the conditions that give rise to community unrest (Brown, 2013:152).

Under community policing, the police no longer simply incident responders, nor do they position themselves as the sole experts dealing with criminal problems. The community policing collaboration is described by Brown (2013:153) as an intense and active affair, providing a true sharing of responsibility for the achievement of the desired police and

community goal of safe and secure communities. In the manifestation of community policing, when a crime or quality-of-life problem is identified as a pattern, a solution is developed through collaborative discussion between the community and police. Therefore, according to Brown (2013: 153), community policing is regarded as “a philosophy that governs how citizens’ expectations and demands for police services are integrated into police actions to identify and address those conditions that have an adverse effect on the safety and welfare of neighbourhood life”.

Community policing rather than being a technique, is a style for delivering police services (Brown, 2013:164). Community policing’s concentration is also on the reduction of “opportunities for crime” to be committed and preventing crime through problem-solving. Crime does not occur in a vacuum; it results from conditions that create environments that are conducive to illegal activities. According to Brown (2013:115), in poorer communities, where there is substantial unemployment, poor education, and limited opportunities to participate in the economic system, opportunities for crime flourish. The level of neighbourhood cohesiveness contributes in the social and economic settings that create environments in which crime flourishes. Highly organised communities, areas in which there is full participation of residents and business people in the life of the neighbourhoods, have far less fear of crime than disorganised communities that are more susceptible to crime (Brown, 2013:115).

According to Brown (2013, 156), the primary focus on community policing is solving chronic problems by means of intervening in an actual or potential pattern of incidents of concern to a community so that the underlying conditions which created the problem are eliminated. Community policing problem-solving orientation recognises that community problems rarely just arise. Community policing try to find the problems’ nature and take action that impact on the fundamental causes.

Brown (2013:157) states that developing a community’s capacity to exist in a peaceful and orderly state is essential in reducing levels of crime. The degree to which a community is organised will impact on its level of fear. The degree of organisation will also impact the community’s ability to control its environment since it is primarily in disorganised communities that crime and disorder flourish. The police alone cannot guarantee safe streets and order. According to Brown (2013:157), when communities depend on police – “who

cannot be omnipresent – for maintenance of order, residents often keep their doors locked, and are unwilling to use their streets for recreation, seldom venturing outside of their four walls for fear of criminals who may roam the streets of the areas in which they live”.

Community policing recognises the role citizens should play in upholding safe and orderly surroundings (Tilley, 2007). Usually, the police attempt to take total responsibility for community safety and order by asking the communities to inform them whenever they observe criminal activity. This type of system is usually not sustainable (Brown, 2013). He further indicates that community policing recognises that the police can only be co-producers of order in a community. It recognises the residents should commit themselves to maintaining an orderly environment. Community policing seeks to maintain neighbourhood order and stability through community involvement, with police aiding as needed and requested by residents (Brown, 2013:157). It is in this context that community policing fosters “a sense of trust”, not only among the police and residents, but also among residents. Brown (2013:158) maintains that properly implemented community policing serves as “the catalyst that facilitates the engagement, voluntarism and trust that enables the cooperation and coordination of all available resources to the benefit of the community”.

According to Brown (2013:157), this interpersonal trust “creates an atmosphere of reciprocity which brings to bear resources of individuals and their organisations to collaborate with police and other agencies to address the issues of crime and quality of life in communities”. He further argues that this idea remains “consistent with the concept of *social capital*”, which describes the accessibility of resources through the organisations in which they are members. In short, *social capital* refers to societal relations features – like “interpersonal trust, norms of reciprocity and membership in civic organisations– that function as resources for individuals to facilitate collective action for mutual benefit” (Putnam, 1993). Zulu (2001) proposed the mobilisation of communities to act against violence and the development of strategies to address the socio- economic and psychological factors affecting different communities. Appropriately executed community policing can enhance collaboration between communities and police and promote community trust of the police. This could contribute to building safer communities.

4.3.4 Community policing principles

Brown (2013:158) states that community policing represents a decision-making and operational philosophy supported by different principles of policing communities and he describes the following six principles of community policing:

4.3.4.1 Principle 1: Community policing is a proactive rather than a reactive response to community policing

According to Brown (2013:395), community policing provides the philosophical and operational framework for moving the police beyond the short-term after-the-fact style of policing to a more proactive and collaborative style that has proven to improve quality of life in the communities. Inherent in the community policing philosophy is an understanding that the incidents to which police are called frequently reflect a series of events that constitute a pattern. Under community policing, the police seek understanding of fundamental problems and patterns as well as factors in the life of the neighbourhood that gave rise to those problems. In doing so, community policing seeks to address the concerns of a community before they manifest themselves as incidents requiring a response from the police.

As stated by Brown (2013:159), “proactive policing” means assignment of the police towards patrolling function will focus their attention on learning about the communities they are responsible for, establish relationships “with the people who live or work there” and get to know the area’s youth. It means working with law-abiding citizens in improving “the quality of life” in the surrounding areas. Although patrol officers are accessible in terms of responding to assistance calls by citizens, the officers’ pre-occupation will be problem-solving and not merely responding to incidents. Proactive policing also involves other units of the police department in addition to patrol. Crime analysis is used to identify both crime and problem patterns as well as to investigate the nature of these problems.

4.3.4.2 Principle 2: Community policing involves a partnership between the public, police and private agencies

Kruger *et al.* (2016:15) define partnerships as the ways of “using the resources and skills in a community in such a way that all partners benefit and crime and violence is reduced”. As stated by Brown (2013:157), “by forming a partnership between police and citizens, community policing seeks to support the ability of neighbourhoods to assume some responsibility for their sense of order and peace”. Chapter 7 of the SAPS Act, 68 of 1995 makes provision for “the establishment of Community Police Forums and Community Police Boards” and the aforementioned structures act as a platform to promote partnership between the SAPS and the community, with the aim of fulfilling the needs of the community. This provision ensures that the SAPS is always accountable to the community and firmly entrenches or institutionalises the practice of community policing. Additionally, the SAPS is not precluded from establishing partnerships beyond the forums and boards, as enshrined in Section 18(2) of the Act. It is the same section that allows the SAPS to enter into partnership with private agencies such as the Business against Crime (BAC) and the South African Banking Risk Information Centre (SABRIC) partnerships. Kruger *et al.* (2016:22) maintain that “a well-thought-through partnership is more important than who initiates it”.

Promoting a communal sense of security is essential in building “partnerships between the police, public, and private agencies” (Brown, 2013:156). The working partnership between police and community places police officers in close, route contact with neighbourhood residents and businesses in positive problem-solving context. This creates a highly visible police presence in areas of the community where significant problems that concern residents exist. Kruger *et al.* (2016:15) and Brown (2013:156) hold the similar view that rather than simply driving through a community in a marked police vehicle, the police officer in the community policing model uses mainly the vehicle “as a means of transportation” to get from one destination to another. Interacting with residents, working on solving problems, and developing positive working relationships with agencies, business owners, young people, and parents in the neighbourhood are critical in establishing partnerships and strengthening police presence in the community as well as creating positive “impact on the public perception of safety” and neighbourhood patrolling.

According to Kruger *et al.* (2016:21), there are numerous reasons why local government should lead in building safer communities. Successful prevention of crime interventions necessitate collaboration among various groups. On the other hand, partnerships are not at all times easy to establish and sustain. Partnerships intended for prevention crime require coordination and leadership as well as constant community involvement and participation. Brown (2013:160) maintains that since partnership development amongst the community and police stays a cornerstone of the community policing, the police often work to organise neighbourhood groups and link the needs of the citizens with the services provided by law enforcement. The development and utilisation of these agency resources enable the police to be more successful in preventing and solving crime. This has the added advantage of helping police better understand the concerns of the people and forge from that relationship a commitment to make crime-fighting a total community effort and not simply a job for the police (Brown, 2013).

Problem-solving policing continues to be an integral part of community policing (Brown, 2013). The SAPS has institutionalised the technique of crime and problem analysis, which is the essence of problem-solving. Community policing goes beyond problem-solving policing. Problem-solving policing is a technique used by the police to address problems in communities. Safer communities are built through problem-solving and requires careful analysis of the conditions and issues that give rise to problems. This is essential because what may appear to be a single and isolated incident may in fact be part of a complex social condition that requires the intervention of agencies other than the police in order to resolve the problem.

According to Brown (2013:160), disorder signs, interpersonal conflict, incivility, and crime fear are matters that can be dealt with by means of the problem-solving process. Kruger *et al.* (2016:21) and Brown (2013:161) acknowledge that under community policing, the police and the community collaboratively define the problems, set priorities as to which issues are to be addressed, determine the most appropriate tactics and strategies to be used and then utilise the combined resources of the police and the community to resolve issues.

According to Kruger *et al.* (2016:22), the “range of role-players to include in a partnership are dependent on the local context”. They suggest that in the least collaboration ought to if at all possible include the subsequent groups or establishments, namely, the SAPS, local provincial and government security and safety departments; state departments, especially “Justice and

Correctional Services and the Department of Social Development (and also considering the Health, Education, and Human Settlements), Community Policing Forums (CPFs), Community Safety Forums (CSFs), civil society and community-based organisations, businesses and non-government people from your area”. According to Brown (2013: 152), without a community partnership, police actions will not have a long-term impact on changing unfavourable neighbourhood conditions.

Kruger *et al.* (2016, 23) further state that partnership’s role and purpose are dependent on local conditions and circumstances. They ascertain that partnerships establishment may well be about “specific crime and violence problems, specific initiatives” as well as specific issues as long as each partnership agrees on its specific roles and responsibilities. They further maintain that evolution of “specific roles and responsibilities” happens over period as cooperation, relationships and interactions grow.

According to Brown (2013:150), community policing exists as a collaborative partnership among the law-abiding citizens and police. This collaborative partnership is intended for crime prevention, improvement of the quality of life within the communities, solving of community problems and arresting of offenders in return of building community trust and confidence. According to Brown (2013), partnership entails a four-stage process involving the community and police. The partnership is designed towards (i) jointly identification of crime plus other problems which impact negatively on community life and its quality; (ii) jointly determine the best strategies for solving these problems; (iii) use the combined resources of the police, various government agencies, residents and public and private organisations to address the problems; and (iv) evaluate the results of the problem-solving efforts, making strategy adjustments, as necessary.

4.3.4.3 Principle 3: Community policing is based on a set of values

According to Brown, (2013) under community policing the framework within which police services are delivered is set forth in a set of values, and clear and explicit articulations of what the organisation believes in and stands for. Values serve as the basis for setting policy, implementing programmes, guiding behaviour and delivering police services. It is within the

context of written values that members of the police departments exercise their discretion and employ flexibility and creativity in conducting their crime control and problem-solving.

A value-driven department, an important attribute of community policing, creates a culture allowing the police to be judged based on criteria such as community power-sharing, citizen involvement and “commitment to the rule of law” inherent from democratic society’s principles and it has often been stated by community policing advocates that it is ‘*democracy in action*’ (Brown, 2013:161).

4.3.4.4 Principle 4: Community policing focuses the delivery of police services on the neighbourhood level

Brown (2013:162) argues that the philosophy of community policing recognises “city neighbourhoods as the focal point for the delivery of police services”. Inherent in this recognition is also a decrease in specialisation in favour of a move towards generalisation. The police are assigned to a neighbourhood on a permanent basis and are expected to get to know the people who live or work there, their problems, concerns and priorities, but even more important, to engage them in a process of collaboration intended for problems solving and improvement of “the quality of life” in community neighbourhoods.

4.3.4.5 Principle 5: Community policing involves being accountable to residents in neighbourhoods

The principle of community policing is that problems, issues, concerns, and priorities differ from one neighbourhood to another (Brown, 2013:162). In order to be responsive to the people, the police should know what is important to those who live in a given neighbourhood. If police are going to gain this understanding, ongoing contact with the residents is important. Equally important, is keeping the residents informed of the criminal activities happening within their communities. The regular and ongoing contact with residents empowers the police to advance an atmosphere of mutual respect and cooperation. As the police interact with the communities, they also become accountable to them. Where police are accountable to both their organisations and to the people they serve, mutual trust and reduction of crime fear are likely to happen (Tilley, 2007 and Brown, 2013).

4.3.4.6 Principle 6: Community policing involves sharing power with the people

According to Brown (2013:161), power sharing denotes that the police involve the community in their decision making if legally acceptable, and it does not threaten a legitimate police operation. This means that the police should be prepared to trust law-abiding residents within the community and involve them in the decisions that impact their lives. Both the police and residents benefit by power-sharing. The nature of community policing is such that passive citizen involvement is not sufficient. Kruger *et al.* (2016:21) and Brown (2013:161) admit that the police benefit because fairly often communities have information that will be helpful to them in both preventing crime and arresting offenders. Members of the public benefit because they will have safer communities in which to live.

In line with Brown's "six principles of community policing", SAPS 1997 "Community Policing Policy and Guidelines" (SAPS, 1997) is premised on five principles of community policing of the SAPS, which include (i) "Service orientation" which its fundamentals are police service that is professionalised, responsiveness to needs the community and accountability towards attending to them; (ii) "Partnership" which its basics are cooperation and process of consultation process towards resolving problem; (iii) "Problem-solving" which its foundations are crime root causes analysis and development of actions to tackle them; (iv) "Empowerment" which its basics are shared responsibility and capabilities to tackle crime; and (v) "Accountability" which its fundamental is accountability culture to address communities' needs and concerns.

4.3.5 Evaluating community policing

4.3.5.1 Benefits in implementing community policing

From the discussion, it is clear that there are benefits in implementing community policing. Brown (2013:168) maintains that under community policing, police officers develop a better understanding of community priorities and spend more time working to resolve issues and underlying problems. While police officers alone cannot resolve many of the problems afflicting communities, they can certainly have a far greater impact than they have had in the past. They can also change those practices that alienate citizens. That alone is reason enough

for police departments to adopt the community policing philosophy. According to Brown (2013:169), community policing enhances the creative capabilities of police officers while traditional policing, with its command-and-control orientation, has severely limited positive police officer initiatives. Working in the heart of communities and given the opportunity to be creative and thoughtful about community problems, police officers have demonstrated a strong capacity to collaborate with residents and initiate activities that actually address the underlying causes of problems that concern residents.

Brown (2013:169) argues that community policing also provides communities with a feeling that police officers are sensitive to their concerns. Citizens' belief in order and organisation increases dramatically when police officers learn to listen to communities. Citizens are further encouraged when they recognise that the police are responsive to them, their ideas and their sensibilities. The ability of communities and the police to jointly deal with crime is enhanced by the concept of community policing. In the opinion of Brown (2013:169), although the basic conditions of poverty, poor education, and joblessness may not be resolved, a highly organised community has the greatest chance to avoid falling prey to crime and fear of crime. Residents have vested interest in seeing this type of climate created.

4.3.5.2 Arguments against community policing

A number of observers have provided arguments against community policing. According to Brown (2013:169), these arguments fall into three key areas, namely, the suggestion that (i) community policing is not 'real' police work; (ii) there is insufficient time for the work required by community policing; and (iii) problem solving is the duty of others, not that of the police. The common arguments against community policing have focused on belief that "community policing is not 'real police work'", as well as that true policing does not engage in activities beyond the narrow mandate of law enforcement. It is argued that engaging in activities beyond the mandate of law enforcement scope; takes the police into areas that are the responsibility of other agencies, which is not really police work (Brown, 2013). Community policing is included as not being the police primary function, namely enforcing the law.

It is argued that police do not have sufficient time to properly conduct the work mandated by the community policing philosophy. Taking the view that the police have responsibility to

respond as quickly as possible to every call for service that comes from a citizen, critics suggest that the increasing demands for police service limits the available time police have to engage in problem-solving activities. What this view fails to consider is the fact that “the number of calls for service received by the police” relate to the success that the police have in solving community problems (Brown 2013:169).

When police view 10111 calls as incidents, and simply respond to manage the ‘immediate’ and underlying situations, the reality of what caused the incidents usually goes unresolved. More calls for service are generated. Under community policing, police focusing on the nature of the underlying problems that generate 10111 service demands could resolve problems and thus reduce the number of future calls for service. Careful management of calls for service activity screen out those calls not requiring police presence. Delaying response to such calls, or routing them directly to agencies that could more effectively address the immediate problem, allows for additional police time that could be devoted to solving neighbourhood problems (Brown 2013:169).

Another argument against community policing focuses on the perception that the concept is little more than social work. A police officer enforces the law while a social worker provides counselling to people, critics argue. The work of a police office under community policing has little to do with social work. Moore, Trojanowicz and Kelling (1988) argue that although both may deal with matters in a manner that is sensitive to conditions in the community and of people in need, there is little overlap between police duties and those of social workers.

Furthermore, critics say that any suggestion to residents that having police work closely with them on solving problem is beyond what can be delivered. Moore, *et al.* (1988) argue that any police department adopting the community policing philosophy is bargaining for more than it can manage. According to Brown (2013:169), community policing, is not a panacea for urban ills and has never promised to solve them all. What community policing does promise to do, is to increase police effectiveness by collaborating with communities, commencing the process of transformation. By bringing others into the problem-solving process, community policing increases the collaboration of government agencies and concerned citizens in dealing with issues such as crime, fear, and violence. The chance that meaningful action will result is increased in communities where the philosophy is adopted (Brown, 2013:169).

4.3.5.3 *Evaluating community policing successes and effectiveness*

Brown (2013:171) maintains that “community policing presents the opportunity to establish new criteria for evaluating police departments”. However, such evaluation extensively focuses on the ability of police to control the crime rate because many of the factors that cause crime are not controlled by the police. He further contends that while many of the conventional measures to achieve success are equally applicable to the community policing model, far more complex criteria are necessary to determine the real impact of community policing. Brown (2013) identifies the following four primary categories used for evaluation of community policing successes and effectiveness:

- a. **Fear reduction:** Fear reduction is a second element of community policing evaluation (Brown, 2013). It is important what the public feels about the police. Therefore, community support of the police is a particularly important criterion in evaluating the effectiveness of community policing. According to Brown (2013:172), a community’s “fear of crime declines as police officers assist in developing the community’s capacity” to fight back crime and enhance its level of order. It is important the police not only keep close contact with the community to reduce fear, but also encourage the citizens to support them in crime reduction effort. Thus, crime fear levels in communities is a significant measure of effective policing. Kelling (2007) maintains that activation of formal and informal control measures of crime is significant in crime reduction.
- b. **Community and government support for police initiatives:** Public perceptions indicate readiness to collaborate in control of crime, resolving the problems and addressing “quality of life” issues. According to Brown (2013:172), support for the police from both community and the government is another important measure of policing effectiveness. According to Faull and Rose (2012:18) currently, “not all communities have alternative structures to which the public could turn to address community ills, but in time, if the government pursues its vision, these will hopefully mushroom and become sustainable. Alternative structures will help solidify community bonds, contribute to nation-building and allow the police to fade into the background, only to appear promptly and with due courtesy whenever their specific expertise is required”.

- c. **Success at problem-solving:** According to Brown (2013:172), community policing does not promise to solve all the problems antagonising the police and the community, but it does provide a vehicle for bringing all parts of the community together to collaborate with the police to break the cycles of fear, crime, and disorder.

4.4 EFFECTIVE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM COMPONENTS

4.4.1 Accountability in the exercise of public power

According to Dixon, Gaines and Miller (2008), the CJS has obligation to implement recognised conduct principles to safeguard and protect the community and individuals. They explain three common goals of a modern CJS which are: (i) crime control; (ii) crime prevention; as well as (iii) provision and maintenance of justice. They emphasise that through arrest, prosecution, and punishment of criminals, it is a CJS's effort for crime control and prevention of commission of crime. They add that the goal for prevention paramount to explanation of tough sentence for criminals and preventing more commission of related criminal actions. Provision and maintenance of justice refers to the notion of justice linked to fairness and equality of total citizens "before the law" as well as the judgement by judges, prosecutors, police officers, CJS workers and prison commissioners on "what is fair" (Dixon *et.al*, 2008: 33).

Accountability is one of the symbols of a democratic country. Section 199(8) of 1996 Constitution of RSA provides for the establishment of multi-party committees to provide oversight of all security services in order to give effect to the democratic principles of transparency and accountability. In the National Assembly, the SAPS accounts to "the Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA)" as well as to "the Portfolio Committee on Police (PCOP)". The SAPS also account to the Select Committee on Security and Justice of the National Council of Provinces. The Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 ensures the right to lawful, procedurally fair and justifiable administrative actions taken by the SAPS against any person whose rights, interests, or legitimate expectations are affected or threatened by such action.

As stated by Kruger *et al.*, (2016:6), high levels of crime and violence place a hefty burden on the CJS. Schönteich (2014:1) argues that prosecutors as gatekeepers of the CJS are the most powerful officials and thus, accountability remains important. According to Schönteich (2014:3), accountability remains being an acknowledgement that prosecution services acquire their “powers from the state, which in turn derives its powers from the people” [and determining] the proper balance among prosecutorial accountability and independence remains challenging (Schönteich, 2014: 3). The 1996 Constitution of the RSA, section 179(4) makes provision for the prosecuting authority to perform its mandate “without fear, favour, or prejudice” (Government of SA, 1996). The National Prosecuting Authority Act 32 of 1998, as amended, section 32(1), remains similarly clear that “no one, including any organ of state, may improperly interfere with, hinder, or obstruct the prosecuting authority in the exercise or performance of its powers and functions”.

According to Schönteich (2014:3), “prosecutorial authorities must be sufficiently independent from external influence to permit the fair and impartial application of the law and prosecution policy. Yet prosecutors should be sufficiently transparent and accountable to the public to help ensure that prosecutorial authority is not abused”. For the citizens to have confidence to prosecutorial authorities, the independence and accountability of prosecutorial is extremely important. A proper balance between prosecutorial independence and accountability should be found. Schönteich (2014:1) maintains that a constructive oversight body could assist the NPA in equally enhance “its performance and public confidence in its work”.

The accountability principle in a democratic dispensation embraces government’s administrators as accountable and responsible towards people regarding their judgements, decisions together with actions that have been taken. According to Schönteich (2014:2), “in the absence of accountability, elections and the notion of the will of the people lose their meaning, and government has the potential to become arbitrary and self-serving”. According to Behn as cited by Schönteich (2014:2) “government accountability is about limiting bureaucratic discretion through compliance with rules and regulations”. The government accountability exists to achieve specially three issues: (i) effective utilisation of funds for the public, (ii) treatment of civilian in a just and fair manner, (iii) and ensuring that policy objectives are achieved as predetermined by the processes of democracy.

As stated by Chirwa and Nijzing (2012:5) there are three main components aimed at increasing accountability, namely, liability, responsiveness, answerability and enforceability. According to Chirwa and Nijzing (2012:5-6) government's accountability should be characterised by "institutions and agencies that are open, transparent and responsive to explain or justify their actions and omissions, and enforce standards of accountability when maladministration, an error of judgement, abuse of power or injustice occurs".

4.4.2 Criminal Justice System role-players

In SA, the CJS involves several entities namely, the police, prosecutors, courts, and correctional service. Within the system, police are responsible for preventing crime and apprehending offenders. Prosecutors are responsible for prosecuting those charged with community crimes. Courts have the role of determining guilt or innocence and sentencing those found guilty of committing a crime. Correctional Services has the dual role of incarcerating those who have been convicted and preparing them for their return to the society or supervision under a community service-based sentence.

According to Brown, Esbensen and Geis (2010:49), to comprehend "crime and criminals", knowing the process in utilisation of the law to legitimately brand person (s) as criminal (s) remains important. Therefore, there is important interconnection in the middle of criminology and criminal justice. While criminology is concentrating on elucidating crime phenomenon, criminal justice's focus is mainly worried about the responses of the society to criminals and crime. As a result, as perceived by Dixon *et al.* (2008: 34) "society places the burden of controlling crime, preventing crime, and determining fairness on those citizens who work in the three main institutions of the CJS".

Brown *et al.* (2010:54) state that "justice is administered by a Criminal Justice System that is charged with pursuing some combination of deterrence, incapacitation, rehabilitation, and retribution ... the system is comprised of police, courts, and corrections agencies". The main aims of criminal justice are to deter, incapacitate and rehabilitate with purpose of crime prevention. The foundation of retribution remains merely on illegal wrongdoing and immoral condemnation and includes the punishing the wrongdoing in attainment of a moral steadiness. Punishment then is morally required. Crime as perceived by Brown *et al.* (2010) necessitates

“imposition of a penalty that will remove the advantage gained by the offender and restore social balance”. Brown *et al.* (2010:51) view rehabilitation as “designed to change offenders by removing the motivation to engage in criminal behaviour [...] the assumption behind rehabilitation is that behaviour can be modified by altering attitudes, values, skills that cause criminal behaviour”.

Brown *et al.* (2010:50) suggest that “deterrence uses punitive sanctions to discourage persons from committing offences in future [...] deterrence theory and policy revolve around modes of punishment delivery and focus particular attention on police, prosecutorial, and judicial operations [...] deterrence, then, has the pragmatic goal of preventing crime by scaring offenders with the threat or application of punitive sanctions”. They further suggest that “incapacitation” strive for reduction and elimination of the offender’s capacity of further commission of criminalities. However, incarceration remains not completely an incapacitating (preventative from functioning in a normal way) measure as offenders may victimise institutional staff and other inmates.

Brown (2013:394) recognises that neither the police nor the CJS alone can effectively address the crime problem. He questions the ability of the courts and correctional facilities to effectively deal with those the police bring into the system. Community policing involves educating the public that they also have an obligation to participate in crime control efforts. If the society is to be successful in addressing the crime problem, it should go beyond the system of arrest, prosecution, and incarceration and also focus on the conditions that generate criminal behaviour. A collaborative effort is essential to maintain order, reduce crime, allay the fear of crime, and ensure an acceptable level of stability in neighbourhoods throughout communities. The police should understand that they are not solely responsible for the crime problem, and it is their responsibility to teach community regarding the crime complexity.

According to Brown (2013:397), unless the social institutions, e.g. family, school, church, and business, do their job, the corrosive consequences will continue to result in criminal activities. Wilson and Kelling (1982) in their ‘*Broken Windows*’ article point out that when neighbourhoods are allowed to physically deteriorate or crime is left unaddressed, residents do not take pride in their neighbourhoods and allow physical deterioration while crime flourishes. Tilley (2007:757) adds that the neglecting of minor forms of anti-social behaviour has

possibility of creation of a crime accommodating setting. Wilson and Kelling (1982) and Farrell (2007) maintain the importance of policing to prevent repeat victimisation. According to Wilson and Kelling (1982:12), “Just as physicians recognise the importance of fostering health rather than simply treating illness, so the police, and the rest of us, ought to recognise the importance of maintaining intact communities without broken windows”.

According to Swanepoel, Lotter and Karels (2014:11), presiding officers in the CJS have responsibility for ensuring fairness at trials. They deliver the judgement and in the case of a conviction, the appropriate punishment. They further assert that prosecutors and state advocates concerning (the RSA Constitution section 179) have single impeaching power and prosecutors, after reading the witness statements, are responsible for deciding whether the suspect should be prosecuted and on which charges.

Swanepoel *et al.* (2014:12) clarify the roles of the attorneys and advocates in the CJS as they state that private attorneys represent accused in lower courts and advocates in the high court. Attorneys can assist in a variety of problems while advocates are specialists in their respective fields. In addition, they explain the role of the clerks of the magistrate’s courts who administer the functioning of the courts and sworn court interpreters who are appointed to translate court proceedings and interpret in court cases if cases are conducted in a language that the accused does not understand. Swanepoel *et al.* (2014:13) explain how victims and complainants are essential parts of the criminal justice process as they are usually important witnesses in the state’s case and testify against the accused. Witnesses give evidence on the matter before the court.

Much as the South African CJS is composed of several components that all play a significant role in crime control, the police also play a pivotal role because of their responsibility to arrest offenders, using their resources to prevent crime. The importance of the police can be seen in their roles as doorkeepers to the CJS. Unlike the courts and prisons, the police have supreme advantage in terms of efficiency of being able to stop crime before it happens rather than merely dealing with offenders afterwards.

The SAPS is vital in the CJS because without police, law and order cannot be easily enforced. The CJS, in which police officials play a pivotal role, is guided by the Constitution of the RSA,

1996, section 205 (3). Police play a vital role in investigating and preventing crime and a leading role in law enforcement and in the CJS more generally. It is therefore essential that SAPS members have a holistic understanding of their individual roles within that context. “Without police officials, criminal law, criminal procedure, and law of evidence would become moot. Without a proper police force, a sovereign state would descend into chaos” (Swanepoel *et al.* 2014:14).

4.4.3 Organisational change

Successful NDP Chapter 12 implementation towards safety of the community maybe measured with relationship understanding among (i) structure, (ii) strategy, (iii) systems, (iv) style, (v) skills, (vi) staff and (vii) superordinate goals (Peters and Waterman, 1982:9). The SAPS and its business units are more than structures on the organisational diagram, although structures are important. *Seven S Concept*, which was developed by Peters and Waterman (1982) as consultants with McKinsey and Company, could be accepted as the central approach to comprehend effective NDP Chapter 12 implementation towards realising the safer community vision. Successful implementation of Chapter 12 of the NDP involves more than developing strategies, although strategy is important. In implementing Chapter 12 of the NDP, it is essential for the SAPS to understand that the organisation is effective because of the interaction of several factors. The Seven S concept forms part of critical variables that influences the building safer communities’ concept.

Peters and Waterman (1982:9-11) and Brown (2013:183) maintain that there are critical things in understanding organisational change: Firstly, there is more than one factor that influences a police division’s ability to change. This suggests that substantive organisation change is not a simple undertaking. To change the SAPS to be able to effectively execute the NDP in order to build safer communities is, equally, no simple undertaking. Secondly, “it is difficult to make substantive changes in one area without making changes in others”. Therefore, if the different variables involved in the initiative, or their interrelatedness, are ignored it becomes substantially difficult to implement the desired changes. Thirdly, some organisations’ attempts to implement major changes have been unsuccessful. The failure was not in the planning process, but in the execution of the plans. Often, failure results from not paying attention to structure, strategy, systems, style, skills, staff, and superordinate goals. For example, without

adequate logistics, the strategy is likely to fail and similarly, inadequate staff or incorrect systems could cripple the best plans of police organisational change. Fourthly, it is impossible to determine which of the seven factors will be more important in changing a particular organisation at a given time. There may be instances in which the critical variables will be strategy, in others it may be systems, structure, or style. Reviewing all these important things that are essential to understand the organisational change shows that it is not just a simple undertaking for the SAPS to effectively execute the NDP in order to build safer communities.

4.5 TOWARD PROFESSIONALISING AND PROFESSIONALISM IN POLICING

The Government of SA (2020: 38) draws the distinction between the concept of professionalisation and the concept of professionalism as it drafts the “national implementation framework towards the professionalisation of the public service”. The change of individual’s behaviour performance and attitude to serving the public is described as “the concept of professionalisation”. Serving people according to the RSA Constitution, *Batho Pele* Principles and Service Charter is the basis of being a servant. It further includes recruiting and placing qualified people who can do the job and are fully equipped to perform the job with diligence. Government of SA (2020:38) describes the concept of professionalism on the basis of “the practices, conduct, values and behaviour regardless of training, qualifications and levels of responsibility”. It is important that the police service is characterised by both the elements of professionalisation and professionalism as both elements are the cornerstone of public service.

According to Stone and Travis (2011:2) “new professionalism” is described through the principles of *inter alia* legitimacy, accountability, legitimacy, coherence and innovation. They state that each of the elements of “new professionalism” possesses “something to offer police and communities in which they work”. Briefly, “new professionalism” helps direct the vision, mission and standards in policing. Therefore, Stone and Travis (2011:2) emphasise the importance of commitment to accountability, commitment to legitimacy, commitment to innovation and commitment to national coherence as critical in the police professionalism.

As stated by Seron, Pereira and Kovath (2004:650), certain existing explanations advocate “police professionalism” [as] “an expectation that officers will perform their duties within a set

of fair, public, and accountable guidelines”. As stated by Faull and Rose (2012:18) “police professionalism remains an undefined and elusive concept in the South African context”. They suggest the redefining of police vision to mutually motivate the citizens and police to support the vision as this may contribute in the direction of evolving a “new police professionalism” in a South African context. Professional police calls a broader understanding on the existence of police and their obligatory responsibilities the South African context. Faull and Rose (2012) contend that determination for enhanced police professionalism can improve policing and drives possible changes in policing and public safety.

White (1972) suggests that literature emerging in the mid-20th century proposed “a professional police service” and improvement of police effectiveness crime control. Kelling and Moore (1998:10) argue emerging in the mid-20th century is the suggestion of detaching the police from “the political influences” and transforming them into being “specialists as crime fighters”. In the early 1950s, Roddenberry (1953:113) in summary proposed a police profession which includes: (i) being a servant; (ii) mind preparedness prior joining the policing profession; (iii) continuous enhancement of skills and competencies; (iv) self-sacrificing and devoted servant; (v) portraying organisational and individual professional image and reputation, as well as self-discipline and ethical conduct.

Holdaway (1977) in the late 1970s, outlines the “idea of police professionalism” grounded on the (i) attainment of professional knowledge on policing aspects; (ii) technology introduction in policing; (iii) grounding decisions on evidence; (iv) science utilisation in improving credibility of policing related activities; (v) expansion of police accountability both internal and external; and (vi) increased emphasis on the wider police mandate than effecting arrest. Holdaway (1977) acknowledges policing as having less focus on combatting crime and more focus solving problems. Subsequently then this has been extensively acknowledged, even in the 20th and 21st centuries. According to Faull and Rose (2012:2), the 20th century has experienced a change in terms utilisation such as “profession” and “professional” to apply to almost any income-earning occupation. According to Faull and Rose (2012:2), police professionalism has changed “in most modern democratic states, where police agencies are supported by codes of ethical behaviour, professional policies, formal training and career development”.

Skogan (2006) suggests that “negative experiences of police can significantly damage public perceptions of police, while positive encounters have only a minimal impact on improving perceptions”. On the other hand, Bradford, Jackson and Stanko (2009) found that “through visibility and communication, police in the United Kingdom can improve the public’s perception of them”. In addition to Skogan’s views, Jackson and Bradford (2010) suggest that trust in police and positive public perceptions of them require “shared values and morals, the feeling that police perform effectively and efficiently, and understand community needs, treat people fairly and communicate with individuals and communities”. Correspondingly, in SA numerous “victim survey research has suggested that perceptions of police tend to improve following contact with them”.

Terris (1976: 58) suggests that police ought to be “understood to be a ‘social service’ rather than crime fighters”. Terris (1976) suggests that “improved training and education alone would not improve relations”, however a re-conceptualisation of the police-profession is vital. In addition, should the work of the police “not be understood as people-oriented, those police officials who possess the social skills suited to problem-and social-oriented police work are not recognised or rewarded” (Terris, 1976:67). Terris indicates that police officials instead of directing their efforts on enhancing their “social and problem-solving skills, many focus on perpetuating their image as warriors on the front line of the war on crime”.

Wilson (1950) highlights “the importance of good police–community relations for successful policing” and suggests that the “active interest and participation of individual citizens and groups are so vital to the success of most police programmes that the police should deliberately seek to arouse, promote, and maintain an active public concern for their affairs”. Wilson (1950) supports “the community service model of professionalism, as opposed to that of crime fighter”. He also highlights “the importance of police–community interaction in building trust and legitimacy”. Sklansky (2011:11) maintains that “effective policing requires building trust and legitimacy and that trust and legitimacy depend heavily on fairness and decency”.

According to Kelling and Moore (1988:10), “community-oriented policing” increased acceptance in the 1980s and describe it as “the community problem-solving era”. The aforesaid era stayed categorised by means of “a closer relationship between police agencies and the communities they served”, and “the cooperative establishment of police priorities”.

Significance of community-oriented policing change, according to researchers, presented the paradigm shift in the direction of “crime reduction as not automatically decrease community feelings of safety” as the researchers discovered that “fear was more closely related to feelings of disorder” (Kelling & Moore, 1988). Instead of centring only on crime levels, Kelling and Moore (1988:13) believe that the achievement of the “community/problem-solving approach” had better be assessed through “quality of life in neighbourhoods, problem solution, reduction of fear, increased order, citizen satisfaction with police services, as well as crime control”. Their conclusion was that for reduction of fear plus tackling communities’ wider concerns, organisations of police require to be decentralized and police officials require to be provided “greater discretion to work closely with citizens to identify community problems and cooperatively devise solutions” (Kelling & Moore, 1988).

4.6 TOWARDS DEMILITARISATION OF POLICE

Faull and Rose (2012:5-6) attack militaristic policing during apartheid. They argue that....

“During apartheid the SAP justified its forceful and authoritarian policing with reference to an impending threat to the well-being of the white South African electorate. During the 1970s and 1980s, select police officials were assigned to the elite Security Branch, a division responsible for internal security, sabotage prevention, and the suppression of communist and pro-democracy bodies. The use of torture was common and political assassinations were carried out from time to time. During the same period, police officials were trained in counterinsurgency warfare and deployed to various conflict zones across the country’s borders together with the South African Defence Force (SADF).

In addition to investigating breaches of criminal law (predominantly in white areas), the SAP was constructed by the governing political authorities as the strong arm of order maintenance, holding back communism, the ‘swart gevaar’ (black danger or black threat) and anarchy. The 1970s saw the government and the SAP adopt a rhetoric of professionalisation similar to that which was evolving in developed

Western states. This coincided with the introduction of new technologies, the raising of education standards for recruits and a focus on the 'science' of policing. The University of South Africa (UNISA) played an important role in providing management courses.

The 1970s saw the government and the SAP adopt a rhetoric of professionalisation similar to that which was evolving in developed Western states and police diplomas, and continues to do so today. The 1980s saw a growth in managerialism (which remains dominant today) and the introduction of an internal research unit (which was shut down and re-established periodically over the years). The biased and forceful approach to policing, together with the illegitimacy of the apartheid state and its discriminatory laws, created a relationship of mistrust between citizens and the police, preventing the majority of civilians from perceiving the SAP as legitimate, particularly in the final two decades of apartheid”.

Faull and Rose (2012:5-6) describe professionalism and legitimacy in the SAPS following apartheid and maintain that “as apartheid unravelled in the early 1990s, and after the 1994 elections, the new democratic government focused on re-establishing a positive community–police relationship based on earned legitimacy”. They suggest that with regards to the “SAPS as the ‘crime fighters’ involved in a ‘war’, evidence indicates that forceful policing erodes police–civilian relationships”. They believe that once “police officials are encouraged to view their work as combative, they are more likely to establish community relationships based on domination, as opposed to service”. They add that “high arrest numbers may well politically serve the government’s ends, but militaristic and abrasive policing risks alienating the community that police officials are supposed to be a part of” (Faull and Rose, 2012:18).

Bittner (1970) notes that abusive policing especially in policing the underprivileged communities and stresses that police officials should do what they are qualified to do as well as competent to do. The police regulation should be adhered to. Steinberg (2011b) argues that emphasis ought to focus on giving police services to previously deserted communities versus concentrating on creating legitimacy in the democratic view as well as creating “investigative capacity”.

Steinberg (2011a) backs up Loader (2006:202) mentions to “deep but narrow’ policing”. Approaching viewpoint that “police officials are active shapers of communities”, Loader (2006:202) advocates police officials ought not to “contribute to security simply by controlling crime and preventing disorder” but they ought to relatively do their jobs in that they sustain the “conditions of a democratic common life in which the security of all individuals and groups can best flourish”.

According to Faull and Rose (2012), in certain cases “SAPS members continue to be viewed with distrust and fear”. Subsequently, “reports of police abuse and poor service remain common, destroy public confidence in the police”. The current reports within the public domain suggest more citizens believe that most police officers involve in corruption and fraud. While the expectations of policing are increasing, the SAPS is under pressure to clear and end this belief. Police’s effort alone does not have much impact on the decrease in crime. The public, nonetheless, views the police as having all the means and being the main driving force behind crime reduction. According to Faull and Rose (2012), some government and police rhetoric and perpetuate the impression that “crime is a police problem”. “With the persistent crime such as contact crimes not declining, community confidence in the police and safety feelings gradually decrease instead of improving. Without the commitment and dedication of more than 100 000 police officials, SA is bound to become a significantly less stable country to reside in” (Faull and Rose, 2012:17).

Furthermore, Faull and Rose (2012:17) state that “The SAPS, together with related government departments, metro police agencies, traffic enforcement authorities, police unions as well as university/research centres engaging with crime, safety and policing matters, might benefit from monitoring developments around police professionalism occurring in foreign jurisdictions. [and] These developments may hold significant and transferable lessons, such as the emphasis on knowledge-based police work in the UK”. Faull and Rose (2012:17) argue that the current articulations of professionalism in SA differ in many ways from those elsewhere. They are certain that SA remains well positioned to contribute to universal knowledge on justice and management of crime, as well as the governance of linked agencies, mainly in developing and transitional states. Through appropriate cooperation between various

institutions and law enforcement agencies, the SAPS has a potential of contributing to global knowledge on management of crime.

4.7 VALUES IN ESTABLISHING POLICE CULTURE

Society is continuously undergoing change. Societal change impacts all social institutions, including law enforcement. Change creates a new social order with new relationships between the communities and societal institutions. Hence the police should be in synchronisation with society as changes occur (Brown, 2013:187). Values are particularly important in establishing the police and policing culture. Brown (2013:188) accentuates the importance of police leadership to develop a culture of police within the organisation. He adds that values serve the purpose of articulating the beliefs that can be used to guide the organisation and values should guide the daily operations of police organisations and individual police officers. Brown (2013:188) stresses that police leaders should recognise that “it is human nature for police officers to respond to situations using their own set of personal values in the absence of the departmental guidelines”. Therefore, it is essential that police leaders develop a set of values that serve as the overarching framework for all the police members, or else there is a possibility that the police as individuals will perform their duties using their own value system, which may result creating problems for their organisation.

Brown (2013:196) suggests that the values serve to develop police units that are people-oriented, service-oriented, problem-solving-oriented, and defenders of the rights of all people as guarantee under the Constitution. Brown (2013:189-193) reflects and summarises the nine set of values that guide the operations of the Houston Police Department:

- a. **First Value:** “Policing the community involves major responsibility and authority and the police cannot carry out their responsibilities alone”.
- b. **Second Value:** “Police have a responsibility to react to criminal behaviour in a way that emphasises prevention that is marked by vigorous law enforcement”.
- c. **Third Value:** “Police should deliver services in a manner that preserves and advances democratic values”.
- d. **Fourth Value:** “Police should be committed to deliver police services in a manner that best reinforce the strengths of communities”.

- e. **Fifth Value:** “The community should be allowed to assist police departments in developing policies that are operationally sound and acceptable to citizens”.
- f. **Sixth Value:** “Police should collaboratively work with neighbours to understand the true nature of the neighbourhood’s crime problems and develop meaningful cooperative strategies that will best deal with those problems”.
- g. **Seventh Value:** “Police should seek the input and involvement of all employees in matters that impact job performance in order to be able to manage the organisation in a way that improves employee job satisfaction and effectiveness”.
- h. **Eighth Value:** “Police should be committed to maintaining the highest level of integrity and professionalism in all operations”.
- i. **Ninth Value:** “Police function and operate most effectively when the organisation and its operations are marked by stability, continuity, and constancy”.

4.7.1 An example of a Code of Conduct

A common complaint among police officers is that there is a communication problem in their departments. When it comes to values, it is better to over-communicate than to under communicate. Brown (2013:195) presents the Code of Conduct that “was adopted by United Nations General Assembly in December 1979”:

- a. **Article 1:** “Law enforcement officials shall at all times fulfil the duty imposed upon them by law, by serving all the community and protecting all persons against illegal acts, consistent with the high degree of responsibility required by their profession”.
- b. **Article 2:** “Law enforcement officials shall respect and protect human dignity and maintain and uphold the human rights of all persons”.
- c. **Article 3:** “Law enforcement officials may use force only when strictly necessary and to the extent required for the performance of their duty”.
- d. **Article 4:** “Matters of confidential nature shall be kept confidential, unless the performance of duty or the needs of justice strictly require otherwise”.
- e. **Article 5:** “No law enforcement officials may inflict, instigate or tolerate any act of torture or other cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment, nor may any law

enforcement official invoke superior orders or exceptional circumstances such as a state of war, a threat to national security, internal political instability or any other public emergency as justification for torture or any other cruel, inhumane or degrading treatment or punishment”.

- f. **Article 6:** “Law enforcement officials ensure the full protection of the health of persons in their custody and, in particular, shall take immediate action to secure medical attentions whenever required”.
- g. **Article 7:** “Law enforcement officials shall not commit any act of corruption. They shall also vigorously oppose and combat all such acts”.
- h. **Article 8:** “Law enforcement officials shall respect the law and the penal code. They shall also, to the best of their capability, prevent and vigorously oppose any violations of them”.

4.8 ROLE OF RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION IN POLICE PROFESSIONALISATION

4.8.1 Importance of recruitment and selection in policing

The recruitment and selection of police members is critical in determining the successful implementation and institutionalisation of community safety concept. Police recruits determine how the community will be served. Brown (2013:200) maintains that the police officers should be more than the crime fighters; they should be problem-solvers, planners, and community organisers. Thus the old criteria used to select new recruits to serve as police officers under old-style policing are no longer adequate. Therefore, the current police recruitment strategies should successfully compete with the private sector and other public agencies that seek the same calibre of workforces. Brown (2013:202) coined the concept of “spirit of service” where he advocates that police agencies should recruit and select new police officers in the “spirit of service”. This means that selection of new police officers should also focus on an officer’s interaction with community, planning and problem-solving. Yet modern-day recruitment campaigns are still not focusing at attracting individuals who are open to engaging in the “spirit of service” (Brown 2013:202).

Brown (2013:203-208) discusses the 12 community policing themes that researchers identify as “characteristic of successful community police officers” in the NYPD below.

- a. **Dedication theme** i.e. high commitment to community policing and having developed ownership of their communities and responsibility for what happens in their communities.
- b. **Achiever theme** i.e. were productive, had a drive to achieve their objectives, personal interest in the needs of the communities they are policing and identifying community problems, develop, and implement the strategies to solve the problems. **Team theme** i.e. had ability to get their fellow officers to work together in order to achieve a goal or complete a task, to understand the root causes of problems and not view them as individual incidents and to avail themselves consistently to focus on team-oriented events.
- c. **Concept theme** i.e. had the capacity to develop reasons for what they did, were thinkers, holistic in their viewpoints, proactive, had ability to see beyond punishing people, and understood the value of education as a tool to get people to change.
- d. **Goodwill theme** i.e. had worked to achieve approval when negative comments were directed to them.
- e. **Compassion theme** i.e. had ability to care about the people they serve, devoted themselves to make life better for the less fortunate and children of the people they work with.
- f. **Vigilance theme** i.e. were alert, observant and had the tendency to anticipate events, had ability to spot troublemakers on the streets, they were ‘street smart’ and had ability to read body language.
- g. **Activist theme** i.e. had desires to protect people; they disliked criminal behaviour, felt that people should pay for their criminal acts, and derived satisfaction from the number of arrests they made.
- h. **Courage theme** i.e. had strength to do what was needed to be done, even when they faced resistance, had ability to enforce the law, give orders to people, and be tough when necessary.
- i. **Command theme** i.e. had ability to be in charge when situation called for it, to maintain their authority when confronted with aggressive behaviour, and diffuse difficulty and

emotional situations by just talking. They were firm in how they treated people and made it clear what lawful behaviour was and did not allow police to be used to scare children.

- j. **Adaptiveness theme** i.e. had ability to be flexible and meet the changing conditions within the police departments, while engaging a wide range of communal expectations, worked hard to be the type of professional people that the communities respect.
- k. **Ethics theme** i.e. were honest, followed the rules, obeyed the laws, were seen by others as people of integrity and were able to take the right actions when free to use their own initiatives.

4.8.2 Importance of training in policing

4.8.2.1 Impact of new recruit training on professionalisation

It is essential to identify the competencies required for police officers to effectively carry out their functions and roles. This is vital to achieve the vision of the NDP of building safe communities. Therefore, it is imperative that police training for new recruits be designed to provide them with knowledge and skills, and change of attitude and behaviour. In line with the NDP vision of building safer communities, Brown (2013:221-222) identifies the following skill sets as necessary skills for policing in the 21st century: communication skills, interpersonal skills, public speaking skills, crime analysis skills, problem-solving skills, and community organising and speciality skills.

4.8.2.2 Impact of supervisory training on professionalisation

The role of policing changes as the policing dynamics increases, so does the role of supervisors. According to Brown (2013:223), “both supervisory and management training should focus more on leadership skills in contrast to techniques of command and control”. The supervisors have the responsibility of providing police officers with the support they need to achieve their objectives. The responsibility includes assisting police officers in planning their work, helping them identify problems in their area, collaborating with them to develop strategies to solve those problems and providing the support and guidance to attain the resources essential to

address the problems identified. According to Brown (2013:223), the future supervisory training should include basic policing training; values and coaching and mentoring skills.

4.8.2.3 Impact of management and leadership training on professionalisation

Leading and managing in the police is not only critical but also exceedingly difficult. The ongoing changes in society are the reason that displaying leadership is exceptionally difficult. The responsibilities, societal complexities, and expectations add to the difficulty. Changes has profound impact on the role of police leadership. It calls for continuous leadership development. Therefore, leadership development is an ongoing process. Brown (2013:224) reviews the eight characteristics of successful leaders which are, according to him, also applicable to police managers. The successful manager should be a leader who: (i) takes action to achieve objectives, (ii) knows the needs of the people in the community, (iii) encourages creativity in problem-solving and independent thinking, (iv) instils in all people the understanding that the best efforts contribute towards successful shared rewards of success, (v) understands that the organisation cannot be successful unless everyone contributes, (vi) works to improve the lives of community, (vii) creates settings where decisions are timeously made in a responsible manner, and (viii) creates a climate in which the entire organisation is dedicated to core set of values.

Knowledge is power; therefore, police leadership members should continuously enhance their knowledge and skills. They should expand their horizons beyond policing. According to Brown (2013:291), the management development package should be designed to select a successful leader with necessary competencies. The police should develop a programme to promote excellence in policing. The police organisations should extend networking opportunities to interact with others, inside and outside the police profession. Brown (2013:291) asserts that successful police leaders should have a vision for what needs to be done to improve their organisations. They should be dedicated to the successful realisation of vision, be good planners, goal setters for the organisation and committed to excellence. Successful police leaders get input from community stakeholders prior to making major decisions.

4.9 CONCLUSION

The 'Building Safer Communities' (Chapter 12) of the NDP firstly prioritises the CJS and the police. While this does not mean that safety is ensured through the CJS, the chapter sets out that community is grounded on collaboration and partnership with communities and all stakeholders. The government has been prioritising crime prevention ever since democratic dispensation in order to decrease the levels of crime occurrence. As a result, crime and violence prevention form a cornerstone for community safety in South Africa. Obviously, most community safety is brought about through consistent application of activities focusing on safety assurance. Crime prevention is one of the measures aimed at creating safer communities. Mostly through crime prevention, crime reduction is achieved. Crime prevention is prevention of criminal events, of criminality and of continued criminal behaviour. Crime prevention involves participation of community members. Successful crime prevention contributes, among many measures, to safer communities.

The key to community safety lies in working together in a partnership. Community policing positions the police to establish a working partnership with neighbourhood residents. Such partnerships support a neighbourhood organisation, increasing its capacity to remain cohesive and reduce opportunities for crime to occur. The partnership focuses on ensuring that there are limited opportunities for criminal victimisation and supports an environment within which crime cannot flourish. Community policing requires the police to collaborate with communities and businesses to identify law breakers and bring them to justice. The joint commitment to justice is commitment to community policing. It is a commitment to ensure the criminals are dealt with quickly and fairly.

The working partnership between the public-private sector and the community provides a foundation of strong and highly organised communities. This, in return, influences the safety feeling in the community. The police should also focus on the conditions that generate criminal behaviour and work in partnership with other agencies, governments, and all other sectors of the community. There should be a legitimate collaboration among the criminal justice system and community as well as private agencies. The interaction, communication, and collaboration among the police, the criminal justice system and private agencies to solve problems is another attribute of community policing and building safer communities.

The police professionalisation and professionalism is critical in regulating the knowledge, skills, behaviour, conduct, and attitude of the police. Recruitment and training of the police as well as institutionalisation and internalisation of the SAPS values and Code of Conduct are of paramount importance if the SAPS wants to gain trust and confidence of the communities.

To assess the SAPS implementation of the NDP in building safer communities, research paradigms will be discussed in the next chapter. Chapter 5 will outline in detail the different steps that will be used in the data collection process. It will labour on research design and methodology. It will further explain how mixed-methods research will be applied in this study and provide rationale and purpose of mixed methods. Ethical considerations and aspects that the researcher will adhere to in this study will be explained.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher discusses the design and methodology of research with the purpose of providing plan or blueprint for the research. As the point of departure, description and analysis of “the theoretical framework” for the research design of this study are presented. The explanation of the mixed-methods approach is provided. Both qualitative and quantitative, as the research methodologies, used in this study are described. Exploration of accessible literature and documents regarding the selected research methods of collection of data is presented. Relating to collection of data, a single public opinion question (Appendix 1 and cf. Chapter 6), a five-point Likert Scale questionnaire (Appendix 3 and Chapter 7), document analysis and “individual semi-structured interviews” remained utilised within the study.

When it comes to the data collection methods, the motivation of what inspired the choice of them is given. The description of sampling and sampling methods are explained and more attention is given to purposive sampling method as it is used in the study. Piloting is discussed. Finally, the assessment of ethical considerations is detailed in this chapter.

Figure 5.1 below demonstrates the approach that the researcher used to present this chapter. The researcher adopted this approach from reviewing the work of researchers, such as Morgan, (2007), Crotty (1998), Creswell (2003 & 2013), Teddlie and Tashakkori (2003), Patton (1990), Zulu (1999), Mertens (2015), Shannon-Baker (2016), and Kivunja and Kuyini (2017).

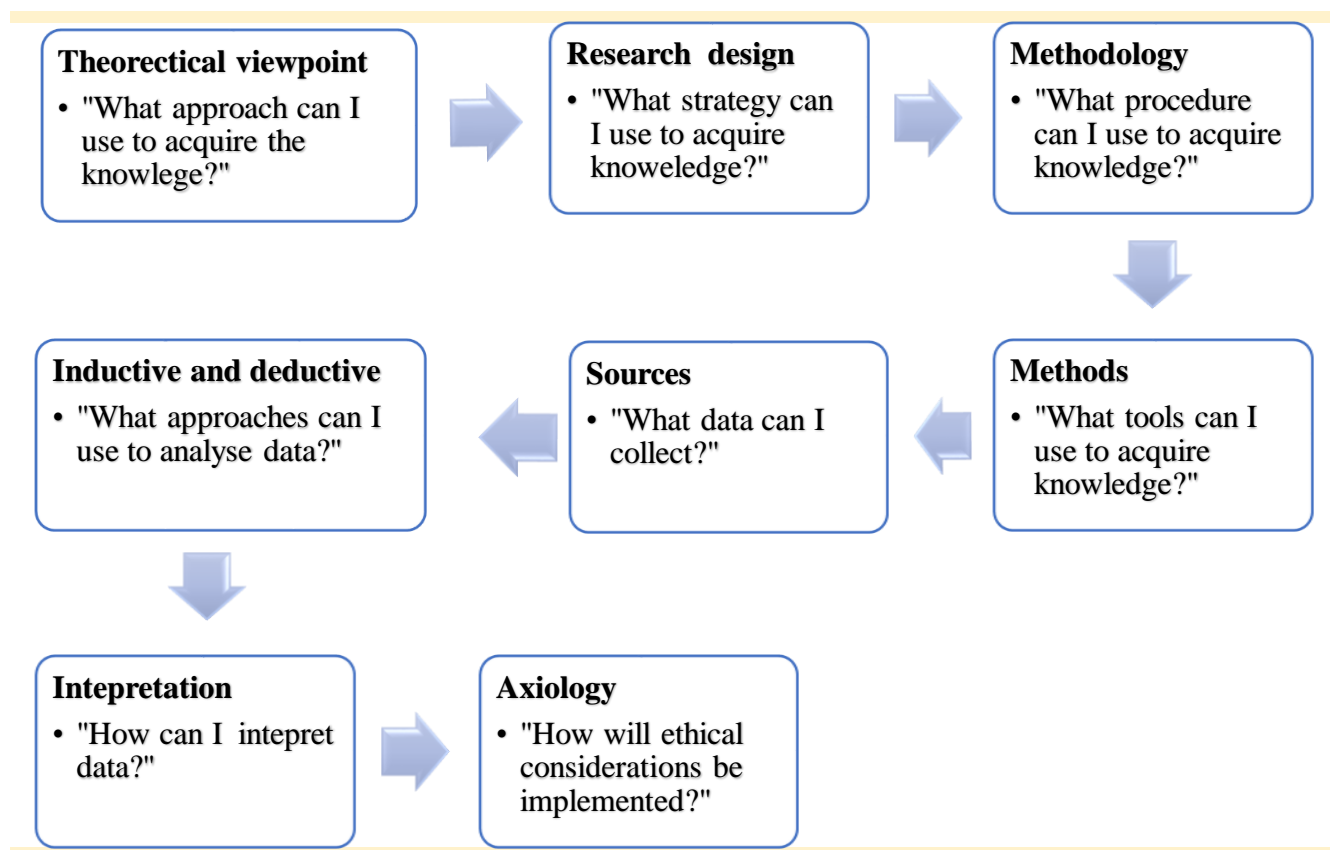


Figure 0.1: Approach used to select research design and methodology

Source: Summarised from reviewed work of researchers such as of Morgan, (2007), Crotty (1998), Creswell (2003 & 2013), Teddlie & Tashakkori (2003), Patton (1990), Zulu (1999), Mertens (2015), Shannon-Baker (2016), and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017).

5.2 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In selecting the suitable research methods to utilise within the study, understanding the role and importance of theory in research is fundamental. Verma and Malick (1999:6) stand on their view that the theory's key role remains to be guiding and directing the researcher. Briefly, Best and Khan (2006:10) relates theory to the development of an overall explanation of certain phenomenon and the connection between main variables aimed at explaining an existing situation otherwise forecasting future concurrences.

Authors' as well as researchers' opinions on a theory gives the justification, guidance and motivation for the design and methodology research's deliberations in this study. The

researcher has required a proper understanding of the concept of theory and the knowledge information, and understanding of similar research viewpoints supporting the various research principles. For that reason, as delineated through various research paradigms, the philosophy of research which supports the study is revealed within various principles of research. Understanding of the paradigms of research and their application is critical. Hence the section below explores different research paradigms, especially those that are interconnected with mixed- method research designs.

5.2.1 Research paradigms

In the “American philosopher Thomas Kuhn’s book” called “*The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*”, the term “paradigm” is mentioned to refer to a “philosophical way of thinking” (Mouton, 1996:203). A paradigm of research is paraphrased as a collection of shared beliefs and principles shared among “scientists” about the manner, methods, ways, and means the problems ought to be understood and tackled (Kuhn, 1996). Kivunja’ s and Kuyini’ s interest on and exploration of paradigms (2017:26), resulted on them coining paradigms as “worldview’s perspective, or thinking, or school of thought, or set of shared beliefs, that informs the meaning or interpretation of research data”.

A paradigm, in the perspective of Lincoln and Guba (1994) is an elementary cluster of beliefs including the world’s views which directs an investigation or research step. The viewpoints of Denzin and Lincoln (2000) on paradigms are on “human constructions”, where the researcher’s the departure point of using primary or decisive principles guides the construction of meaning deep-seated in data and information. Bryman (2004:453) identifies “a paradigm as a cluster of beliefs and dictates how research should be done and how results should be interpreted”. As of the standpoint of Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:26), “a paradigm defines a researcher’s philosophical orientation and this has significant implications for every decision made in the research process, and choice of methodology and methods. It tells how meaning will be constructed from the data that will be gathered”.

Morgan (2007: 49) projects paradigm as “systems of beliefs and practices that influence how researchers select both the questions they study and methods that they use to study them”. In line with Morgan, Neuman (2011:94) describes a paradigm as a whole system of thinking.

According to Shannon-Baker (2016:321), “paradigms can help frame one’s approach to a research problem and offer suggestions for how to address it given certain beliefs about the world”. She sums up paradigms as “a guide that the researcher can use to ground their research”. Hence a paradigm remains a researcher’s roadmap to direct a planned thinking behind the aim and objectives of the research and how to achieve them.

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:4) identify the “paradigmatic foundations” as a current major issue for mixed-methods research. As maintained by Shannon-Baker (2016:319), this remains important with regard to “how to conceptualise, address, and/or move beyond the former ‘paradigm wars’ that have characterised social science research for the past several decades”. She maintains that “how scholars use the term paradigm has changed considerably from the original Kuhnian perspective”. Grounded on Kuhn’s philosophy of paradigm, Morgan (2007:50) distinguishes “four” fundamental views regarding “the concept of paradigm”, which consist of: (i) way of thinking and ideologies; (ii) viewpoints on theory of knowledge viewpoints; (iii) “shared beliefs” between the group of similar experts and specialists; and (iv) examples of research framework and models . According to Brierley (2017:8), the difference in these four views of paradigms is “the level of generality of that belief system”. In conclusion, Shannon-Baker (2016:332) states that “we should not argue for a single ‘best’ paradigm (or perspective) for mixed-methods research” [...] “we should be less concerned with whether researchers chose the ‘best’ paradigm and more concerned with their legitimation for and operationalization of the one chosen” [...] “we should be focused more on how researchers use their paradigm(s) and their elaborations on how”.

Lincoln’s and Guba’s perspective on a paradigm’s elements (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) consists of, specifically, “epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology”. The affirmation of the significance of a well-grounded understanding and appreciative of these elements by the researcher is emphasised by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:26). They further highlight that they consists of the “basic assumptions, beliefs, norms and values that each paradigm holds”. Thus, a researcher would locate a research proposal in a particular paradigm because it would assist in understanding what the research would support as well as be directed by and which norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions would be linked to the chosen paradigm. Hence, it is significant that the researcher explores the meaning of epistemology, ontology, methodology and axiology as the roots of the qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

5.2.1.1 *Paradigm Ontology*

Philosophers such as Scott and Usher (2004) describe “ontology as a branch of philosophy”. They further underscore its importance in relation to it providing researcher’s an understanding in terms of “what constitute the world” (Scott & Usher, 2004). In addition, ontology searches for the “foundational concepts” that establish “themes” the researcher is exploring and analysing for the construction of meaning deep-seated in research data and information. As Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:27) maintain, “ontology” allows researcher’s movement towards investigating the fundamental “belief system” as well as “philosophical assumptions” pertaining to reality, existence and nature of being. Their view is that “philosophical assumptions” support the researcher to position and direct thinking regarding “the research problem”, “the research problem’s importance”, and “approach to respond to research questions”, “comprehension of investigated problem” and “contribution to investigated problem’ solutions. The choice of pragmatic ontology in this study supports that “there is no single reality and all individuals have their own and unique interpretations of reality” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:35).

For the research under review, the researcher applied pragmatic ontology in an effort to explore “the nature of reality and the nature of the situation” (Scott & Usher, 2004) regarding the SAPS implementation of the NDP towards building safer communities.

5.2.1.2 *Paradigm epistemology*

As stated by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:27), “epistemology has its aetiology in Greek where the word episteme means knowledge” and describes “how human beings come to know something and how they know the truth or reality”. Schwandt (2007) defines epistemology “as the study of the nature of knowledge and justification”. In attempt to paraphrase Kivunja’s and Kuyini’s viewpoints (2017:27), epistemology remains focussed on knowledge’s nature, knowledge’s form, knowledge acquisition, and ways, methods and means of communicating and transferring knowledge to others.

Researchers who “rely on forms of knowledge such as beliefs, faith, and intuition”, have intuitive knowledge as epistemological basis for research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:27).

Researchers who “rely on data gathered from people in the know, books, leaders in organisations”, have their “epistemology grounded in authoritative knowledge”, while for those emphasising “reason as the surest path to knowing the truth”, their epistemology remains “founded on logical knowledge”. Those researchers who place importance on “understanding that knowledge is best derived from sense, experiences, and demonstrable, objective facts”, have their research methodology supported by “empirical epistemology” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:27). In essence, the value of epistemology in research is to establish the reliability and trustworthiness of data. Epistemology influences how researchers go about discovering knowledge in the social context of the research topics they are studying.

The researcher’s choice of pragmatic (empirical) epistemology for this study reflects the view that the best research methodology is the one that solves the problem (Morgan, 2007). This is the “mixed-methods research” design. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2004) have presented great interest on mixed-methods research and have described it as form of research method that can use in parallel qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis. Subsequently, the researcher integrates or mixes the qualitative and quantitative groups of results at certain research phase to draw interpretations on qualitative and quantitative results. According to Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006:54), “pragmatism includes a healthy dose of pluralism by which we mean that it is not logically contradictory to claim that quantitative and qualitative research are both useful, even if, at times, they appear to be contradictory; perhaps what is seen as contradictory are different perspectives that are complementary and enable one to more fully to see his or her world”. In this case, the researcher located this research at the pragmatism paradigm using mixed-methods research design as the attempt made to discover reality about the SAPS implementation of the NDP towards building safer communities.

The qualitative and quantitative methodologies cover widely various “philosophical research paradigms” such as “positivism and post-positivism” (Creswell, 2009 & Muijs, 2011). Creswell (2009) and Muijs (2010) suggest that all these paradigms may possibly be clustered into “three main categories”, viz. critical, interpretivist, or positivist paradigms. In addition, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003a; 2003b), suggest “a fourth category” and this category derives elements from the “three main categories”. This “fourth category” is called the “pragmatic paradigm”. In the section these four categories and their relevance to the research under review are discussed.

5.2.1.3 *Paradigm positivism*

Babbie (2011:35) maintains that “the roots of positivism can be traced to Auguste Comte, who saw human beings as a phenomenon to be studied scientifically”. According to Babbie (2011:35), Auguste Comte (1798–1857) defines “the positivist paradigm as a worldview to research, which is grounded in what is known in research methods as the scientific method of investigation”. Denscombe (2008:14) views positivism “as an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural science model of research as the point of departure for investigations of social phenomena and explanations of the social world”. Babbie (2011) suggests that “experimentation, observation and reason based on experience” should be the foundation for understanding behaviour of human, and thus, the only legitimate meaning of knowledge extension and human understanding (Babbie, 2011).

Glicken (2003:20) and Denscombe (2010a:324) uphold that positivism involves “a belief based on the assumption that patterns (trends), generalisations, methods, procedures as well as cause-and-effect issues are also applicable to the social sciences”. Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:30) add that the research situated within a “positivism paradigm” depends on deductive logic, hypotheses formulation, hypotheses testing, providing operational definitions as well as mathematical calculations, equations, expressions and extrapolations to draw conclusions. A positivism paradigm enables the researcher to make predictions based on measurable outcomes. As explained by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), measurable outcomes remain undergirded by four assumptions, specifically, empiricism, parsimony, determinism and generalisability.

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:30) believe that the “unpacking of each of these assumptions helps researchers better understand the meaning and expectations of research conducted within this paradigm”. They ascertain that “the assumption of *determinism* is if the researchers are to understand casual relationships among factors, they need to be able to make predictions and to control the potential impacts of the explanatory factors on the dependent factors”. While the “assumption of *empiricism* means that for researchers to be able to investigate a research problem, they need to be able to collect verifiable empirical data that support the theoretical framework chosen for their research and enable them to test the hypotheses they formulated”

(Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:30). The assumption of “*parsimony*” is that “the positivist paradigm refers to the researcher’s attempts to explain the phenomena they study in the most economical way possible” (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:30). Finally, the assumption of the “*generalisability* assumption” informs the researchers “that the results obtained from a research project conducted within the positivist paradigm, in one context, should be applicable to other contexts by inductive inferences”. As stated and simplified by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017:31, “the positivist researcher should be able to observe occurrences in the particular phenomenon they have studied, and be able to generalise about what can be expected elsewhere in the world”. Therefore, the aforementioned assumptions support “the positivist paradigm” in advocating “the use of quantitative research methods as the foundation for a researcher’s ability to be precise in the description of the limitations and coefficients in the data that are gathered, analysed and interpreted” for understanding of relationships deep-seated in the data analysed (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:30).

Table 5.1 below presents the outline of the research paradigms as the researcher explore the works of researchers such as Lincoln and Guba (1985), Patton (1990), Fadhel, 2002, Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003a), Creswell (2013), Martens (2015), Morgan (2007), and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017).

Table 0.1: Comparison of research located in the four paradigms

The four paradigms			
Positivist Paradigm	Interpretivist/Constructivist Paradigm	Critical/Transformative Paradigm	Pragmatic Paradigm
Paradigms’ ontology			
Existence of a single reality.	Non-existence of a single reality.	Realities are socially constructed entities that are under constant internal influence.	Existence of reality is based on continually “renegotiating”.
Paradigm’s epistemology			
Reality is based on reliability and validity tools as reality is measurable.	Reality is used to discover the underlying meaning of events and activities.	Reality and knowledge is both socially constructed and influenced by power relations from within society.	The best method is one that solves problems.
Paradigm’s theoretical perspective			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Positivism ▪ Post-positivism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Interpretivism ▪ Phenomenology 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Feminism ▪ Marxism 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Mixed methods ▪ Research through design

Various philosophers and researchers			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Fadhel, 2002 and ▪ Kivunja & Kuyini (2017) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lincoln & Guba (1985), Morgan, (2007) and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Lincoln & Guba (1985), Martens (2015) and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Creswell (2003), Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003a); Patton (1990), Martens (2015) and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017)
Characteristics of research located within paradigms			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “Theory is universal” ▪ “Context is not significant” ▪ “Truth is out there to be discovered” ▪ “Cause and effect are distinguishable and analytically separable”. ▪ “Results of inquiry can be quantified”. ▪ “Theory can be used to predict and control outcomes”. ▪ “Research follows the scientific method of investigation”. ▪ “Rests on formulation and testing of hypotheses”. ▪ “Employs empirical or analytical approaches”. ▪ “Pursues an objective search for facts”. ▪ “Believes in ability to observe knowledge”. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “Social world cannot be understood from the standpoint of an individual”. ▪ “Realities are multiple and socially constructed”. ▪ “There is inevitable interaction between the researcher and research participants”. ▪ “Context is vital for knowledge and knowing”. ▪ “Knowledge is created by the findings, can be value -laden and the values need to be made explicit”. ▪ “The need to understand the individual rather than universal laws”. ▪ “Causes and effects are mutually interdependent”. ▪ “Contextual factors need to be taken into consideration in any systematic pursuit of understanding”. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “The concern with power relationships set up within social structures”. ▪ “The conscious recognition of the consequences of privileging versions of reality”. ▪ “The respect for cultural norms”. ▪ “An examination of conditions and individuals in a situation, based on social positioning”. ▪ “The treatment of research as an act of construction rather than discovery”. ▪ “A central focus of the research effort on uncovering agency, which is hidden by social practices, leading to liberation and emancipation”. ▪ “Endeavour to expose conjunctions of politics, morality, and ethics”. ▪ “The deliberate efforts of the researcher to promote human rights, and increase social justice, and reciprocity”. ▪ “The deliberate efforts of the researcher to address issues of power, oppression and trust among research participants”. ▪ “A high reliance on praxis”. ▪ “The use of ethnomethodology, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “A rejection of the positivist notion that social science inquiry can uncover the ‘truth’ about the real world”. ▪ “An emphasis of ‘workability’ in research.” ▪ “The use of ‘what works’ so as to allow the researcher to address the questions being investigated without worrying whether the questions are wholly quantitative or qualitative in nature”. ▪ “Adoption of a worldview that allows for a research design and methodologies that are best suited to the purpose of the study”. ▪ “Utilising lines of action that are best suited to studying the phenomenon being investigated”. ▪ “A rejection of the need to locate your study either in a positivist/ post positivist or interpretivist / constructivist paradigms”. ▪ “Seeking to utilise the best approaches to gaining knowledge using every methodology that helps that knowledge discovery”. ▪ “Choice of research methods depending on

		situating knowledge socially and historically”. ▪ “Application of action research”. ▪ “Utilisation of participatory research”.	the purpose of the research”. ▪ “A search for useful points of connection within the research project that facilitate understanding of the situation”.
Research methodologies suited to the paradigms			
▪ Experimental ▪ Quasi-experimental ▪ Correlational ▪ Causal comparative ▪ Randomized control trials ▪ Survey research ▪ (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017)	▪ Naturalist ▪ Narrative inquiry ▪ Case study ▪ Grounded theory ▪ Phenomenology ▪ Hermeneutics ▪ Ethnography ▪ Phenomenography ▪ Action research ▪ Heuristic inquiry ▪ (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017)	▪ Neo-Marxist ▪ Feminist theories ▪ Cultural studies ▪ Critical race theory ▪ Freirean studies ▪ Participatory emancipation ▪ Postcolonial/indigenous ▪ Queer theory ▪ Disability theories ▪ Action research (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017)	▪ Naturalist ▪ Narrative inquiry ▪ Case study ▪ Phenomenology ▪ Ethnography ▪ Action research ▪ Exploratory research ▪ Experimental ▪ Quasi-experimental ▪ Causal comparative (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017) ▪ Mixed-method (Morgan, 2007 and Shannon-Baker, 2016)

Source: Summarised from reviewed work of researchers such as Lincoln & Guba (1985), Patton (1990), Fadhel, 2002, Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003a), Creswell (2013), Martens (2015), Morgan (2007), Shannon-Baker (2016) and Kivunja & Kuyini (2017)

In the light of the above outlined summary (Table 5.1), this study as it tried to resolve the problem of unsafe communities and move towards safer communities, applies the pragmatism paradigm using the theoretical perspective of mixed-methods research design. In the mixed method theoretical perspective, the researcher is allowed to deal with the critical questions of the research that are explored devoid of stressing about the nature of questions if were qualitative or quantitative. Therefore, the mixed-method theoretical perspective permitted the researcher to adopt the design and methodology of research which “best fit for the purpose of the study”, which was to determine how safer communities could be built in SA.

Mixed-methods research design, using both qualitative and quantitative methods to solve the problem of unsafe communities, was selected based on the paradigm’s epistemology that states that the best methods are ones that solves problems. The utilisation of the paradigm’s ontology assisted the researcher towards exploration of the respondents’ underlying belief system about the reality of issues related to building safer communities. This was done through extensive

interviews and discussions in order to obtain the appropriate safer community model to address the NDP Vision 2030, Chapter 12. Exploratory research was used as the research methodology best suited for the pragmatism paradigm.

5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) hold the view that the design of research ought to be “scientifically grounded, trustworthy and reliable”. It should provide the “researcher with a clear research framework”; [and guide] “the methods and decisions and set the basis for interpretation”. Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:71) outline design of research as “... operations to be performed, in order to test a specific hypothesis under a given condition”. Design of research design, as stated by Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009:46), remains “the overall plan according to which the respondents of a proposed study are selected, as well as the means of data collection or generation”. Grover (2015:1), in parallel with Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2009), indicates that the design of the research is an “overall strategy that one [researcher] chooses to tackle the problem that requires integration of different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby ensuring to solve the problem in an efficient way”. Research problem determines approaches and techniques to be utilised in the research such as the sampling techniques, methods of collecting data as well as methods of analysing data.

The research problem’s complexity and nature contributes in the reason for developing the research design. The researcher is required to design the inclusive strategy to use to tackle the research problem. Based on research problem’s complexity and nature, the researcher is obliged to determine the research approaches and techniques that will be reliable and trustworthy to sample the research population as well as select methods of collecting and analysing data, which are best suitable to establish “how safer communities could be built in SA”. This, in turn, demanded a focused research design to fit in the provisions of the research questions, objectives and aim. Due to the aforementioned research obligations, a “mixed-method research design” was also selected to conduct this study. A “mixed-method research design” was also considered to approach the research problem and scope as well as the connected research questions and concerns on “how safer communities could be built in SA”.

5.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Crotty (1998:3) describes research methodology “as the strategies, plan of action, processes or designs in the choice and implementation of specific methods, as well as the linking of the selection and implementation to achieve the desired aims”. Mouton (2001:56) concurs with Crotty and summaries “research methodology as focusing on the research process and the kind of tools and procedures to be used to conduct research”. Leedy and Ormrod (2010:12) agree with Babbie and Mouton (2008:74), maintaining that “research methodology” is the approach that the researcher is employing to conduct the research. Chetty (2016:1) defines research methods as ways of getting information from the sample.

Documents analysis and a literature study were conducted to develop the research content for Chapters 2, 3 and 4) and empirical research. It was assumed that NDP implementation to realise the safer communities was a process and different approaches could be used. Explorative mixed-methods research was therefore used to determine effectiveness of the SAPS implementation of the NDP Chapter 12 in creating safer communities. The data collection was conducted using a structured interview and a semi-structured questionnaire. The data from documents analysis, a literature study, and the qualitative results (cf. Chapters 2-4) were linked to develop a quantitative questionnaire to determine “how safer communities could be built in SA”. This research approach strengthened triangulation process and assisted to assess the validity of data. The subsequent subsection presents the “literature study” and its value in line with the pragmatic paradigm research of this study.

5.4.1 Literature study

To collect information to give a theoretical framework in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, literature and documents were examined, studied and analysed. Chapter 2 is primarily concerned with the relationship between policy objectives and policy implementation. Although there are comprehensive theoretical frameworks consisting of carefully considered policies, the outcomes are eventually ascertained by in what way such policies are executed. Chapter 3 deals with the legislative, policy and strategic response trajectory in building safer communities in SA. The chapter presents a number of policies, strategies and legislation that were developed to address violence and crime, promote a safe, secure SA, and improve the quality of lives the

South Africans. Chapter 4 contextualises and provides a literature overview of the building safer communities' concept through the review of theory of the integrated approach to building community safety, a strengthened CJS, and building professional police services. Specific consideration was provided to various models for building safer communities to contextualise crime prevention and community safety and to align them with the South African context.

5.4.2 Empirical research

By means of quantitative and qualitative methods to find data and support the research's reliability and validity, an empirical investigation was carried out with an aim of achieving the objectives of the study. Skager and Weinberg (1971:4) state that the word "*empirical*" is about "knowledge derived by the process of practical and scientific experience, experiments and inquiries". Therefore, "an empirical investigation" includes "a systematic, purposeful and accountable planned process of collecting and analysing data" (Isaac & Michael, 1997:2). Furthermore, the empirical investigation's purpose is to acquire valid and reliable data, in accordance with the research problem (cf. par 1.2) and the research aim and objectives (cf. par 1.3) as well as the research problem and the corresponding research questions (cf. par. 1.4).

It is important to design an appropriate research strategy in order to get the valid and reliable data. Therefore, there was a need for the best suitable research design aligned to the study purpose as well as to the research problem, aims and questions. Due to the research problem's complexity, "a mixed-methods research design" to conduct this study was chosen by the researcher. The following section is exploring and discussing mixed-methods research.

5.5 MIXED-METHODS RESEARCH

The quantitative approach is suggested by Creswell (2009:4); Leedy and Ormrod (2010:96), and Kumar (2011:13) as very "formalised and explicitly controlled" compared to the qualitative approach, which is "clearly defined and is relatively close to the social sciences". In contrast, according to Fouché and Delport (2011:266), "qualitative approaches are those in which the procedures are not as strictly formalised, while the scope is more likely to be undefined, and a more philosophical mode of operation is adopted". Bryman (2009:15) as cited by Vosloo (2014) recommends that "prospective researchers orientate themselves regarding

the differences between these approaches, and decide whether a combined quantitative/qualitative approach, also known as the mixed-methods approach, would be appropriate”. Equally so the qualitative and quantitative approaches enjoy certain strengths and advantages, while also have certain weaknesses and disadvantages.

Human sciences research as stated by Fouché and Delport (2011:66), frequently employs both quantitative and qualitative methodologies according to the research design. Some key considerations before designing a mixed-methods approach are discussed below. Theory of mixed-methods research with its value and purpose, and specific mixed methods research designs are also described.

5.5.1 Definition of mixed methods

The mixed methods’ definition according to Creswell and Plano Clarke (2011:5), have to include various different viewpoints that include “a definition of core characteristics of mixed-methods research”. They further emphasise that this mixed-methods research incorporates “methods, a philosophy, and a research design orientation, which ultimately seems to highlight the key components that go into designing and conducting a mixed-methods study”. According to Johnson & Onwuegbuzie (2004:17), the mixed-methods research analysis of definitions in writings and literature simply shows a consensus, irrespective of the definition’s emphasis. Consequently, Vosloo (2014: 322) defines the mixed- methods research as “the kind of research where the researcher combines quantitative and qualitative techniques, methods and concepts in a single study or series of related studies during single or multiple phases within a pragmatic philosophical worldview (paradigm) using theoretical lenses that direct the plan for conducting the study”.

5.5.2 Rationale and purpose of mixed methods

The goal of mixed-methods research according to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:14), has no intention of substituting both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to study, however to gain the “strengths of these approaches” as well as to reduce “possible weaknesses”. Vosloo (2014:322) as he explains the rationale of mixed methods states that “the driving motivation behind mixed methods is the desire to get the complete story, as much as possible”. In using

multi-methods in the similar study, there are benefits, advantages and gains according to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009:153) and mainly, diverse methods are able to be utilised for various purposes within a research. In turn, this provides the confidence to the researcher of having addressed the critical issues and questions in the study (Brierley, 2017). The additional advantage of using the mixed-methods approach is that it enables triangulation to take place. Therefore, the mixture of qualitative and quantitative research methods provides the advantages of the qualities of the two approaches respectively (Thiétart, 2007:82). According to Brierley (2017:5), through using qualitative research in conjunction with quantitative research, “mixed-methods research may overcome some of the drawbacks of qualitative research”, which include: (i) the challenges associated with testing of prior theories and hypotheses, (ii) the effect of the researcher’s own biases and prejudices once interpreting the results of the research, and (iii) the challenges linked to generalisation of results to related issues and topics. Moreover, there is a concurrence between Scott and Morrison (2007:158) and the mixed-method research promoters, on the view that a mixture of methods “enhances triangulation, facilitates both *outsider* and *insider* perspectives, thus improving the research, may facilitate a better understanding of the link between variables, and allow appropriate emphases at different stages of the research process”.

Inspired by Johnson (2004: 264-265) and Mingers (2001:244), the mixed-methods research design purpose in this study remains situated around the increase of the research validity by means of converging diverse research methods, since “mixed-methods research” exists as a “triangulation form”, and widens “the scope of the research” and as a result “increases both the breadth and range of a study”; as well as supplement diverse sides of the survey due to the “overlapping” which happens among the diverse methods of research.

5.5.3 Procedural consideration and mixed-methods exploratory research design

Three strategies aimed at mixing quantitative as well as qualitative methods, i.e. embedding, connecting and merging the datasets are recognised by Creswell (2009:207-208). This study employs the mixing strategy to “connect the qualitative data, in order to build or develop the subsequent quantitative data” (Figure 5.2) as a result of Creswell’s and Plano Clarke’s (2011:67) work. To be exact, “the data are linked in that the qualitative results of a single public opinion question instrument” were used (cf. Chapter 6). The preliminary data analysis and

findings in Chapter 6 and literature review in Chapters 3-4 were used to develop the statement questions for the five-point Likert Scale questionnaire instrument. The results and findings are presented in Chapter 7 and Chapter 8. The combination of findings in Chapters 6 and 7 and the literature review in Chapters 2–4 had to be utilised to develop individual semi-structured interviews, of which results had to be used to support findings and recommendations presented in Chapters 8 and 9.

According to Vosloo (2014: 325), “the mixed-methods exploratory research design or exploratory sequential research design consists of distinct phases”. In this case, in phase one of the research design, a researcher gathers and analyses the data from qualitative research approach using a single public opinion question as. The researcher built on the results of the qualitative data in the second phase of quantitative research approach (cf. par. 5.8). In the third phase, together the quantitative phase as well as qualitative results are used by the researcher to direct the final findings and conclusions of the research. According to Vosloo (2014: 325), “the established theoretical framework then presented the researcher with the chance to identify topic-specific themes and variables for further investigation”. Creswell (2009:212) maintains that the “exploratory research design has become a widely accepted and efficient tool for use in multi-phase research”.

As stated by Creswell & Plano Clarke (2011:89), regardless of characteristically underlining the qualitative feature, a quantitative component inclusion appears to fulfil as well as persuade “quantitative-biased audiences of the relative value and advantages of the use of the exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design”. The critical encounters related to the mixed-methods research design include the requisite of considerable time. Challenges concerning time a researcher can confirm that, as the development of surveys was only concluded after extensive literature review was concluded. Only then the interview schedule could start and subsequently be completed.

A decision of the precise “*model or variant* of the chosen mixed-methods research design” was the following stage as suggested in Creswell’s and Plano Clarke’s (2007:77 & 2011:90) research work and the “research instrument development model” had to be chosen. Table 5.2 illustrates the process used for deriving to the “research instrument development model of the chronological mixed-methods research design” used for this study, as the researcher modified

in Creswell's and Plano Clarke's (2007:77 & 2011:90) research work. The combined research approach directed a pragmatic position endorsement to carry out this study, because this combined research approach brought "a workable solution to the multifaceted research problem" as well-described by Creswell (2009:11-12) and the results offered a picture that is convincing and comprehensive of the SAPS's implementation of the NDP Chapter 12.

Table 0.2: Instrument development model for exploratory sequential mixed methods

Phase 1: Single public opinion question instrument qualitative data collection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Qualitative data analysis ▪ Qualitative findings and results
Phase 2: Develop five-point Likert Scale questionnaire as instrument for quantitative study, using the qualitative findings above	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Quantitative data collection ▪ Quantitative data analysis ▪ Quantitative findings and results ▪ Interpretation of both qualitative and quantitative results
Phase 3: Develop individual semi-structured interviews using interpreted results of both qualitative and quantitative results	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Qualitatively collect data ▪ Qualitatively analyse data ▪ Draw findings and conclusion tracking back from the first data collection findings to the last data collection ▪ Interpret the results ▪ Design the ideal model for building safer communities

Source: As adapted from Creswell, J.W. & Plano Clarke, V.L. (2007). Designing and conducting mixed-research methods.

Stimulated by Creswell and Plano Clarke (2011:12-13) and Brierley (2017:5), the value and benefits of employing mixed-methods design for this research include providing "more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than either qualitative or quantitative research on their own and helping to answer questions that cannot otherwise be answered". Mixed-method research is 'practical', as "the researcher is free to use relevant methods, skills and thinking to address a research problem and enable the use of an all-encompassing paradigm" (Creswell and Plano Clarke (2011: 13).

5.6 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

The non-statistical methods and regularly, purposively and carefully chosen small samples characterised qualitative study approach. These qualitative research characteristics are including (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:94-97; Kumar, 2011:104-105): (i) conducting of research

regularly within “natural settings”. (ii) Using of wide-range descriptive data. (iii) Concentrating on “process rather than on product”. (iv) Habitually grounded on “inductive logic as it goes from the specific to the general”. (v) Searching for “meaning is often evident”. This “search for meaning” focus on “how people try to make sense of their lives”. Different measuring instruments were employed to produce data for the qualitative research. Motivated by Thomas, Nelson and Silverman (2011:357) regarding qualitative data collection, “measuring instruments” which comprise diverse kinds of interviews and discussions such as “standardised open-ended structured questions”, document and content evaluation and literature review, were used in this research.

5.6.1 Single public opinion question instrument

Using the single public opinion question instrument as contained in Appendix 1, the researcher developed one statement “What do you think South Africa needs to for community to feel safe in the street, at home, at school, at work and in public spaces?”. This question opened debate about the expectations of both communities and police towards building safer communities. The responses and findings led to the exploration of the SAPS interpretation of the NDP’s five priority areas for building safer communities. It further determined the SAPS understanding, alignment and internalisation of the NDP Chapter 12 and the challenges experienced by the SAPS in building safer communities (cf. Chapter 6).

5.6.1.1 Study population for single public opinion question instrument

The population intended for aforesaid research contained of police members and community members. This population had various responsibilities and interests in building safer communities. Some participants were actors, while other participants were implementers of the NDP Chapter 12.

5.6.1.2 Sampling for single public opinion question instrument

According to South African demographics, the study setting was in the four most populated provinces as per mid-term 2018 statistics, namely, Western Cape, Gauteng, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (Statistics SA, 2018). Therefore, the provinces selected were based on the

population sizes. The top 10 high crime weight police stations in terms of murder cases per provinces were randomly sampled from the top 30 high crime weight stations per province. The high crime weight in this instance refers to the maximum number of murder cases recorded by the station and captured in the SAPS Crime Administration System (CAS) from 1 April 2017 to 31 March 2018. The sampling method for single public opinion question participants was based on the probability or random sampling method. The researcher randomly selected the participants from the four participating provinces in the study in the study.

5.6.1.3 Recruitment of participants for single public opinion question instrument

Community participants, not younger than 18 years, were recruited from different areas in the community, such as police stations, at their homes, in churches and at institutions of higher learning in the same policing precinct. The researcher, working with the commanders for Social Crime Prevention and sector commanders at stations, also recruited respondents at community *izimbizo*, social crime prevention campaigns and community sectors. She specifically recruited community members who were conversant with research.

5.6.1.4 Data collection strategy for single public opinion question instrument

A total of 306 police members and 397 community members were randomly selected from the four provinces participating in the research, namely, Western Cape, Gauteng, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The participants were from all races and both genders and 18 years and above living in SA. All 306 -police participants (PPs) and 397 -community participants (CPs) were provided with the same single public opinion question. The question stated, “What do you think South Africa need to do for communities to feel safe in the street, at home, at school, at work and in public spaces”.

5.6.1.5 Data analysis for single public opinion question instrument

The participants gave their responses pertaining to the question on the question paper. The researcher retyped all their responses with the intention of analysing the data that was qualitatively collected. All the responses had to be colour-coded, classified and put into themes, analysed and interpreted. Chapter 6 presents the themes and findings resulting from the single

public opinion question. The findings provided sufficient information to enable the researcher to compile a reliable and valid five-point Likert Scale questionnaire.

5.6.2 Individual semi-structured interviews instrument

An individual semi-structured interview instrument, as contained in Appendix 2, had to be selected “to allow more clarifying, probing and cross-checking questions” Zulu (2001). Eventually, the qualitative data results backed “the development of the quantitative questionnaire for police officers and community members” concerning the SAPS implementation of the NDP Chapter 12. In order to eventually develop the relevant questionnaire, the development of a “semi-structured interview instrument” to complement as well as improve quality, credibility and integrity of research results was considered and executed. Bowling (1997) probed the structure and scope of “the semi-structured interview” schedule which included mostly “fixed questions but with no or few response codes and were used flexibly to allow the interviewer to probe and to enable respondents to raise other relevant issues not covered by the interview schedule”. Certain “semi-structured interview schedules” allows “an interviewer to ask questions randomly at appropriate opportunities during interviews” (Zulu, 2001). Given the extent and purpose of this research, “the semi-structured interviews (open-ended questions plan)” had to be employed for collection of data to allow “new ideas to be brought up during the interviews” (Patton, 2002). “The most powerful ways to understand human behaviour” as perceived by Koshy (2005:92) is conducting interviews. As stated by Patton (2002:34) and Anderson (1998:190), on the account of aforesaid study, interviews remained valuable and accepted for “gathering in-depth information of the participants’ experiences, knowledge, opinions and beliefs”.

While considering the advantages and disadvantages of semi-structured interviews, in accordance with a “semi-structured interview schedule” which stipulates “predetermined questions” as well as “sequences for the interviewer interviews” the interviews had to be conducted (Zulu, 1999). “Individual semi-structured interviews” during data collections afford a researcher the opportunity to directly probe a respondent’s perceptions and opinions through follow-up questions which can be through telephone calls, emails or other ways. A selection of the semi-structured interview for this research was grounded on the researcher attempting to explore and analyse issues associated with building safer communities. Premised on the

research questions, this collection of data method remained the best suitable for the examination of matters associated with building safer communities. The data collection formed the foundation for the compilation of the quantitative interview.

5.6.2.1 Study population and sampling for individual semi-structured interviews instrument

The study population of the qualitative phase comprised current serving senior management of the police, junior management core of the police, retired senior management police officers, senior management in government departments, academics and civil society. According to Scott and Morrison (2007:219), sampling is about the “selection of a subset of persons or things from a larger population”. Gall, M, Gall, J, and Borg (2007:166) and Neuman (2011:246) add that “with the intention of representing the particular population”. In line with Cozby’s theory (2009:139), a “non-probability sampling procedure” had to be employed towards “selection of knowledgeable and experienced participants”. Cozby’s theory is the foundation for utilisation a purposive sampling approach to choose experts around the country. For individual semi-structured interviews, “topic-specific experts in the field of study” were selected by the researcher as participants, grounded on individual particular expertise as well as “close involvement in community safety and crime prevention”. Mainly, the target group, was purposively sampled based on their knowledge, and expertise and interest in the research topic. Previously or/ as well as currently involvement in community safety and crime prevention programmes, informed purposively selection of the participants for this study phase.

5.6.2.2 Participants recruitment for individual semi-structured interviews

Recruitment of participants remained critical in ensuring that appropriate target groups contribute towards the study. Therefore, the researcher recruited individuals because of individuals’ knowledge, expertise, as well as interest within the research topic. They were met by the researcher while she was conducting other research studies in previous years and during the SAPS *izimbizo* with communities (community gatherings). These individuals showed considerable interest in building safer communities in line with the five priorities of NDP: Chapter 12. The researcher informed them of the research that she was planning to conduct in the field of criminology and briefly explained the focus area for the research. She then recruited

them to participate in the study. Out of 49 purposively recruited participants, 36 participated in the single public opinion question and 13 in the individual semi-structured interviews. These individuals agreed to participate in semi-structured interviews and/or focus group discussions in their individual capacity and contact details were exchanged for further communication. The researcher planned for focus group discussions, but the same aim was achieved with the individual semi-structured interviews. Therefore, there was no need for focus group as it was not going to add or yield new information. The triangulation process was strengthened through the three built up mixed-methods research process.

Recruited participants made the commitment that should they not be available for one-on-one interviews, they would respond in writing to the questionnaire and email the completed questionnaire. If the researcher sought any clarity or had follow-up questions, she would make telephonic or email contact. Therefore, in case of participants' non-availability for "semi-structured interviews and/or focus group discussions", the questionnaires would be emailed or hand delivered to them as per agreement during their recruitment to participate in this study. The respondents would then return the completed questionnaire by email or the researcher would personally collect the questionnaire.

5.6.2.3 Data collection of data for individual semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are "adaptable and flexible" (Verma & Mallick, 1999:128). The interviews could produce "rich material unobtainable in any other way – this could support or be supported by other data from questionnaires and standardised test responses" (Vosloo: 2014, 332). Based on her experience during this study, the researcher aligned herself with Verma and Mallick (1999). The purposively sampled respondents could not make it to the one-on-one interviews due to the coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic but their interest in the study resulted in them requesting that alternative methods be used to contribute to the study. They requested to give written responses. Hence, the researcher emailed a quantitative electronic individual semi-structured questionnaire with 11 questions to 13 recruited participants for the individual interview. They all positively responded to the questions. The researcher was also afforded the chance to clarify the statements and engaged further with respondents through follow-up questions via telephone call, email and WhatsApp. The responses to which the researcher wanted further explanation and clarity and to use as follow-up questions were identified. The

researcher telephonically interviewed the relevant participants. The responses were colour-coded, categorised and put in to themes and analysed. Chapter 8 presents the themes and findings.

5.6.2.4 Data analysis for individual semi-structured interviews instrument

According to different themes which came out from the single public opinion question with participants and from individual semi-structured interviews, the data had to be coded. For conveying results to deliver an improved comprehension of the research topic, a comprehensive and wide-ranging analysis had to be employed utilising “the open and selective coding processes”. Therefore, themes’ reflection indicated “the collective views and perspectives of participants” which contributed to the semi-structured interviews. The police and civilian participants’ identities, during the analysis process of their views and perspectives were ensured that were protected by the researcher.

There was a need to make the most use of interviews to collect the data taking into consideration of the purpose and magnitude of the research. Therefore, retired police officers, subject matter experts, civilian society and academics participated in interviews towards achievement of research aims and objectives. The responses were colour-coded, categorised and put into themes in accordance with the theory of research on data analysis as provided by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 461) which state that “in the process of making sense of participants’ views and opinions of situations, the corresponding patterns, themes, categories and regular similarities” should be considered in “transforming data into findings” (Patton, 2002: 432). The findings based on the themes are explored in Chapter 8 while Chapter 9 forms the conclusions and recommendations part of the study.

5.6.2.5 Reliability and validity

The requirements of research reliability and validity are vital for every study (Zulu, & *et al*, 2004: 171). These requirements entail ensuring the reliability of research instruments and validity of the research results. According to Noble and Smith (2015), reliability as well as validity are aimed at designing and incorporating “methodological strategies to ensure trustworthiness of findings”.

Some qualitative researchers have begun to advocate that terms like “credibility, dependability, confirmability, trustworthiness, verification and transferability be used instead of validity” (Vosloo, 2014:329). This is due to some qualitative researchers interrogating “the relevance of the term validity in qualitative research” (Vosloo, 2014:329). However, scholars like Miles and Huberman (1994) as well as Tobin and Begley (2004:388-389) remain with the view that “it is inappropriate to transfer terminology across paradigms”. Without doubt, these writers successfully advocate “alternative means” for demonstrating “reliability and validity outside the linguistic confines of a quantitative paradigm”. There was adherence to rigour (i.e. adherence to quality, precise, to very exact, thorough and accurate) in order to “ensure reliability and validity” within this section of qualitative research (Tobin & Begley, 2004:389-390; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007:239). Inspired by these scholars, “rigour refers to the demonstration of integrity and competence in qualitative research by adherence to detail and accuracy to ensure the authenticity and trustworthiness of the research process” [and] “the rigour of the qualitative research section relates to the overall planning and implementation to ensure the authenticity and trustworthiness of procedures, according to the following criteria” (Zulu, 2001: 76-78), Tobin & Begley, 2004:391-392; Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006:49-50; Freeman *et al.*, 2007:28-29):

Credibility: There should be engagement with the data “recordings, notes and transcripts”. This was done intensively to demonstrate clear links between the data and interpretations. According to Zulu (2001) regular deliberations should be held and alterations and adjustments should be made in accordance with proposals and recommendations. **Dependability:** Riege (2003:81) states that, “dependability is analogous to the notion of reliability in quantitative research”. The test’s purpose is to display signs of “stability and consistency in the process of investigation” (Zulu, 2001). Precautionary measures were taken to make certain that the process of research was rational, logical, perceptible, traceable as well as clearly documented in a reflexive fashion through providing a comprehensive account of the process of research process. **Authenticity:** The development of the question items was grounded on a considerable theoretical foundation as described in Chapters 2–4 as well as Chapters 6 and 7. The interview schedule was first used during the “pilot test” to make sure the yielding of valid, reasonable and unbiased data. **Confirmation:** An audit process was executed by working forward, as well as backward through the research process, to guarantee that the data as well as interpretations of the findings were sound and confirmed findings. The intention throughout the interpretation

process was to guard against generalisation of findings to a population and to ascertain accepted trends and principles connected to the topic of research. Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004:172) underscore the importance of enhancing the construct validity of research instrument by intersubjective cross-checking and evaluation by the researchers especially those who were never involved in the field-work.

The trustworthiness of this study phase was ascertained by applying the criteria of credibility, dependability, authenticity and confirmation. The description of what was done in the qualitative research process, how it was done, and why it was done as well as adherence to the identified criteria for qualitative research, confirmed the authenticity and trustworthiness of this research phase.

5.7 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

The quantitative research necessitates accurately assessment of the data that entails “numbers” in an attempt of excluding the researcher’s biasness and prejudice in his or her viewpoint. The survey on the quantitative approach “deals with the statistical analysis and numerical data to provide quantitative information” (Lund, 2005:128; Thiétart, 2007). The statistical data analysis in the quantitative study at all times includes “the numerical data analysis collected through some kind of structured questionnaire. Characteristically, the quantitative method creates the most use of a structured questionnaire in any research settings.

5.7.1 Five-point Likert Scale questionnaire

As indicated by Zulu (2001: 54), the main purposes of literature survey, *inter alia*, are to understand the nature of the problem and its extent as well as identify the critical constructs to be included on the construction of a questionnaire. Therefore, Zulu (1999: 75) emphasises the importance of carefully crafting of a questionnaire, its simplicity and its friendly approach to collect the desired raw data. The research objectives and aims should be the foundation of the questionnaire formulation aligned with literature review content of a research. The Likert Scale of rating is considered during the questionnaire construction. In this this study, the five-point Likert Scale, as contained in Appendix 3, was used as the anchor of “strongly agree, agree, unsure, disagree and strongly disagree”. Therefore, this instrument allowed independently and

individually rating of a massive amount of views and opinions. This gave opportunity to the participants to demonstrate the degree of agreement or disagreement towards “diverse statements by ticking in the appropriate box, according to the given ratings”. The community as well as police respondents replied to similar questions concerning the statements in a questionnaire with the biographical information part the same. The police had but a few items that were police specific.

5.7.1.1 Study population for five-point Likert Scale questionnaire

The total population of this research involved 1 243 police stations as well as some 193 000 personnel of the SAPS 1086 (SAPS Annual Report, 2018). Western Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Gauteng had the highest number of police stations and population; however the lowest quantity of police stations and population were experienced in the Northern Cape. An amount of districts (clusters) were observed in the individual province. As stated by Babbie and Mouton (2008:174), the population study means “the members of a group of people defined as respondents to whom the research measurements refer by reported results, findings and inferences”. The study population contained police as well as community members. This population had various responsibilities and interests in building the safer communities.

5.7.1.2 Five-point Likert Scale questionnaire sampling

Neman’s of perspective of sampling (2011:241) makes a reference to sampling as “the process of selecting a sample as a small portion or subset from a defined population with the intention of representing the particular population”. However, this research purpose was towards proposing the recommendation of the effective plan for building safer communities in SA. Welman *et al.* (2009:69), states that “purposive sampling is the most important type of non-probability sampling” [and]...“researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity and/or previous research findings to purposely obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population”. According to Vosloo (2014: 341) “the adequacy of this kind of sampling for quantitative studies depends on the judgment of the researcher, and is therefore sometimes even called judgment sampling”. It is important in “purposive sampling” to primarily reflect on factors to

consider before selecting the sample accordingly, and the selection criteria of the respondents remains significant.

The quantitative research involved “a non-probability sampling” which was based on judgmental or purposive sampling of four provinces of SA and 40 police stations from them. Based on the diverse South African demographic mix, the study target population (provinces and police stations) was purposefully sampled by, firstly, being the top four largest provinces of SA by population, namely, Eastern Cape, KwaZulu-Natal, Western Cape and Gauteng. Secondly, the selection of police stations was based on high crime weight in terms of volume of murder cases registered in 2017/2018 financial year as per Annual Crime Report 2017/2018.

In each province, the stations were purposively sampled in terms of being on the top 30 high crime weight on registered murder cases in the police station using the Crime Statistics Report of the 2017/2018 financial year. From the top 30 stations, ten stations were randomly selected. At least 25 participants with more than two years’ experience in policing were randomly selected from the SAPS Act members per police station with representatives of all police ranks from the level of Constable to the level of Brigadier.

In total, 40 police stations and 1 000 participants in four provinces were sampled for quantitative research approach purposes. In line with SAPS demographics in terms of ranks, based on the figures of SAPS Act members, the sampling of 79% of the 1 000 participants was non-commissioned officers (i.e. Constables, Sergeants and Warrant Officers); 19% of the 1 000 participants were the commissioned officers (i.e. Captains, Lieutenant Colonels and Colonels) and 2% of the 1 000 participants were Senior Management (Brigadiers). In terms of gender, the ratio was based on SAPS operational members’ male to female ratio, at least 70% of 1 000 participants were male and 30% of 1 000 participants female. The 1 000 community members participating in the quantitative research were randomly selected. They were recruited from community members in the same policing precinct of the sampled stations “based on their availability and willingness to complete the questionnaire”.

5.7.1.3 Participant recruitment for five-point Likert Scale questionnaire

The researcher identified contact persons at the different provinces and police stations who were in a position to help with the distribution and collection of questionnaires from and to the study population, in particular, where access was difficult for the researcher. This was done by contacting the identified persons telephonically and by email. Additionally, members at different police stations assisted where possible and recruited more respondents. One thousand (1000) community members, not younger than 18 years, were recruited from the different areas such as when they were coming to the police stations, at their homes, in churches and at Tertiary Institutes within the same policing precinct as well as inclusion criterion was that they had to be conversant with English.

5.7.1.4 Five-point Likert Scale questionnaire data collection

Provincial officers assisted the researcher in collecting data. The researcher sensitised them through the announcement of the study and requested them to support the research. The questionnaire was attached to emails together with the letter of consent to the participants for completing the questionnaire. The researcher further recruited during parades at stations using provinces. The research was conducted at the convenient time and venue for participants. A letter was written to the SAPS to request permission to conduct research in the SAPS as contained in Appendix 4

The return rate of a fully completed questionnaire contributes to the soundness of a study. Regardless of the method of sampling employed, non-response challenge to the survey needs to be confronted. Non-responses would not matter if one could be certain that non-respondents were very similar to respondents on all relevant variables in that they would have answered the survey similarly if they had taken part. Welman *et al.* (2009:73) maintain “that non-responses occur because participants refuse to be involved in the research for various reasons” as well as “owing to interrelated problems such as refusal to respond, ineligibility to respond, inability to locate participant, and participant located, but unable to make contact”.

An amount of steps were taken by the researcher towards maximising the extent of responses. This included keeping the questionnaires attractive and relevant to incidents that participants

were daily experiencing, theming the questionnaire, promising the delivery of feedback to the research contributors after the completion of the study, providing participants with free pens for completion of questionnaires and telephonic follow-up with the participants whose contact details researcher had.

The questionnaires were distributed to the police officers and public and located in the four provinces of SA, for this study. It took on average 20 minutes to complete, in total over 1 000 questionnaire response sheets (police officers) and over 1 000 questionnaire response sheets (public) were distributed of which 807 (42,3%) and 1 101 (57,7%) respectively were returned. For purposes of this study, a total of 1 908 (95,4% return rate) respondents were regarded as the study population.

5.7.1.5 Five-point Likert Scale questionnaire data statistical analysis

The researcher implemented “descriptive statistical techniques” for data analysis process. As specified by a five-point Likert Scale through a choice of a strongly agree to strongly disagree with the statements, ratings were recorded. Measurements that support the statements had to be implemented to “describe the average of selected sets of scores” in terms of percentage distributions. This was done to obtain indications of strong agreements versus strong disagreements with the statements. Data obtained were statistically interpreted and analysed in collaboration with the appointed Statistical Consultant. Capturing of data was done through an “Excel spreadsheet” and statistically converted by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer software programs to obtain related scores for the purpose of quantitative interpretation. Therefore, Excel was utilised for recording of data, exploring data as well as reporting of results and presenting them on the tables and graphs. SPSS software was used to perform “statistical procedures, such as the descriptive analyses of data and to present results in graphs” (Cronk, 2017).

5.8 QUESTIONNAIRE AS MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT

Scholars and researchers such as Monette, Sullivan and DeJong (2011:164) view a questionnaire as “a way to collect data in survey research that contains recorded questions that participants respond to directly on the questionnaire form itself, without the aid of an

interviewer”. Scholars and researchers such as Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:39), Best and Kahn (2006:313) and Muijs (2011:38-39) maintain that questionnaire utilisation as the instrument of research owns certain advantages and benefits, on the other hand also owns disadvantages and shortcomings according to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:39) and Muijs (2011:38-39), as is pointed out in Table 5.3 below:

Table 0.3: Advantages and disadvantages of questionnaires

ADVANTAGES AND BENEFITS	DISADVANTAGES AND SHORTCOMINGS
It allows users at their own convenience to complete the questionnaire and to ponder around their responses.	It regularly has low return rates and because of data entry and follow-up, it is time consuming.
With nominal effort, vast amounts of data is collected through questionnaires.	Because of ease production and dissemination it can end up in the collection of high volume of data which some cannot be successfully used.
The accessibility of large number participants in single place saves expense and time and provides a “high proportion of useable responses”.	Questionnaires are competing for participants’ time as are commonly used.
They can repeatedly be made use of to “measure differences between groups of people” and therefore are reliable tools to gather data.	Time constraints in completing the questionnaires can yield to superficial data.
Questionnaires that are well- designed allow the identification of relationships between data.	Following the participants to complete and return the questionnaires is a tedious, laborious and exhausting process.
The administrators of questionnaires have the opportunity to build relationship, elaborate on the meaning of items that may be unclear and give details on the purpose of the study.	
Questionnaires are predominantly beneficial to displaying relationships with ease quantifiable data.	

Source: Best & Kahn, 2006; Muijs, 2011; and Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003

5.8.1 Questionnaire design

According to Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:19) while designing questionnaires, overlooking the mistakes, ambiguities and vagueness in question construction and layout is easy and possible. The validity and reliability of the data collected as well as the response rate is affected by the questionnaire design. By cautiously and thoughtfully designing of individual questions, providing the questionnaire form with excellent, perfect and flawless layout, as well

as straightforward explanation of the questionnaire's purpose and pilot testing, spontaneously the response rates, reliability and validity can be enhanced.

In the research under review, the questionnaire was designed for respondents to complete anonymously (see Appendix 5). Each respondent received the questionnaire accompanied by a covering letter. The instructions for the completion of the questionnaire as well as research purpose were explained in the covering letter.

The questionnaire design's point of departure was the research aims, the literature review (cf. Chapters 2, 3, and 4) the theoretical framework, the single public opinion question instrument and the individual semi-structured interviews instrument. As a result, subsequent quantitative data were 'built' or developed and thus linked with the qualitative results. Various principles regarding questionnaire development were considered in constructing the questionnaire. Economy principle that allows the respondents to offer extra information as possible within the shortest possible period, time and space accessible, was considered. Questionnaire's format remained professional with appealing appearance with user-friendly and clear layout. Accurate and detailed instructions had to be given for the questionnaire the completion. The theoretical basis (cf. Chapters 2, 3, 4 and 6) helped for the development of the questionnaire parameter, according to the research objectives and aim of this study. Full care was provided during the question construction.

The different sections of the questionnaire as contained in Appendix 3 are presented in Figure 5.2 below.

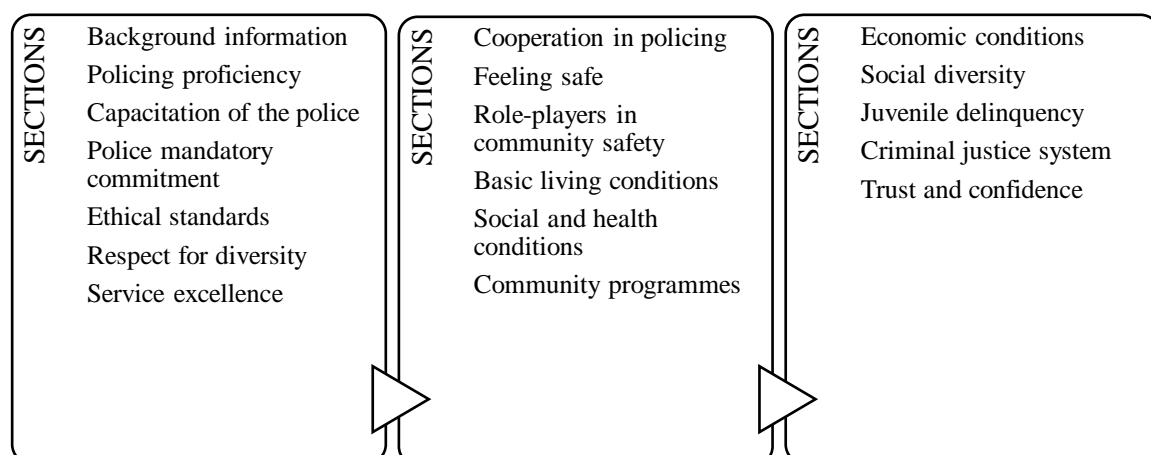


Figure 0.2: Different sections of the questionnaire

It was further imperative for the researcher to decide regarding the recording of the questionnaire responses. She decided on the five-point Likert Scale recording technique to capture the questionnaire responses. This included the responses regarding incidences, experiences, effectiveness and intensity of extent of the NDP implementation regarding building safer communities. The Scale required an indication of the degree of respondents' agreement regarding a particular question item on a given continuum. It was used to allow scores of either high or low values to show the extent of judgment, knowledge, experience and opinions of the respondents in relation to the issues of building safer communities in their policing precincts (Morris, 2006:42-44; Neuman, 2011:226).

5.8.2 Questionnaire reliability

Salkind (2012:115) maintains that consistent, stable, dependable, trustworthy, faithful and predictable are considered as alternative words for reliability. Precisely, Delport and Roestenburg (2011b:177) acknowledge that reliability addresses “what is being measured” while Muijs (2011:61) acknowledges that on every occasion when researchers need to measure something, “there is some element of error” which he refers to as measurement error. Hence, reliability then means the degree to which “test scores are free of measurement error.” Neuman and Kreuger (2003:179-180), and Salkind (2012:118) recommend measures to intensify the “reliability of measures” and the following précised measures to be considered during the study, including: Increasing the manifold indicators of a variable or quantity of items, removing items that are not clear, snowballing the level of measurement, keeping consistent scoring procedures and homogenising instructions as well as using the “pilot study”. Gratton and Jones (2010:92) and Delport and Roestenburg (2011b:177) confirm that “several procedures exist for establishing the reliability of an instrument, such as the test-retest and alternate-form methods and the split-half technique”. For the purposes of this research, a pilot study on the use of the questionnaire was conducted to measure the reliability of the measurement instrument.

5.8.3 Questionnaire pilot study

In any research project, piloting is vital especially where questionnaires are employed as a tool to collect data and improve reliability and validity. (Vosloo, 2014: 343). Bless *et al.* (2006:184) describe “the pilot study as a small study conducted prior to a larger piece of research to

determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis are adequate and appropriate”. Janesick (1994:213) agrees that in qualitative research, the pilot test permits the researcher to use the real qualitative interviews.

Motivated by Neuman (2000:243), the participants were told that they were being interviewed for the pilot study. They indicated that they were willing to help and to state where they did not understand the questions or where the response codes were not applicable to them.

Piloting was conducted with 11 participants. During the pilot study design the following were considered (Neuman, 2000:243 and Zulu, 2001: 78-79):

- Whether “each question measuring what it intended to measure”
- Whether “all respondents understood the wording”
- Whether the “understanding was similar for all respondents”
- Whether there was a “suitable response option in closed questions available for each respondent”
- Whether all “reasonable alternatives were included”
- Whether “any questions frequently or systematically missed”
- Whether questions “frequently elicited uninterpretable responses”
- Whether responses suggested that “the researcher had built in all the valid issues in the survey”
- How respondents felt about the questionnaire

In line with Wilkinson and Birmingham’s advice (2003:52), the researcher began to detect and “correct imperfections by piloting” a questionnaire with a chosen a small number of people to establish its unambiguousness and clarity. Piloting additional assisted the researcher in eradicating ambiguous and vague questions, and in producing valuable feedback on the flow and structure of the envisioned interview. Grounded in Welman *et al.* (2009:148), the pilot study purpose was to identify likely flaws in the measurement process, e.g. inadequate time limits; to identify unclear or ambiguously formulated items; ambiguous instructions, and researcher’s opportunity to identify participants’ non-verbal behaviour, such as demonstrating discomfort concerning wording of the questions. The final questionnaire was discussed with and analysed and approved by the Statistical Consultant who assisted with the statistical analysis as contained in Appendix 11. The structured questionnaire and the individual semi-

structured questionnaire for the interviews were subsequently improved through concerns raised during respective pilot studies.

5.8.4 Validity

According to Vosloo (2014: 346) validity remains the greatest important quality of a “measured dependent variable” and it is about the success or effectiveness of research tools in evaluating what it is intended for. According to Devlin (2006:76) “internal validity” remains crucial to “experimental research design”. Internal validity can be found by using at least “two groups that are equal in respect of both the dependent variable and all other (independent) variables”. Cozby (2009:86) maintains that “the internal validity of a research study” remains the degree to which its design lets the researcher to bring accurate conclusions regarding “cause-and-effect relationships”. The researcher requires to put an effort towards elimination of all possible clarifications for the results noticed (Devlin, 2006:76; Cozby, 2009:86).

Suter (1998:132) delineates external validity as the extent to which the researcher can generalise the research results to people, settings, times, measures and characteristics. According to Suter (1998:132) in case a study lacks “external validity”, then one remains unconfident that the findings are applicable beyond the narrow limits of the study. The lack of random selection remains the common threat to external validity. External validity is lacking once the sample not reasonably represent the population. Shadish, Cook and Campbell (2002:20-24) recommend four areas of uncertainty regarding the capability to generalise findings which include (i) the inability of researcher to conceptualise performance indicators, for other researchers to replicate the experiment, (ii) making certain that the control and experimental groups are larger populations’ representative, (iii) “being confident that the operationalised variables in the experimental setting can be replicated in real-life situations”, and (iv) supported by Bordens and Abbott (2011:116-117), being sure that “internal validity variables”, such as pre-test sensation, test reliability, maturation, history and selection will “not detrimentally affect external validity”.

5.8.4.1 *Measurement validities*

Neuman (2011:211) defines “measurement validity as how well an empirical indicator and the conceptual definition of the construct that the indicator is supposed to measure fit together”. Even though there are numerous kinds of validity, writers remain mostly in consensus that “there are a few common techniques used to assess the validity of a measuring instrument” (Neuman, 2011:211). Regarding the content of validity, different authors and researchers differentiates “three types of content validity”, namely “face validity, sample validity and factorial validity” (Iacobucci & Churchill, 2010:257).

- a. **Face validity:** As stated by Iacobucci and Churchill (2010:257), the relationship (correlation) between the researcher’s description of concepts and his/her description of the categories measured is referred to as face validity. For the purpose of this research, face validity thus decides whether a questionnaire, “after a superficial assessment”, appears valid at first glance for a participant who has to complete the questionnaire. According to, Kumar (2011:180) “face validity does not refer to what items of a questionnaire really measure, but rather what the researcher wants it to measure at first glance i.e. each question or item on the measurement instrument should have a logical link with an objective”.
- b. **Sample validity:** Guion (1965:124) states that “sample validity of a measuring instrument” remains founded in a “representative sample of the content relative to the concept about which information is obtained on”. Guion (1965:124) contends that “... content validity is the degree to which the total variance of the sample is related to the variance in the total possible population of tasks or items”.
- c. **Factorial validity:** Churchill and Iacobucci (2005:90) and Devlin (2006:72) draw “correlation between the questionnaire and a common factor measured by means of the questionnaire” and “two other forms of validity are construct validity and criterion validity”. The aim was to determine the respondents’ perceptions on how the SAPS is implementing the NDP towards safer communities. **Construct validity** carries connotation to assumptions reinforced by theory applicable to the concept. To comply with construct validity for this study, the items of the questionnaire were formulated in configuration with the theoretical foundations regarding building safer communities.

Face validity remained enhanced through conducting a pilot study to confirm the representativeness and relevance of the several items to the envisioned background (Bush, 2002:61; Roberts, Priest & Traynor, 2006:43). **Criterion validity** is the capability of a “measure to correlate with other standard measures of similar constructs or established measures”. Given the fact that no other standard measure of similar constructs or established criteria was available, criterion validity was not established. Subsequently, it is in line with the research design adopted for this research. External validity was optimised by the selection of police stations and provinces. Internal validity was ensured by means of a substantial theoretical framework, initial qualitative data and an adapted existing questionnaire (Bush, 2002:61; Roberts, Priest & Traynor, 2006:43).

A research instrument turn out to be exceptionally good when it assess the similar results all time it is utilised. Reliability is concerned with “the questions of stability and consistency” and the appropriate question is “whether the same results would be obtained by another researcher”. It is important in making certain that the instrument measures with reliability “what it is supposed to measure” and “is able to estimate the degree to which a measurement is free of random or unstable error” (Neuman, 2011). The creation of the questionnaire had to be developed in such a manner that it certified “high reliability, and enhanced consistency” as the same questions were posed to all participants with equal opportunity to answer all questions.

5.9 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS AND ASPECTS

Mouton (2001:519) promote that political and ethical considerations ought to be well-thought-out in the design and implementation of research in conjunction with scientific considerations. During the process of collection of data, the difficult of influencing participants to collaborate with the researcher remains ever existent. Deficiency of collaboration may possibly lead to incomplete filled-out questionnaires, non-response and subsequently, to unreliable and untrustworthy results (Mouton, 2001:519). While lack of co-operation can be disastrous in a research project, participants have a “right to refuse to participate and should always be respected by the researcher” (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:102. Some of the generally-accepted ethical rights of the participants are briefly discussed below as they are also relevant in this study (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:102; Mouton, 2001:522-526):

- a. ***Participation:*** Direct consent for participation should be attained from an adult based on the right to privacy demands. This means the participant should be made aware of the positive or negative consequences or aspects of participation in the research process (Mouton, 2001:522-526).
- b. ***Anonymity:*** Many people, for the sake of scientific progress or ignorance, are prepared to disclose information of a private nature on condition that their names are not mentioned. Usually, anonymity has no serious constraint in research, as social science researchers generally are more interested in collective data as well as in averages relatively to individual results. (Mouton, 2001:522-526).
- c. ***Confidentiality:*** In some studies, anonymity cannot be maintained, especially when data is collected using interviews. The interviewer has direct contact with all participants and is able to recognise each of them. Hence, respondents should be assured that the information given will be treated with confidentiality. They should further be assured that the data will only be used for the stated purpose of the research and that no other person will have access to interview data (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:102). According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:103), guaranteed of “confidentiality, a respondent will feel free to give honest and complete information”.
- d. ***No harm to the participants:*** Researchers should never injure the people being studied, regardless of whether they volunteer for the study or not. This includes the revealing of information that would embarrass or endanger participants (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:103).
- e. ***Analysing and reporting:*** The researcher has an ethical obligation to both the subjects of the study and the scientific community. The technical shortcomings and failures of the study should be reported objectively (Mouton, 2001:522-526).

The researcher adhered to all the above-mentioned ethical considerations in this study. She communicated them to all respondents at the beginning of each interview. The permission to undertake the research within the SAPS was granted by the SAPS management. Formerly UKZN – Howard Campus – Humanities and Social Sciences Ethics Committee also provided consent for the study. The following ethical aspects were adhered to in this research:

- a. A detailed, prescribed application was submitted to Research Ethics Committee of UKZ for approval to conduct the research. Approval was granted as contained. See Appendix 7.
- b. Permission was granted by the SAPS through the SAPS Division: Research as contained in Appendix 8. This approval letter was presented to the respondents with questionnaires to encourage their participation in the research. Information was also provided to the participants concerning the nature of the study, participation requirements, confidentiality and contact information of the researcher.
- c. Informed consent was obtained from participants and respondents as contained in Appendix 10.
- d. Participants were not subjected to any risk of unusual stress, embarrassment or loss of self-esteem.
- e. The researcher ensured that participants would remain anonymous.
- f. The right to professional privacy and confidentiality of information obtained was guaranteed by a written statement in the cover letter as contained in Appendices 1, 2 and 3.
- g. The research was conducted according to the ethical requirement to report the findings in a comprehensive and honest way.

Issues of ethical and considerations have mostly to do with permission to conduct the research, the partaking of respondents, the community and public and the process used to analyse data (Bush, 2002). Thoughtfulness, carefulness and cautions were taken to avoid any injury and harm to participants regarding the sensitivity of the research theme regarding responses pertaining the SAPS implementation of the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities.

5.10 ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

Permission to conduct the research at police stations in four provinces of SA was obtained from the SAPS Division Research. All four provinces replied positively and provided their written consent. For the completion and filing of questionnaires, a well thought-out administrative system was established. As contained in Appendices 1, 2, and 3, a covering letter with clear

instructions and guidelines was also issued with each questionnaire. Some questionnaires from police stations were collected by the researcher following completion by the respondents and others were emailed and delivered. From the post office, the posted questionnaires were collected and the emailed and WhatsApp questionnaires were printed. Lastly, arrangements were also concluded with the Statistical Consultant for statistically processing the gathered data after the data was captured in Excel.

5.10.1 Data storage

The data obtained during data collection were written down and transferred to the password-protected computer as well as password-protected files. The recorded primary data were transferred to the researcher's password secured-laptop and to an extended encrypted back-up hard-drive and on CD. In ensuring that no unauthorised person accessed the data and to ensure privacy and confidentiality and to avoid identity disclosure, additional precautionary mechanisms were put in place – including ensuring that the recorder was wiped clean at study completion and extended encrypted back-up hard-drives, laptops and CDs were kept in the researcher's personal safe and also provided to the supervisor in UKZN.

After the supervisor had completed all verification and the study had been completed, the information in soft copies (electronic CDs) was cut for both the researcher and supervisor. This was done because of the problem with the archiving space that universities usually have, should the university have had the space to archive them, the researcher would have duplicated all the questionnaires so that both the supervisor and researcher had them. However, owing to the space challenge at the university, the 1 906 completed questionnaires (hard copies) were safety-kept at the researcher's home. The supervisor and/or university could contact the researcher at any time if they were needed and the researcher would deliver them by hand. The researcher undertook to keep in contact with the supervisor and in case of any changes in her address or contact details she would inform her supervisor.

5.11 STUDY LIMITATIONS

Zulu (2001:67) upholds that limitations limit the extent of a study and affect conclusion and the end results that could be drawn owing to the fact that the study may have access to only

certain people in an institution. Leedeey and Ormond (2013) contend that “limitations are possible mistakes and weaknesses that are beyond the control of the researcher”. According to Vosloo (2014:343), the limitations of the research remain to be “those characteristics of design or methodology that impact or influence the interpretation of the research study”. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) maintained that limitations continue to be “the constraints on generalisability, applications to ways in which one initially chose to design the study and/or the method used to establish internal and external validity”. As with other research studies, this research had some limitations.

Lack of participation of all the actors and implementers of the NDP Chapter 12 in the study was a limitation. As the researcher discussed the findings of the study in different chapters, she concluded that there was a need to include all the CJS and JCPS Cluster departments and other government departments. However, due to budgetary constraints and the magnitude of the study it became difficult. Their participation would have enhanced the findings and recommendations and also contributed to the proposed *Safer Community Model for South Africa* (Figure 8.2) in Chapter 8 and *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities* (Figure 8.3) in Chapter 8.

A further limitation was that while the four biggest provinces population-wise were covered in the survey, not all police stations in those provinces were included in the study. Although more than 2 000 participants were issued with questionnaires, only 1 908 participants returned the questionnaire. There was almost 4% less than the target set. Regarding community and police participation, there was a large difference in the responses by the community and the police. The PPs’ return was 42,3% versus 57 % of the CPs. Almost all questionnaire that were not returned were from the police participants. Most of the challenges faced were related to the police-shift working system where some participants received a questionnaire and were on rest days for four days following that.

5.12 CONCLUSION

Through conducting quantitative research joint with qualitative research, mixed-methods research may possibly overcome some of the disadvantages and shortcomings of quantitative research, which include reductionists models of research that may possibly overlook important

constructs that might be obtained through using qualitative approaches to create theory and generalised quantitative research results that may not be possibly in a form that is usefully and practically applicable to individual subjects. The advantage and benefit of mixed-methods research is that by means of utilising such method in this study, it was possible for the researcher to employ quantitative data to endorse and examine the qualitative data results, and qualitative data to endorse as well as add meaning to quantitative.

The quantitative research is regularly perceived to be poor in understanding the setting or context in which people talk and the voices of respondents are accordingly not directly or verbally heard and as a result this is perceived weakness of quantitative research. On the other hand, qualitative research is seen as deficient, because of the personal interpretations and the involvement of the researcher that may lead to bias. Therefore, it was vital for the researcher to adopt this specific mixed-methods design that best addressed the research problem concerning the SAPS implementation of the NDP Vision for building safer communities. Once the researcher had decided on the mixed-methods approach, she decided on pragmatism as the specific mixed-methods research design to address the research problem pertaining to the NDP.

The research design and methodology in this chapter were developed. To ensure the achievement of the set aims for this study, namely, to assess the SAPS implementation of the NDP in building safer communities, a specific, related research design was identified. With the aim of finding reliable and valid data that would effectively contribute towards the NDP implementation in building safer communities, the research design and related methodologies were developed. Ultimately, this would help the SAPS to deal with the demands of building safer communities in SA.

Chapter 6 presents and analyses the data captured with the qualitative research and discusses the findings. The data analysis and discussions of findings in this chapter focus on the qualitative research. In this Chapter, the qualitative data from the single public opinion question instrument is presented, analysed, discussed and interpreted in an organised manner to enable the researcher to ultimately recommend how the NDP should be implemented in building safer communities as well as identifying factors influencing and shaping the models for building safer community.

CHAPTER SIX

COMMUNITY AND POLICE VIEWS OF MEASURES REQUIRED TO ENHANCE COMMUNITY FEELINGS OF SAFETY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 described the conceptual framework for this study in detail, which is policy development supported by theories of change (ToC) and internalisation. This chapter and the succeeding chapters 7, 8, and 9 use this conceptual framework to discuss the findings, conclusions and recommendations of this study. Sands as cited by Mchunu (2016:32) outlines factors that policy implementers should steer clear of when considering policy implementation. Firstly, they should understand the identified problem: “High-level policy goals need to be matched with analysis of what problems government is trying to tackle and used to make good judgements on where to focus attention”. Secondly, Sands in Mchunu (2016) emphasises working with the wider system. He points out that, “policies are never implemented onto a blank canvas, they must compete for resources and attention with other national policies and local priorities and can draw upon some of the assets that often already exist”. Thirdly, Sands in Mchunu (2016) states that policy implementers should work hand in hand with other implementers.

Ross and Freeman (1989:167) indicate what precisely is monitored or evaluated throughout policy implementation. They begin with the extent to which a programme is accomplishing the proper target population, secondly, whether or not its service delivery system is consistent with the programme design specification, and, finally, what resources are being or have been expanded on during programme implementation. Further, programme progress in accomplishing the stated goals is measured. This indicates that there are critical variables that are important in shaping the direction of public policy implementation. The study under review monitors NDP implementation as a policy direction towards the national development of the country and specifically Chapter 12 of the policy, which envisions building safer communities.

Chapter 5 describes and explains in detail the process of rationale for and purpose of the mixed-methods research design. The mixed-methods research design was applied in this research to assess the SAPS implementation of the NDP in building safer communities. A combination of

qualitative and quantitative research methodologies was employed for the purpose of more comprehensive responses. The convergence of different methods of research increases the validity of research, since mixed-methods research is viewed as a form of triangulation. Mixed-methods research also assists in increasing the scope and range of the research to address the research problem and the related research questions.

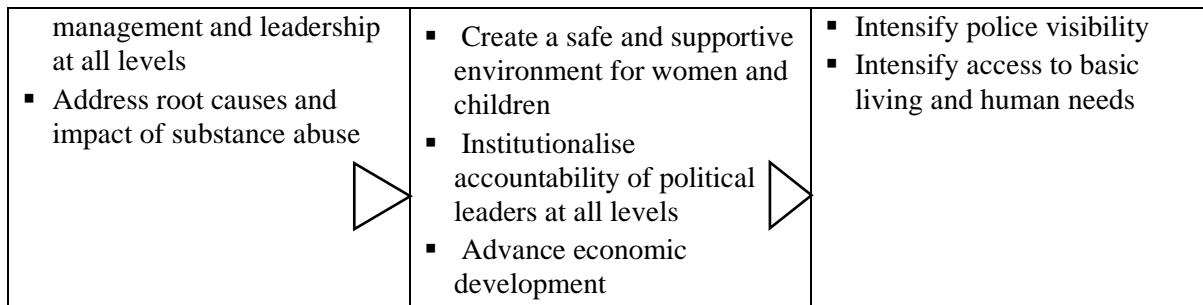
The quantitative and qualitative research data are linked. This chapter presents and analyses the data captured with the qualitative research and discusses the findings. The data analysis and discussions of findings in this chapter focus on the qualitative research. A total of 306 community participants (CP) and 397 police participants (PP) responded in writing to the same single public opinion question instrument (Appendix 1). The police and community members were asked one generic open-ended question, *‘What do you think SA needs to do for the community to feel safe at home, street, school, at work and in public spaces?’*

This chapter presents the data analysis plus findings and discussions of the one open-ended question that was posed to both police and community participants. Although, it is a qualitative research question, in analysing the data, the researcher in certain instances presents how many participants collectively responded, e.g. nine community participants or six police participants, the acronyms CP and PP and numbers next to them, e.g. CP18 and PP115, mean community participant and police participant respectively and the numbers that were allocated during data-capturing and coding.

Participants gave various responses and they were categorised and themed. Subsequently, the presentation and analysis of data plus findings and discussions followed the theme approach. The themes that will be discussed are community and police views on what could be done to let communities feel safe.

Table 0.1: Community and police views on enhancing feeling of community safety

Community and police views	Community and police views	Community and police views
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Capacitate police ▪ Professionalise police service ▪ Institutionalise and internalise accountability of 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Provide support programmes to empower parents and family structures 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Collaborate with and mobilise communities ▪ Strengthen the CJS ▪ Institute integrated approach to building safer communities



6.2 POLICE CAPACITATION

The success and effectiveness that SA can achieve in creating safe communities depend on the ability and competence of recruitment and employment of quality human resources. The major reasons for failed policy implementation are *inter alia* insufficient funds, “the absence of capacity to adequately manage the implementation process of policy, inadequate coordination of policy implementation, insufficient staffing and capacity in all spheres of government to achieve implementation, as well as the lack of synchronisation of implementation activities among spheres of government” (Mthethwa, 2014). The researcher asked the SAPS and members of the community one generic question on what they thought SA needed to do for communities to feel safe at home, street, school, work and in public spaces and respondents provided various responses. Responses that covered the expressed need for resources were consistent with the viewpoints found in the literature. Following analysis, the perceptions and viewpoints were classified and grouped into tangible and intangible capacity.

These perceptions and viewpoints of PPs and CPs are associated with the expressed need for physical resources are coupled with the need for an increase in human resources. Physical resources include, among others, vehicles, communication tools, finance and offices. According to PP251, SA needed to provide police and other government departments with resources and equipment necessary to perform their duties. Eight police participants added that the government needed to motivate the police by providing them with sufficient resources, building and opening more police stations and recruiting and training more police officials to decrease the crime rate in SA. They further urged the police department to supply them with state phones as they used their own cellular phones when at crime scenes. The PP 41 stated that at his police station ‘the phones had not been working for more than eight months and this had

a negative impact on community safety'. The PP261 was concerned about the shortage of members at the Family Violence and Children Section (FCS).

6.2.1 Provide tools of trade for policing

The challenges around shortages of tools of trades for police were articulated by both police and community participants in the responses such as: “more vehicles in working conditions with radios and blue lights to avoid delays when police are called for assistance and reduce criminal activities”, “If you have a problem and have to call police station, the answers are always there are no vehicles”, “I was told that they do not have police vehicle available. I had to go straight to the station to wait for police vehicle’s arrival so I can be assisted”, “Provide more quality and usable vehicles on gravel roads and cellular phones”, “Provide marked vehicles for patrols and visibility to prevent crime and to attend complaints”, “Sufficient and proper resources in all areas since crime is everywhere and skills to perform the duties and adequately police hotspot areas and attend complaints”.

A total of 34 police participants argued that there was not adequate police presence in the communities and this led to criminals having the chance to conduct criminal activities as they knew there were no police. The PP145 upheld that police members were trying their utmost best to fight crime but lack of resources was one of the key factors hindering them in performing their jobs. The PP167 added that SA needed to employ more police for visibility in each and every street, school, work and public places.

6.2.2 Improve recruitment strategy and process

The challenges around the recruitment and shortages of police were articulated by both police and community participants in the responses such as: “Increase the number of law enforcement officers with enough resources to serve the community, prevent crime, enforce the law, fight crime, conduct random stop and search operations and the roadblocks, and for more visibility”. “Members of the SAPS should be thoroughly screened. Members join the SAPS as a stepping stone. They do not stay long in the SAPS and are not dedicated. Once we have committed members, they will work for the community”. “Do thorough background checks for all persons recruited. Employ people who are willing to work, not children and relatives for the

management or people in high ranks who are not qualifying for the posts”. “Recruitment process needs to be reviewed”. “More white police officials in the area to deal with the issue of diverse community”. “Employ people with morals, values and standards”.

6.2.3 Improve employee value proposition to attract and retain the best

The PP43 maintained that if the members on the ground were happy, they would serve and protect the community with pride and dignity and look forward to doing their jobs. He urged government to make the police on the ground satisfied. Many police participants urged government to make the police happy by providing them with human and physical resources, promoting them timeously, recognising further qualifications through promotions, ensuring that management was competent at all levels. They were certain that if all of the above was met, police work would be much easier to do and communities would be safe.

The PP262 urged government to pay adequate salaries to encourage them to provide a better service to the community. He further compared the salaries of American police and South African police and “the quality-of-service delivery to the community” and concluded that American police were better paid and as a result they provided better service to their communities. Twelve police participants requested the government to increase police salaries as they were underpaid and to promote them when due for promotion in order to motivate them. Six police participants added that for police to be more effective, the government should increase salaries without necessarily promoting them to higher ranks. Twelve community participants pleaded with government to motivate public sector employees by increasing their salaries to meet their daily living basic needs. The PP252 urged government to consider implementing an effective performance assessment strategy to evaluate productivity versus salary remuneration.

6.2.4 Provide ongoing training

Fourteen police participants and eleven community participants recommended that police officers be well trained without favouring certain race groups and genders, police training be upgraded to be on par with international standards, qualified staff be obtained to provide excellent service delivery, proper on-job training be provided and discipline be instilled, police

be trained to be more community-oriented than just be operationally concerned, and more counselling be provided to police officers. The PP28 suggested that the SAPS should recruit experienced and disciplined instructors to instil discipline in the new police trainees.

Twenty-four police participants raised concerns about the lack of provisioning and attendance of training interventions. They suggested that the SAPS provide more training courses for operational members, invest more in specialised training, and enhance education in implementing the RSA Constitution, protecting and serving the community, preventing crime, and empowering victim and focusing on treatment of victims of crime with respect, humility and compassionate. The PP274 recommended that the government equip the police service with technological equipment and accessories as the criminals were daily getting smarter in the use of technology and had more money than the police so it was easy to bribe the police.

6.2.5 Improve police safety

South Africa had a duty to protect the fundamental rights of the public and the police, according to PP141. The life of police officers was always in danger when facing criminals. Police participant 184 stated that policing had become risky, dangerous and difficult were police were putting their own lives in danger. The PPs 205 and 141 raised concerns about the safety of the police and pleaded with the government to provide them with accommodation as they were in danger and were unable to buy homes and cars due to low salaries. The PP205 explained that if they bought houses, they would either use taxis to work or climb into the vehicles of the criminals, exposing them to risk. Alternatively, if they first bought cars, they could possibly rent rooms to criminals which also posed risk. The PP141 added that as government employees they were not allowed to get RDP houses as they were perceived to be too well-paid to qualify for such homes. Yet they could not afford to buy houses as their salaries were too small. The PP284 suggested that police officials should reside only in the prescribed residential premises available for police members and immediate families. Police participant 284 appealed to all the police officials to unite regarding one common goal and fight criminality. Police participants 205 and PP141 claimed that one would never be safe in SA if one did not have proper houses.

The CPs 35 and CP41 felt that police officers were defenceless. Police were vulnerable as they were brutally murdered on duty by heartless criminals. They expressed fear for the lives of

members as they were killed by criminals. They questioned who would protect the community as police themselves were ambushed and murdered daily. Community participants added that securities guards were working harder to deal with crime but they did not have guns and were endangering their own lives. The PP5 maintained that police families were feeling vulnerable daily when their loved ones were out serving the country.

The PP5 called for the government to reduce the rights of criminals who were brutally killing police. The majority of both police and community participants pleaded with the community to avoid working with criminals in attacking the police but to rather protect the police by helping the police them arrest those killing them and the community. The PP63 reminded the community that police were fathers and mothers and had children who needed their support and care. The PP175 requested government to ensure the safety of the police members concomitantly with the safety of community members.

Briefly, according to both community and police participants, capacitation of police was one of the critical factors in building safer communities. They believed that police visibility contributed to community safety. They acknowledged the lack of visibility of the police due to a shortage of resources, such as police officials and vehicles to prevent and combat crime as and attend to complaints in the communities. Resources include the human, physical, financial and information resources. According to respondents, well-trained, knowledgeable and skilled police with integrity and properly marked vehicles could increase police service delivery in communities. The participants revealed that there was a need to improve safety of for police for them to do their duties effectively. Most of the respondents – both community and police members – expressed the view that the recruitment process was very important in sourcing employees with integrity and honesty. According to a constable with more than ten years' service in the police, "recruitment and employment of government officials who are honest, trustworthy and transparent and have integrity would make SA a better place". The other participants added maturity, moral values and standards.

The study recognised that system-level requirements are fundamental in facilitating implementation and creating an enabling environment for successful delivery of programmes and interventions and to promote community safety, and crime and violence prevention. The NCPS calls for "the establishment of a comprehensive policy framework to enable government

to address crime in a coordinated and focused manner”. Such a framework will draw on the resources of all government agencies, and civil society. According to the literature surveyed, properly implemented community policing facilitates the cooperation and coordination of all available resources to the benefit of the community.

6.3 SAPS PROFESSIONALISATION

“Police ethics and integrity are of critical importance in the professionalisation of policing and countering police corruption, brutality, neglect of human rights and other forms of police deviance” (Government of SA, 2012). The reviewed literature indicates that the reasons for failure in policy implementation include “ineffective and corrupt political leadership in the administration, corrupt public servants in government, and the impact of historic burdens and ethics in government procedures” (Mthethwa, 2014). Professional police service could strengthen adherence to protection of all citizens’ rights.

6.3.1 Culture of commitment to serve with integrity

Without a positive attitude and commitment towards participating in building safer communities, the vision of building safer communities a mere dream. According to PP182, some police joined the SAPS for the wrong reasons, therefore with no dedication to the community, and lack of self-respect and no compassion for others. Five community participants concurred with PP182 and added that police had negative attitude, did not respect communities when reporting crime, and were demotivated, demoralised and frustrated. The PP38 raised the concern about hours the police spent in meetings and doing administration that take away time to fight crime. The PP112 suggested management should closely monitor police as some government wasted time on private business during working hours. Three community participants cautioned the police to be committed to their police duties to protect the community, and not to abuse state resources and powers bestowed on them. Those who found to be abusing their powers should be fired and replaced by men and women passionate about policing, they recommended.

6.3.2 Response time to community complaints

The CP228 maintained that the police should always respond on time in reporting criminal activities to prevent community members from taking the law into their own hands. Twelve community participants highlighted concern about police availability, visibility and response time and their complaints about not having enough vehicles at the stations. They added that with more patrol vehicles, criminal activities would decrease. The CP147 and CP393 maintained that the lack of police patrol vehicles delayed police attendance to complaints and appealed to the police to arrive at scenes on time when contacted. The CP124 was concerned about the malfunctioning of the sector teams and urged the police to work with the community and organise regular meetings with community members.

6.3.3 Dignity of victims

According to PP223, communication was very important for victims. The PP215 stated that the community should report those who were committing crime to the police and that police should use information provided by the community to prevent crime, provide feedback, be visible on the ground and give clear direction to the stations and crime fighters on the ground. Two community participants and two police participants called for the SAPS to get back to basics by ensuring police visibility and community meetings, and providing the feedback to the community whether positive or negative. The CP20 condemned police who were turning their backs on victims when they came to report cases, especially of missing persons. The PP232 pleaded with the police to treat everyone equally, irrespective of their status in the community. The CP335 appealed to the police assist members of public in writing affidavits, and to treat victims with respect. The CP10 raised concerns regarding the police's unpleasant remarks about persons with homosexual preferences.

6.3.4 Trust and confidence

According to CP52 and C366, some police were befriending, working with and protecting high-profile drug dealers and criminals, and were on their payrolls. As result, the community was not willing to work with them to solve crime. The CP171 added that dockets were missing and corrupt police officers were interfering with investigations. According to CP273, the police

should work on their integrity and discipline inside and outside the workplace for them to earn the trust of the community. The PP85 added that excellent service would increase trust and confidence in the police and boost the feeling of safety in communities. Four community participants highlighted their frustrations about the police who were sharing information that community members provided to them about criminal activities with criminals. This endangered people's lives danger and reduced the level of trust and confidence in the police. According to CP249 and CP372, police should work harder to earn trust and respect. They said that community members could no longer trust them mostly because of the few who were involved in criminal activities. The CP273, CP372 and PP85 added that some criminals were intimidating and threatening the police as they were working with the police and politicians.

6.3.5 Eradication of corruption

Participants perceived the police as being involved in corruption and that their conduct was threatening community safety and relationships. The SAPS members were continuously viewed with distrust and fear. More citizens than before believed most police officials were involved in corruption. The participants expressed their views in the responses such as: “the corruption within the government sectors is taking a toll on people and everybody is turning a blind eye”, “corruption is even within the police stations”, “recruit police who are not corrupt who are willing to work with other government departments and communities”, “ law enforcement must work with the community not criminals”, “police need to enforce the law and stop corruption and nepotism”, “arrest corrupt police officials to regain trust as the police”, “some of the police both SAPS and Metro are not trustworthy, they work with criminals and receive bribes and they put our lives in danger as we enforce the law and arrest the lawbreakers”.

The CP385 was of the view that “the police being honest, loyal and serve the community at large will yield trust and transparency from the community they serve and willingly will come forward to provide the most vital and crucial information that will assist the law enforcers to eradicate crime from the root causes”. The PP125 advised that police management “employ people without being bias and remove the corrupt top management of the SAPS”. The PP255 added that “more investigations are needed to investigate our corrupt police”. Participants identified contributors to high levels of corruption and said that they turned a blind eye on

corrupt activities, moral decay in communities, drug dealing, and nepotism, lack of accountability, greediness, and spending of allocated government funds for personal gain.

The participants identified ways of broadly uprooting corruption, which included fighting it at all levels; removing corrupt officials everywhere in government; creating employment, removing political interference with the CJS; dismissing all those who do not have integrity, retrieving all stolen monies and goods, employing more trustworthy and non-corrupt government officials, regularly checking the fingerprints of government officials and dismissing those with criminal records, taking a stance of zero tolerance stance to corruption and making arrests where necessary, screening immigrants, addressing corruption within JCPS Cluster, and stopping political interference with the CJS.

The participants highlighted the impact of corruption on community safety. They emphasised how corruption contributed negatively to building safer communities. They expressed the impact of corruption as follows: the communities were losing essential values and morals (CP40), bad role models for children and families (CP40), making SA a very unsafe country to live in (CP65), destroying the country (CP25), foreign investors leaving the country owing to corruption (CP73), SA not gaining ground in creating safer communities (CP32), accelerating selling and abuse of illegal substances (CP42) as some police officials were taking bribes from drug lords and illegal foreigners (CP17), the police were exchanging bribes in the view of the public but community could not react as police colleagues were protecting each other (CP32), owing to corruption, RDP houses were being sold to illegal foreigners and underprivileged South Africans remained homeless (five community participants and one police participant).

In summary, as gathered from participants' responses, corruption was rife. The participants' view was that corruption contributed to the community being unsafe and that hampered service delivery, failed the community and opened it up to negativity, e.g. the community's feeling of being unsafe. They described corrupt officials as lawbreakers, a law unto themselves and bad role models and deserved to be prosecuted. The participants' views indicated that government was not doing enough to deal with corruption. They maintained that politicians, high-ranking government officials, SAPS top management and police officials were contributing to high levels of corruption. Owing to lack of accountability and consequences of ongoing corruption communities became victims of it. Corruption compromised the quality-of-service delivery.

Therefore, the communities were generally not feeling safe. Both police and community participants highlighted the importance of strengthening the CJS by advancing ethics and integrity in government departments. They *inter alia* highlighted the following as ideal interventions to deal with corruption: getting rid of all the corrupt officials, investigating corrupt officials, arresting corrupt officials, prosecuting corrupt government officials and convicting those who were corrupt.

The United Nations General Assembly Code of Conduct, Article 1979 (adopted in December 1979: Article 7 states that law enforcement officials shall not commit any act of corruption and vigorously “oppose and combat all such acts” and Article 8 states that they shall respect the law and the penal code, to the best of their capability, prevent, and vigorously oppose any violations of them” (Brown, 2013). Ethical policing demands all employees to act with integrity and respect for the law, thereby enhancing service excellence to the approval of the public.

6.4 ACCOUNTABILITY AND ETHICAL LEADERSHIP

It is essential that the management and leadership of organisations seek the input and involvement of all employees in matters that affect job performance. Effective management includes the active participation of employees in policy development, procedure, strategic design, and programme formulation. The success of organisations depends on the characteristics of their leaders. Knowing the needs of the people in the community, problem-solving and achieving objectives are essential. The organisation cannot be successful unless everyone contributes. Therefore, leadership needs “to work with community to control crime and improve the quality of community life, make decisions timely” (Brown, 2013) as well as in a responsive manner and dedicate the entire organisation to a core set of values.

6.4.1 Service delivery resources to be rationalised and reorganised

Streamlining of resources is critical in addressing challenges associated with resource utilisation in the organisation. Hence, rationalisation and reorganisation of resources are proposed. The PP169 felt that “SAPS is too top heavy at national; provincial and cluster levels and stations are battling to provide effective policing to its communities”. The PP169 suggested that the SAPS should “Reduce officials from generals to colonels. Reduce the waste bill and

employ more youngsters in the police. We need more operational members on the ground”. The PP196 warned the SAPS to “spend the budget wisely” and alluded to the fact that the “problem is in top management and politics”. “No money for goods and services in the SAPS but R42 million is spent on events --- while failing to maintain the stations with basic needs for policing and crime prevention”. The PP291 appealed to “station commanders to take care of their members and provide them with strong and quality resources, such as vehicles. Transport is a big challenge to SAPS stations”.

In summary, the participants upheld maintainable community safety demands, institutionalisation and internalisation of accountability to management and leadership at all levels. Management and leadership of the organisation should direct interventions towards community safety. They should instil confidence in the community and police and that they are there to serve the needs of the people and perform their responsibilities accordingly and account to their actions.

The success of public policy implementation is also dependent on the competent and visionary management and leadership that live up to the challenges that go with the public policy implementation (Mokhaba, 2005). The study revealed that there was ongoing instability in leadership in the SAPS. The NDP effectiveness is dependent on stable, competent and visionary management and leadership to lead its implementation. Therefore, there is a need for leadership that will drive a tangible and inspiring vision of building safer communities with the purpose of making people “be and feel safe in the country while at home, work, school”, as well as elsewhere and live freely without fear. They should take strong ownership in building safer communities. They should provide broad capacity, skills and tangible organisational support for making communities safe. The leadership should create effective NDP implementation in a conducive environment. Inversely, failure to provide a conducive environment may lead to ineffective NDP implementation, which, in turn, will result in non-accomplishment of the set NDP Chapter 12 objectives and priorities.

From observations and the findings of the study, it is evident that realisation of the vision of safer communities relies on leaders that are able to act to achieve the set objectives in the NDP Chapter 12. The participants stressed the importance of leaders and managers who inspired creativity in problem-solving and independent thinking, especially when it came to technology

and innovation. The participants stated that effective NDP implementation was in the hands of station commanders and leadership at the stations who knew the “needs of the people in the community”. They worked with the community to “control crime and advance the quality of life in the community”. However, they needed the support of the provincial and national leadership to realise the vision of building safer communities. Without both tangible and intangible resources, building safer communities would not be realised. Management and leadership should create an environment in which the entire organisation is committed to a fundamental set of values. It should further instil understanding that the organisation cannot be successful unless everyone contributes. Therefore, management and leadership should create settings where decisions are made timeously and implemented without further delays.

6.4.2 Ethical and collaborative leadership to be institutionalised

The PP286 maintained that the management should offer strategies to let the community feel safe. According to PP263, “the leaders need to pull together, be strict and firm as well as work hard not to bully the juniors with their ranks as this makes the members negative”. The PP56 supported PP263 in that police members, including management, needed to be positive and motivated to do the work. In addition, PP26 stated that management should lead the organisation and be able to fight and eradicate crime. The PP26 felt that management was “fighting for the positions”, hence unable to fight crime and that “the SAPS needs united leadership”. The PP217 concurred with PP26, pleading that “the senior officers must stop fighting and fight crime and gangsters. They must stop working against each other”. PP26 further felt that management was “opening useless units” and “opening many units will never stop the crime”. He advised management to “make stations work force stronger and add more detectives so that they can have better investigation”. The PP62 agreed with PP26 that “commanders must stop fighting for positions, and befriending and working with criminal and conducting corrupt activities”.

The PP125 cautioned the “SAPS to employ people without being biased and to remove the corrupt top management of the SAPS”. The PP265 agreed with PP125 that “nepotism is the problem with some of the police” and added “they are leading in corruption – earning fat salaries but still want more – very greedy”. The PP386 identified the need “to eliminate the mentality of accepting bribery from any member of the community that has committed a crime

in order for the investigators to be successful and it must start from top management of SAPS, and then the services will improve”.

The PP241 challenged promotion and appointment of staff members into positions and indicated that, “They must promote right people for right positions. Stop appointment of poor management in high positions of SAPS. Stop appointing members in senior posts that are followers, we need leaders to lead SAPS, not followers”. The PP180 added the “selection of managers in accordance with their work skills and experience”. The PP20 added that “appoint at high positions, e.g. MEC, ministers who are qualified for the positions”. The PP265 agreed with PP241 and PP180 on the appointment of “senior managers that can lead and direct the organisation in the right direction.” The PP241 further justified that “poor management (autocrats) leads to negativity amongst members”.

The PP44 was concerned about the “empty promises” from management regarding promotions. In line with PP44, PP290 invited “senior management to initiate increases or promotions to those who do over and above what is expected from them. They have constables at stations that do the work of an officer and not promoted in 10 years and more and this demoralises the members. All hard work with no proper salaries and putting their lives in danger”. The PP285 felt that “top management of SAPS was not taking care of its employees. “They are treating us not equally. Some units get high ranks straight from police-college but they are just standing at the gates. How do you spend more than 10 years in one rank as constable with tertiary institution qualifications but are expected to perform at your best? This is why the community is suffering because the service is failing. First deal with this problem inside the service. Then the results of that will show on the community”. The PP287 supported PP290 and stated that “SA needs to acknowledge the police and police work, the government must start taking care of their employees, show moral support, be compassionate and transparent so that they can dedicate themselves in creating a safe and secure environment for SA citizens”.

According to PP202, “those that have been placed to lead in these various organisations or parties have failed and if the head falls the whole-body collapses”. The PP202 stated that police were no longer “caring about the safety of community” but “achieving a target” and “no longer perform duties with their hearts and with intention to really make change and a difference in this country but instead they just look at their duties as a job”. PP149 felt that “it is a disgrace

to work for the police” ... [after] ... “Our police National Commissioner stated in the parliament in front of the Portfolio Committee for Police that the police are not able to protect the people of SA anymore”. This management statement has a negative impact on the committed, patriotic and selfless police members on the ground.

6.5 ROOT CAUSES AND IMPACT OF SUBSTANCE ABUSE

In the main, substance abuse has negative behavioural and psychological impact to quality of life (Zulu, 1999). Substance abuse includes, but not limited to, alcohol and drugs abuse. According to PP195, drugs, alcohol and poverty cause social problems. The PP98 stated that drugs and alcohol abuse, illegal firearms, rape, murder, and robberies make communities feel unsafe. The CP61 supported PP195 and added that crime was committed due to high substance abuse. The PP306 concurred with PP98 and stated that local and national governments should deal with substance abuse as it was contributing to high levels of crime and anti-social behaviour. The CP74 and CP232 maintained that drugs were problematic and created a violent society. The CP7 and CP17 added that drugs were destroying the country and making everyone feel unsafe. Furthermore, CP6 mentioned that drugs were destroying the future of the children and youth. The CP6 pleaded for all government departments to work together as the drug problem was beyond the work of the police.

The CP12 maintained that the use of drugs and alcohol were the main causes of people not feeling safe. The CP24, CP39 and CP7 felt that drug dealers were “highly causing crime and are killing the nation”. The CP53, CP81 and CP78 maintained that alcohol and drugs abuse contributed to high levels of feeling unsafe and crime. The CP27 and CP65 suggested closing drug laboratories and arresting drug dealers as part of the solutions to this scourge. The PP266’s concern was police being friends with the drug sellers. The CP42 added that the high level of corruption was the cause of abuse and selling of illegal drugs. CP11 was adamant that some police protect drug dealers and tavern owners who operate outside operating hours. The PP139 appealed to the communities to report the taverns that operated unlawfully and outside operating hours as crime was linked to alcohol abuse.

Nineteen community participants mentioned the challenges and impact of drugs and alcohol as depicted in Table 6.2. The CP62 raised the concern that the taverns offered far more than the

churches and schools. She recommended that the government strengthen the regulation on the opening of taverns. Agreeing with CP62, CP81 further suggested that the government should review the process of obtaining licences for taverns.

Table 0.2: The challenges and impact of drugs and alcohol in the community

Cited challenges of drugs and alcohol abuse	Cited impact of drugs and alcohol
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ People are assaulting each other in taverns ▪ Shebeens and taverns are selling alcohol to children ▪ Lack of enforcement of the laws and bylaws on the operation of taverns ▪ Lack of activities for youth causes them to take drugs and alcohol ▪ No programmes to prevent youth from doing wrong things ▪ Prostitution is coupled with drug-dealing ▪ Children are selling drugs ▪ Drugs are coupled with gangsterism ▪ Drugs are connected with illegal foreigners ▪ No rehabilitation centres for drug addicts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Children become victims of crime ▪ Increase in Gender-based Violence and Femicide (GBVF) ▪ Increased depression ▪ Increase in suicides and attempted suicides ▪ Girls get in prostitution for drugs ▪ Increase in the HIV/aids ▪ Social grants from government used for alcohol and drugs ▪ Escalation of crime, level of fear and feeling unsafe ▪ Behaviour of drug dealers is rendering the country lawless ▪ Drugs make people not think straight and kill each other when drunk

Nineteen community participants and six police participants suggested the enforcement of bylaws and laws on operations of taverns to address the challenges and impact of drugs and alcohol and to reduce the accessibility of drugs and alcohol. According to the Department of Health and Human Services (2005) and Department of Social Development (2010), substance abuse in families “places major stress on them, places constraints on financial resources, and can lead to a breakdown in family relationships – both nuclear and extended. Family members may experience feelings of abandonment, anxiety, fear, anger, concern, embarrassment, or guilt. In consequence substance abusers are likely to find themselves increasingly isolated from their families”. The participants stressed the necessity of addressing the underlying root causes of South Africa’s crime as critical. They indicated that alcohol and drug abuse contributed to high levels of crime and violence. Participants viewed addressing the root causes of substance abuse and preventing the accessibility of drugs and alcohol as well as enforcement of bylaws and laws as a cornerstone in solving the problem of substance abuse.

The participants further confirmed the proliferation of illegal firearms, drugs and alcohol. They confirmed that drugs and alcohol abuse and illegal firearms led to the commission of crimes and violence. They elaborated that drug addicts committed petty crimes to sustain addiction, while drug lords committed violent crimes to eliminate competitors and ‘uncooperative’ law enforcement officials. Poor enforcement of legislation and lack of effective firearm control activities contributed to easy accessibility of firearms. For proper control of access to firearms, it was important for the police to work with the licence applicants’ families, colleagues, neighbours, communities and family doctors and they needed to be open and frank when requested to provide character references of such applicants to ensure that at-risk-individuals were sifted from accessing firearms, participants said.

Participant made further recommendations. Life-skills interventions should be inculcated to reduce intimate partner violence. Educators and learners should take life orientation, as subject at school, seriously and they should take it seriously. This subject would contribute to developing life skills in children and youths. Coupled with social development programmes, it could reduce youth violence and juvenile delinquency. Participants maintained that reducing access to firearms, any weapons and poisonous substances could reduce violence and “suicide and other forms of self-directed violence”. Enforcing legislation to restrict their accessibility was one of the many interventions that government should come up with. Participants emphasised that by limiting firearm licensing and acquisition, the rate of Gender-based Violence and Femicide (GBVF) and other types of violent crime, including suicide could drop. Participants stated that victim empowerment and support programmes were important in addressing GBVF. They indicated the importance of victim referral for support to professionals, victim activism support programmes, psychosocial interventions, and effective execution of protection orders in reducing victimology related to GBVF.

The participants totally agreed that regulating sales of alcohol and accessibility of illegal substances and substance abuse could reduce crime, including all kinds of violence. The social standards that supported violent culture needed to be transformed and managed properly. Participants maintained that developing safe, steady and development relations among children and parents was the foundation for addressing the root causes of violent societies. They upheld that parent training in early childhood development and parenting programmes would not only reduce juvenile delinquency, but would also breed a generation of responsible citizenry.

6.6 INVESTING IN PARENT AND FAMILY EMPOWERMENT PROGRAMMES

According to Zulu (2001) lack of parental supervision lead to high level of violence and insecurity. The CP135 maintained that parenting skills were very important in building safer communities. The CP34 alluded to the fact that communities were raising the children in an aggressive milieu. This would result in increasing violence and immorality and parents struggling to raise their children. The CP34 mentioned the low morals of children growing up in unstructured families. Agreeing with CP34, CP80 maintained that government should spend more money on advocating parenting skills, controlling and guiding children at different stages of development and giving them proper values and morals. The CP4 concurred and added that because of the violent society, children, youth and women were unsafe and became victims of crime. The CP135 indicated that if children were raised without values and morals, they become rebellious and violent. This led to very violent societies. According to CP101, the government needed to address the root causes of crime, such as fragmented family structures, moral deterioration, poverty, illegal drugs, illegal firearm proliferation, alcohol abuse and unemployment for the community to be safe.

The CP1 felt that there was a need for government to provide parental education. The CP135 agreed with CP1 and stated that government should “invest in providing the parenting education more especially in our country where teenage pregnancy is prevalent”. The CP47 was worried about parents “who are afraid to discipline their children due to children’s rights as a result they do what they like”. The CP19 thought that young children were given too many rights as a result they exercised them rights in a bad way.

6.6.1 Moral regeneration programme investment

Five community participants and eight police participants highlighted the following challenges related to family structures and parenting as contributory to unsafe communities: “Children are not raised properly.” “Moral decay contributes to communities without values and morals”. “The communities are losing essential values and morals”. “The children’s upbringings do not

promote a culture of respect and discipline”. “Many boys are dropping out of schools”. “Some children misuse their rights”. According to PP294, prostitution was immoral and is risky as it could contribute to the “spread of HIV/Aids and other communicable diseases”, unwanted pregnancy and abortion. The PP294 further advocated the ending of prostitution. PP306 blamed poor role model’s moral degeneration. He added that children needed mentors. He criticised parents and children for abusing substances and becoming such role models. He berated parents who drinking and smoking with their children and sending them to buy alcohol and cigarette for them even though they know that it was illegal to do so if children were under 18 years.

The PP35 and PP66 added that teenage pregnancy and the rates of the abortion and infants being abandoned and stillborn babies being thrown away were increasing. This was a sign of moral degeneration. They suggested that the departments of Health and Social Development should provide programmes to deal with teenage pregnancy as it contributed to the high rate of HIV in the communities and raising of children by children-single-parents. The PP298 expressed concern about young children who were making wrong decisions and ending up committing crime, increasing the high rate of teenage pregnancy and giving birth to children who had to survive in poverty and parenting them while also still needing parents to parent them. The CP34 agreed with PP298 and added that the youth were giving birth to children just for social grants for their own benefit.

6.6.2 Family structure effectiveness renewal investment

The PP296 explained the dysfunctional family structures and their impact on unsafe communities as follows:

“Most of the family structures are not functioning. Parents abuse, neglect and exploit their young children. The children are raised in the families where crime, violence and abuse have been normalised and they do not see anything wrong about that. They know their fathers as gangsters and live in the culture of gangsterism, such as stealing cars, selling drugs and killing people with their guns. They see these things as their ‘future careers’ with ‘I want to be like my dad’ culture. They are also attracted to commit petty crime young as 10 years old. This behaviour of committing crime graduates itself as they grow. They start being gangsters and committing very serious and

violent crimes. The country ends up having unsafe communities full of children and youth in conflict with the law. Other children are homeless and staying on the streets due to the broken family structures. All these create unsafe communities”.

The PP230 explained that “the family unit is broken, fathers leave their partners with children and they are abusing drugs and alcohol. Children copy their parents believing this is normal behaviour thus, spawning a never-ending cycle of abuse”. The PP293 and PP294 described the situations facing parents in raising children. The PP293 stated that parents envisioned supervising and teaching their children good values while some parents were afraid of their violent children. Hence, they expected teachers to do what they were supposed to do as parents. The PP294 appealed to the government to provide social and parental programmes to support pregnant women and girls and to encourage fathers to be responsible fathers and take part in raising their children and not to pass on all the responsibilities for raising children to the mothers.

The PP293, PP134 and CP71 explained the situations the children found themselves to be in and the wrong behaviour that resulted in them being in conflict with the law. According to PP134, “there are many children in conflict with the law and smoking, drinking alcohol, taking and selling drugs as well as stealing”. He added that there were no activities for children and the youth. Hence, they ended up taking drugs and alcohol. According to CP71 “illegal foreigners are selling drugs to young children” and they eventually become street kids. There was a dire need for more shelters and rehabilitation centres for street children.

6.6.3 Community empowerment investment for related challenges

Twelve community participants and nine police participants suggested the following ways to deal with the parenting and family-related challenges:

“The government to understand the basic living and human needs for the families and respect the family structures as the foundation towards safer communities”. “Raising the child should not only be the responsibility for the parent but also for the community – to raise a responsible society”. “Better education systems that give skills to the children, safe public transport and safe trains with visible police are the fundamental needs of the communities”. “Teach parents

how to parent a boy child to become a responsible man”. “Parents must raise and protect children”. “Government should ensure that children go to school and bring back corporal punishment”. “Good behaviour should start at home first”. “Teach children good morals and values from childhood in order for them to grow and become responsible citizenry”. “Parents should be taught to be role models to their children”. “Parents must be good role models to their children”. “Communities must stop buying stolen property and report to the police the criminals who are part of their families”. “Communities must go back to *Ubuntu* principle”. The Departments of Health and Social Development should “assist to deal with social ills, suicidal behaviours and people who are suffering from depression” ... “provide programmes that instil social responsibilities to communities to alleviate social ills and provide education to parents, especial to young ones, on how to raise their children”. “There should be many counsellors to help people with socio-psycho challenges”. “Educate the children about the use of the drugs and teenage pregnancy”. “Inculcate life orientation skills in the schools in totality to prevent vulnerability in challenging situations”. “There must be programmes for raising boy children as nowadays they are very violent and with lots of anger and merciless”. “When boys/girls reach a certain age, they must go to grooming camps”. “The government departments must work together on programmes that will restore the dysfunctional family structures and provide training to parents on how to raise the children”.

According to CP71, the society had lost morals and values. The PP124 stated that the South Africans needed to rebuild the moral regeneration and this should start at school level. Correspondingly, PP54, PP230, PP18 and CP146 in accord with PP124 stated that the government should introduce moral and ethics education from primary school to high schools and revert to Christian and religious values and standards. They suggested that parents should teach their children good moral values and be role models to their children, and love and respect their children. The PP230 further suggested that “religious leaders and institutions should help families to raise children by providing a ‘moral backbone’; by doing so, children would not need to look for acceptance, by joining criminal groups or abusing drugs and alcohol to make themselves feel better”. The PP18 and CP146 advocated that adults should be good role models and mentors for their children by displaying good behaviour, respect and good manners to each other in order for children and youth to learn from them. The CP223 added that government should conduct back-to-school campaigns for the drop-outs children and conduct wellness campaigns for safe and proper healthy standards of living for children in their communities.

In summary, according to different various crime analysts and media reports, crime was an ever-increasing problem in SA, affecting many families negatively on a daily basis. According to the Department of Social Development (2013:34) “families of victims of crime were directly affected when they suffered the loss of life or injury to breadwinners, or any related trauma that they experienced. Families of the perpetrators of crime were also adversely affected as they contended with legal fees, social stigma, and the trauma of having a family member incarcerated or losing income from a contributing member”.

There is general consensus by the public and academics that “the South African society, with specific reference to family life and school life, is experiencing a serious moral breakdown or degeneration, described as the process of declining from a higher to a lower level of morality” (Louw, 2009). Moral degeneration is regularly perceived as “preceding or being associated with the decline in quality of life”. In SA it is widely reported in the media and is evident and reflected in social ills such as a “general lack of discipline, violence, poverty, unemployment, a high crime rate, school vandalism and corruption”. As stated by Louw (2009), such “moral ills, which have negative implications for society, have been attributed to a lack of a positive value system in society as a whole and to social media and technology which often penetrates family life by, for example, exposing children and youth to pornography and other negative influences”. Thus, lack of moral capacity has “a negative effect on the safety of the community” (Louw, 2009; Bayaga & Jaysveree, 2011).

Furthermore, “the rate of teenage pregnancy is a major concern in SA given that the majority of the pregnancies are unplanned, unwanted and non-marital” (Cooper, Morroni, & Orner, 2004). “Teenage pregnancy also has major social and health implications for young mothers and their children, including dropping out of school, curtailed personal development and increased vulnerability to exploitative sexual relationships, higher rates of maternal mortality and greater risks of clandestine abortion” (Dickson, 2003). As stated by Swartz (2003) and Cooper *et al.* (2004), “high levels of teenage pregnancy further reflect a pattern of sexual activity that puts teenagers at risk of HIV and other sexually transmitted infections”. In addition, “gang activity, coercion, substance abuse, and other social pressures are some of the contributory factors” (Cooper *et al.*, 2004).

Other “factors that contribute to teenage pregnancy include inadequate knowledge about sex, gender relations, lack of access to contraceptives and risky behaviours” (Ngubane & Maharaj, 2018). Ultimately, illegal abortions, the abandonment of babies, and child neglect are to be expected. According to Ngubane and Maharaj, because of “young mothers not having adequate financial support, they consequently access social grants to support their children”. Therefore, they recommended that in addressing the challenge of teenage pregnancy, “age appropriate and youth-friendly health services should be a priority for government” (Ngubane & Maharaj, 2018).

The predicament of “pregnant teenagers or teenage mothers is exacerbated by lack of support from partners” and is contributing to the number of absentee fathers in raising their children (Swartz, 2003). Although “high rates of unemployment, poverty, and financial constraints may contribute to a substantial number of fathers failing to take responsibility for their children, this trend is reason for worry – given the significant body of evidence confirming the positive result of the presence and active participation of a father in a child’s life chances, academic performance, and social, emotional and cognitive functioning” (Engle, Beardshaw, & Loftin, 2006; Richter, 2006; Kang & Weber, 2009). The findings revealed that creating safe, well-founded and valuing relationships between children and parents was critical in raising responsible citizenry. This could be achieved through inter alia implementing parenting programmes, investing in moral regeneration programmes, empowering communities with skills and knowledge to deal with the parenting and family-related challenges, and investing in renewal of effectiveness of family structures in building responsible citizenry.

6.7 SUPPORTIVE ENVIRONMENT FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN INVESTMENT

As stated by Spohr and Eryk (2016:34), “girls and women are especially vulnerable to violence, and very often this violence is inflicted on them by people they know”. According to Zulu (2001: 115) and Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004: 173-174), the lack supporting environment for children such as lack home and parental support, poverty, lack of resources, drugs and alcohol abuse, lack of necessary support structures and lack of respect of different values can lead to an outbreak of school violence and bring about unsafe conditions in school. According to Zulu (1999: 125) adverse conditions like these to feeling of fear and insecurity.

As result, public spaces are often not safe places for the children. The escalating gruesome and brutal murder of women and children is the cause of fear to the public. “Cases of violence and crime against the LGBTIQ+ community have also increased in number and brutality over the years”..... “Attitudes towards homosexuality are still extremely conservative” (Spohr and Eryk, 2016:34). This is the case locally although SA has of the “world’s most progressive legislation on homosexuality, including the legalisation of same-sex marriage and adoption rights for homosexuals” (Spohr & Eryk, 2016:34). It is important to understand what contributes towards making safer communities and making people unsafe. According to 408 participants, the contact crimes and sexual offences make people unsafe e.g. murder, attempted murder, sexual offences such as rape, assault, and robbery and the so-called trio-crimes, namely are residential robbery, car hijacking and business robbery.

Table 0.3: Analysis of National Crime Stats 2010-2011 to 2019-2020

CRIME CATEGORY	2010/2011	2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	2014/2015	2015/2016	2016/2017	2017/2018	2018/2019	2019/2020	Case Diff	% Change
Contact crimes (Crimes against the person)												
Murder	15 893	15 554	16 213	17 023	17 805	18 673	19 016	20 336	21 022	21 325	303	1,4%
Sexual offences	64 921	60 539	60 888	56 680	53 617	51 895	49 660	50 108	52 420	53 293	873	1,7%
Attempted murder	15 360	14 730	16 236	16 989	17 537	18 127	18 205	18 233	18 980	18 635	-345	-1,8%
Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm	197 470	191 612	185 050	182 333	182 556	182 933	170 616	167 352	170 979	166 720	-4 259	-2,5%
Common assault	184 103	180 165	171 653	166 081	161 486	164 958	156 450	156 243	162 012	165 494	3 482	2,1%
Common robbery	54 442	52 566	53 196	53 505	54 927	54 110	53 418	50 730	51 765	51 825	60	0,1%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	101 039	100 769	105 488	118 963	129 045	132 527	140 956	138 364	140 032	143 990	3 958	2,8%
Total Contact Crimes (crimes against the person)	633 228	615 935	608 724	611 574	616 973	623 223	608 321	601 366	617 210	621 282	4 072	0,7%
Total sexual offences												
Rape	48 158	47 069	48 408	45 349	43 195	41 503	39 828	40 035	41 583	42 289	706	1,7%
Sexual assault	7 006	7 194	6 967	6 597	6 087	6 212	6 271	6 786	7 437	7 749	312	4,2%
Attempted sexual offences	3 599	3 535	3 293	2 913	2 641	2 573	2 073	2 066	2 146	2 076	-70	-3,3%
Contact sexual offences	6 158	2 741	2 220	1 821	1 694	1 607	1 488	1 221	1 254	1 179	-75	-6,0%
Total sexual offences	64 921	60 539	60 888	56 680	53 617	51 895	49 660	50 108	52 420	53 293	873	1,7%

Source: Adapted from South African Police Service (2020). Annual Crime Report 2019/2020.

These crimes instilled fear not only in children and women, but also in many others as they are constantly increasing. With the increase in the contact crimes, especially murder, gender-based violence and femicide-related crimes, women “cannot walk freely in the streets and children cannot play safely outside”. People generally do not feel safe in their homes as GBVF-related crimes are sometimes committed by persons known to the victims. The annual victim of crime surveys unceasingly indicate that people are not yet feeling safe.

Most participants called for the government to protect women and children. Furthermore, they appealed to government to “stop violence against women and children, to society to value the life of individuals”, to parents to protect children as communities would be safer if children and women were safer. The way people were murdered worried the participants. The CP20 maintained that women and children were not safe and police were contributing to unsafe communities, as they were not opening cases for the victims of GBV. According to PP304 and CP38, women were mostly victims of domestic violence, abusive relationships and crime. CP271 added “those who they trust as boyfriends, they kill them”. The CP70 described the killing of women and children as “the killing of innocent and helpless women and children by cruel men”. CP70, CP271 and PP37 called for the justice system to give “life sentences to the perpetrators in order to send strong message”, “give death sentences to killers” and “give criminals who hurt children who cannot protect themselves life sentences”. The PP304, PP201, CP66 and CP70, in addition called for “SA to create a safe and supportive environment for women and children and stop GBVF”, “Fair justice system that accommodates all citizens including the poor. Less bias, long-term sentences and prioritisation of GBVF cases”, and “Reduce and eventually stop violent crime and killing of women and children in the society”. According to CP123, the communities should take ownership of their communities and work together with the government that they voted for to protect women and children. He added that this could only happen if government were willing to work with and listen to communities. The participants called for creation of “a safe and supportive environment for women and children”. They further called for strengthening the CJS to address this scourge.

Although there is no accurate GBVF statistics as a “result of under-reporting due to fear, shame, lack of adequate services, etc.” (USAID, 2006; Bendall, 2010), gender-based violence remains predominant. It is defined “as physical, sexual, and psychological violence against women” (USAID, 2006). Gender-based violence, femicide and sexual offences are prevalent in SA, and

are “cause for public concern as it infiltrates every level of society”. The community and government departments “have a responsibility to ensure that women and children are and feel safe”.

“South Africa has some of the highest reported cases of child abuse, neglect and maltreatment” (Richter & Dawes, 2008). Child abuse “takes many forms, including physical and mental abuse, sexual abuse, exploitative work, trafficking etc.” (Richter & Dawes, 2008). This happens although SA has been regarded as having a model that promote children’s rights (Richter & Dawes, 2008). South Africa also has the Early Childhood Development Policy, which was enacted in 2015. While it is difficult to establish “the size of ‘the problem’ of child abuse in SA, partly because of complexities and variation in definition, community understanding and reporting levels, one gauge for the problem is to examine crimes against children reported to the police, and summarised in the annual reports of the national Department of Police” (Richter and Dawes, 2008).

From the observation and findings of the study according to the participants, there is much to be done regarding the NDP implementation Chapter 12. Participants underscored the issues around crime and violence prevention against women and children by the government departments. They maintained that NDP implementation had not achieved any results in addressing GBVF and that the government needed to work tirelessly to promote gender equality, thereby preventing violence against women. School-based programmes should be enhanced to address gender norms and attitudes to reduce intimate partner violence and sexual violence. Gender equity training to reduce intimate partner violence should be presented in the communities and at workplaces.

6.8 POLITICAL LEADERS’ INSTITUTIONALISATION

ACCOUNTABILITY

Political ethics or political morality should underpin the manifestos of all political parties. Political leaders, by virtue of the influence they have in communities, should exercise their political influence in an ethical and moral way to prevent destroying innocent and powerless communities. The participants expressed their view about what political leaders and politicians

did regarding community safety. Empty promises that political leaders and politicians came up with during voting campaigns and subsequent non-delivery of services they viewed as destructive and immoral. Three community participants and PP98 claimed that the political leaders and government gave empty promises during prior to elections as they wanted people's votes but after given power no service delivery followed. The CP14 added that during election campaigns when they wanted the votes, politicians promised to address the crime and safety issues. However, after voting, there was no sign of politicians and communities remained living in unsafe areas. He further maintained that he would not vote again until communities were safe and there were no opportunities to commit crime.

The CP 39 argued that when the politicians want their votes, they promise jobs and houses but as soon as they are in parliament, they forget. He questioned how one could feel safe living under poverty and staying in an *umkhukho* (shack). The PP277 added that the SA government did not care for other people but for themselves, they want to enrich themselves. According to CP122, due to service delivery protests that are caused by the elected government by not delivering service as per its promises during local and national government elections, the police found themselves in the rudder of service delivery protests. The CP123 maintained that protest was the language the SA government best understands and further emphasised that empty promises should cease to stop all political parties.

6.8.1 Effective use of powers and influence to advance quality service delivery

The participants felt that political leaders were not exercising their powers and influence to advance quality service delivery but used them for their personal gain and interest. The PP199 suggested communities should know and understand their rights. According to PP201, the fact that the communities had high walls, private security, houses with burglar guards, private vehicles, hospitals and schools was clear indication that they did not have hope in the politically-led government. This was an indication that the poor and communities were not satisfied with services delivered by politically-led government in public institutions. He further suggested that political leaders stop corruption negatively affecting service delivery in the communities and lead by example. Seven community participants emphasised the importance of political leaders ensuring that research and development as well as monitoring and evaluation were conducted to improve quality service delivery in all types of services.

6.8.2 Responsible and accountable action at all times

The PP292 argued that the police could not provide basic needs, such as food, housing, water and employment, to the community. He elaborated that when such services were not delivered to them, communities protested and police were expected to respond. He added that when police responded accordingly, the same politicians blamed the police for use of teargas and rubber bullets to disperse violent crowds burning schools, libraries, and cars and blocking roads. According to PP292, the protesters stoned, stabbed and killed the police but police were expected not to react. Paradoxically the communities were also causing the community members' feelings of not being safe. The PP202 added that the CJS had failed in performing its obligations and duties, because of political interference. The PP238 appealed to the politicians to stop interfering with police work. The CP214 added that the police had no powers to enforce the law as politics influenced everything. According to PP52, politicians should stop abusing money earmarked for improving the lives of ordinary people and work with everyone to provide service delivery.

The participants insisted that there was a need for interventions by government to ensure that political leaders remained accountable to all citizens and voters. The CP16 suggested that "the President of RSA must take stance and dismiss all cabinet members that are not doing their job but get big salaries and tenders for their families and friends". The CP137 added that the President should appoint qualified and competent people in positions for effective service delivery instead of political deployment to take place. The PP199 complemented CP137 by adding that government should stop "politicising the police department in order to cover the wrongdoings of their cronies. The politicians must stop interfering with police duties thinking that they are above the rule of the law".

From the observation and findings, it is clear that there is a need to institutionalise accountability of political leaders at all levels. Political leaders should institutionalise political ethics in their organisations, effectively use powers and influence to advance quality and ethical service delivery, and act responsibly and accountably at all times.

6.9 ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT ADVANCEMENT

According to eight community participants, the prevalent poverty and unemployment in the country was the main cause of most of the crime in the communities, particularly the unsafe ones. According to CP17, “unemployment and poor economy is the problem and without economy transformation, building safer community safety becomes a myth”. The CP207 argued that the cause of crime was the desperation of not finding a job. Despite the fact that the democratically-elected South African government tried to address unemployment and economic problems, they remained prevalent. The high level of unemployment was reason for concern for most South African citizens (PP72).

The CP31 argued that as long as the rate of unemployment was high, SA would never be safe. The integrated approach was essential to “attend to economic and social woes in the communities” (PP17). According to PP21, SA should address unemployment and social ills for the SA community to feel safe. The PP21 and PP245 stated that when people were without jobs and food, they found ways to feed themselves and society suffered. Economy, unemployment, poverty and retrenchment challenges caused the volatility and instability in communities and the challenges resulted in actions that threatened community safety.

6.9.1 Addressing psycho-social and economic impact of crime

According to Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004: 171), socio-psycho and economic factors have negative impact on quality of life. The participants indicated that unemployment and the poor economy was a challenge in building community safety. Twenty-five community participants and four police participants paraphrased the impact of poor economy and unemployment as is shown in Table 6.2.

Table 0.4: Socio-psycho and economic impact crime

Psycho-social impact	Economic impact
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Loss of morals and values▪ High level of depression and stress in youth.▪ Increased incidents of the suicidal attempts and suicidal deaths.▪ Community loitering	<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Unstable economy▪ Unemployment.▪ High level of illegal businesses.▪ Investors not investing in the country due to corruption and looting of the state funds and resources

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Increased rate of poverty ▪ Foreigners perceived as taking South Africans' jobs ▪ Cause community to be unsafe ▪ Increased in crime and criminal activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The investors are leaving the country ▪ Lack of jobs ▪ Educated youth suffer unemployment due to corruption ▪ Does not assist with employment of skilled youth and adults
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Thirteen participants stated that online trading contributed to cybercrime and general crime as in a modern society anything could be bought online. People had learnt not to ask questions about the legitimacy of the goods being sold as the transactions were not made in public spaces. Hence, stolen goods found their way onto social trading platforms where it was less likely to be identified as stolen. The market for stolen goods stimulated the theft and robbery of vehicles, vehicle parts, and other valuable items. The dark web attests to weapons, drug and human trafficking. Therefore, communities could never be safe if the trade on the dark web was not addressed.

6.9.2 Inclusive economic development strategy development and implementation

According to a youth community participant (CP8), they were unemployed and if they tried to open small businesses, criminals targeted them. According to CP8, older men abused young people because of poverty making them vulnerable. This youth community participant pleaded with government to create job opportunities for them and provide programmes to deal with drug and alcohol abuse. Three community participants concurred with CP8 and added that educated youth were without jobs and eventually became involved in drugs and crime. Participants stated that government should “create jobs for all in order to prevent criminal activities” (CP389), “invest in youth education” (PP238) and “provide free education” (CP219). Six participants were very vocal about the urgent need for the government to create youth programmes and job opportunities. The CP5 added that the programmes should help the youth to become self-employed. The PP195 advocated the implementation of quality and internship programmes to expose graduates to different work environments, gain experience and skills and make the rights choices.

Ten participants felt that the creation and provision of jobs and empowerment programmes and keeping the youth busy with positive things would reduce the commission of crime and loitering on streets. Twenty-one participants shared the view that the creation and provision of

employment could stop loitering on the streets and the commission of criminal activities. The PP284, PP168, CP308 and CP199 suggested that government should hire unemployed community members to safeguard buildings in the community, improve tourism opportunities, and get rid of people begging on the street corners by alleviating poverty and reducing the price of food. The PP195 suggested the creation of community programmes for adults to allow communities to perform community service in exchange for receiving goods instead of money as form of payment, such as clothing and food to keep them away from criminal activities.

The CP207 argued government should support small businesses so that they could hire unemployed youth in their communities. In addition, PP179 advocated the opening of more firms, industries and farms to reduce the rate of unemployment. The CP221, CP32 CP207 and CP356 added that “sponsoring and funding small businesses” and “self-help schemes and NGOs” could assist in reducing unemployment. Furthermore, CP232 argued that government should “do away with affirmative action. Employ all South Africans no matter the gender, race and age of the person as long as suitable for the job”. The PP212 argued that recruitment, selection and placement of all government employees should be on merit and not on employment equity.

The CP132 further remarked that “the community and SAPS including the government should provide jobs fairly, no favours, no connections, and equal treatment”. The government should “deal with the root causes of people feeling not safe by creating jobs and employing households to alleviate poverty, providing housing, clean water as basic living and human needs. Providing the basic living and human needs for all is paramount in building the safer communities” (CP136). The CP59 suggested that “the government must fund and sponsor community development such as bricklaying, sewing and décor projects so that at least people can be able to be creative and do something for themselves”.

In summary, the South African economy is under siege. The participants revealed that the increasing level of unemployment, especially among the youth was threatening community safety. Hence, there was a great need to advance economic development, address the psycho-social and economic impact of crime and develop and implement an inclusive economy development strategy.

The study confirmed the need to improve economic conditions and create conditions that would attract foreign investors to boost the economy. The participants' views were that creating job opportunities to reduce unemployment and "creating an enabling environment for economic participation would reduce the rate of unemployment". They further confirmed that streamlining the economy to address youth inclusion could contribute to the creation safer communities. They endorsed the fact that unattended social instabilities and poor access to service delivery could contribute to unsafe and unstable communities. They linked the state of economy to the quality of education, training and development. They believed that providing a schooling system relevant to improve the socio-economic conditions of the people could eradicate poverty and address high unemployment rate, especially among youth.

South Africa has a vast number of unemployed people because of lack of economic opportunities. The findings revealed the imbalanced social economic climate in SA, such as wide-spread inequality, the high rate of unemployment rate and retrenchments due to closing of businesses, aggravates economy adversities. Such challenges contribute towards poverty within communities, which in turn generates crime in communities and leaves communities unsafe.

According to Brown (2013:115), in poorer communities, where there is substantial unemployment, poor education, and limited opportunities to participate in the economic system, opportunities for crime flourish. There are also criminal activities that impede economic activities and discourage investors investing in the country. These criminal activities include cable theft, infrastructure vandalism and corruption. The imbalances in the economic factors and the slow pace that SA is moving in improving the lives of South Africans contribute to communities being unsafe. In addition, the poor economic situation in some African countries leads to the migration of foreign nationals to SA and eventually having to share the economic pie with South Africans. This put strain on the country's fiscals. The downwards spiralling of the country's economy results in people resorting to crime to make a living.

The participants introduced the effects of apartheid, the legacy of violence, disenfranchisement and inequality as contributors to violent crime and mistrust in the CJS. They stated that South Africans did not want to admit that they still had racial, ethnic and social divides – these all calling for the need to address the effects of apartheid. They elaborated that communities suffer

from an ‘us and them’ attitude where they see the ‘other’ on the basis of means, race, religion or even ethnicity. Therefore, political, racial, ethnic and religious intolerance becomes a major contributory factor to lack of safety of the community.

6.10 COMMUNITY COLLABORATION AND MOBILISATION

The CP379 had lost hope that one day the community would feel safe. However, much as the government had responsibility of building safer communities, communities also had to take ownership in building safer communities. Providing information and reporting on criminal activities and criminals were important in building safer communities. The CP236 advocated that every South African should “be the ears and eyes of the police” on the ground. Five participants insisted that the community should stand together to improve daily safety on the streets and report those who were committing crime. Six participants pleaded with community to provide timeous and “proper information about criminal activities and criminals to the police so that they could investigate and apprehend the suspects”.

6.10.1 Community mobilisation strengthening

According to both community and police participants, collaboration and community mobilisation were fundamental in building safer communities. They believed that it could be about building safety of the community without the community. Therefore, they mentioned factors that were critical in collaborating and mobilising communities, such as engaging all sectors of communities to address safety, and social and economic issues, bringing government departments, policymakers, community leaders, traditional leaders, religious groups, business communities and other stakeholders together to be more visible on the ground, having more programmes and awareness for communities to feel safer and more secure, empowering communities, groups and individuals to interact and have dialogues to address social and economic issues that have negative impacts on criminal activities, “intensify service delivery in order to gain the trust of the community” and collectively identify shortcomings that contribute to the community feeling unsafe, and educating communities about the CJS and what role different stakeholders, such as “police, prosecution, courts and correctional services play in contributing to the creation of community safety”.

According to both community and police participants, community mobilisation could: Encourage collaboration between communities and different stakeholders, such as “police, prosecution, courts and correctional services to contribute to the creation of community safety”, educate communities about social, psychological and economic problems and their impact on their lives, educate communities about the law, the consequences of not obeying the law and their responsibilities as law-abiding citizens, educate communities to stop protecting and shielding criminals – which constitutes a crime. They should be willing to come forward with positive information for the police, educate communities and children on how to prevent crime and how to look after themselves and be safe, educate communities and children about types of crime, their effects and safety issues, educate communities about the functioning of the CJS, educate communities to understand that the police are human beings who have left their families to protect them as strangers, educate public leaders on “the creation of a safe and secure environment”, educate citizens that safety is the responsibility of every person, educate youth about the services available for them “in government departments and in the private sector industries, and educate communities and children about all social matters, healthy living and lifestyle”.

The participants further indicated the importance of knowing how to mobilise communities to prevent and halt community unsafety. According to both community and police participants, the following actions were *inter alia* important in mobilising communities to prevent and stop community unsafety: Involve the right role-players in planning for community mobilisation, build a coalition and adopt an integrated approach to mobilise communities, provide and conduct enough safety programmes and awareness campaigns, strengthen community partnerships to prevent and stop community unsafety, and monitor and evaluate community mobilisation to keep track of community-based activities.

6.10.2 Introduction of co-production framework to address crime and service delivery

According to CP89, people who commit crime reside within the communities. The PP254, CP264, and CP274 urged South Africans to report criminal activities taking place in their communities. Moreover, PP272, CP2 and C274 urged the public not to hide criminals. The community should “work together with the police to fight crime and assist the police by

reporting crime to them” (PP272). They should report any suspicious person or any person involved in criminal activities in order to curb criminal activities in their communities, work well with the police, “trust the police in the fight against crime and participate in solving crime” (PP248 and PP105). The CP343 urged communities to report all undocumented immigrants in the communities as “they are committing serious crime”. The CP89 suggested that there was a dire need to teach the community about the importance of reporting criminal activities. However, the police should not disclose who had given them the information to criminals. This breaks the trust and confidence and put the lives of community members in danger as they “sell them to the criminals” (CP252). According to PP97, the elders were afraid to report the crime happening because they were afraid that the criminals would attack and kill them.

The CP9 and CP290 maintained that the communities were fuelling crime and encouraging habitual stealing and robbing by buying stolen goods and property from the criminals. Moreover, “pawn shops are taking stolen goods when people are borrowing money” (CP9), opening the market for the disposal of stolen goods and property. PP278 urged the communities to “stop buying stolen goods and praising criminals who are driving nice cars while they are not working”. He added that if the community stopped supporting the criminals, there would not be reasons for criminals to commit crime. The PP113 stated that South Africans should take a positive control over their country and speak out when government, community and family members do wrong things.

6.10.3 Inclusive interaction with communities strengthening

Pelser and Rauch (2001:37) argue that a “greater investment in crime prevention would – in the longer term – have the effect of reducing the number of cases and offenders being seen in the criminal justice process”. According to Pelser and Rauch (2001:37), “much of the existing criminal justice policy encourages multi-agency partnership approaches aiming at reducing crime and improving the performance of the formal justice system”. Interaction between the police and community with the aim of preventing and detecting crime is key in solving crime. The CP 255 argued that “there was lack of communication and interaction between the police and the community and that police should improve their interaction with the communities”. The PP27 and PP258 maintained that communities should “work together with the police to fight crime’ and that working together could make SA a safe place to live. According to PP258,

communities were experiencing the crimes being committed but still failed to assist the police with investigations. The community should “work hand in hand with the police” and not put pressure on the police regarding the arrest of suspects as such pressure contributed to the increase in the civil claim in the police (PP265 & PP273).

The community should stand together and fight crime (CP254). According to PP188, the CPF and community should first take responsibility for community safety and confirm that “the suspects and perpetrators that commit crime come from their areas and homes and is somebody’s child, brother, sister, cousin, mother, father or uncle”. Community members and neighbours should take care of each other and protect each other (PP279). According to CP214, communities should learn to be security-wise and he pleaded with communities to guard against abuse of their constitutional rights and to maintain a sense of humanity among each other. PP151 added the importance of the community putting extra security in place at their properties to strengthen their safety measures. In summary, collaboration and mobilisation of communities are identified as critical in building safer communities. Inclusive interaction with communities at all levels should be strengthened and a co-produced framework to address crime and service delivery should be introduced.

6.11 STRENGTHENING CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

The PP132 and PP114 raised concerns about detectives that were carrying many dockets and, as a result, not having time to investigate crime and apprehend suspects. They suggested that the crime intelligence unit should assist police in solving crime problems by analysing the crime patterns and trends for the police to arrest the criminals and prevent crime before it happened and bring the perpetrators to court to serve their sentences for crimes committed. They further suggested an increase in numbers of detectives at stations to investigate cases and detect crime. In building crime-detection capacity, PP156 called for the regular empowerment and development of police in order to keep up with new strategies used by criminals. Fourteen participants called for government to invest more in cybercrime investigations, detection, prosecution and conviction in order to solve cases. They felt that CJS did not have resources to address cybercrime and this type of crime was growing rapidly

Table 0.5: Community and police participants' views on CJS

Views of both community and police participants on CJS	Community participants (CP) responses	Police participants (PP) responses
Harsh penalties/ sentences/ punishment for lawbreakers Reconsideration of death penalty for serious and violent crime	19	36
Review the legislation and rights of criminals to prevent reoffending. Review parole system as criminals that are released on parole continue with reoffending.	35	22
Weak and unfair CJS and interference with the CJS. No confidence in the CJS	47	40
Lack of arresting of criminals. Prioritisation of serious cases.	17	15
Criminals easily getting bail. Inconsistency when dealing with minor and serious offences.	41	36
Lack of thorough investigations, lack of prosecution and lack of conviction.	25	39

The CP18 and CP23 claimed that police were not investigating cases and arresting criminals who were stealing and robbing them of their cellular phones. In addition, when criminals were arrested, they were released on bail and returned to terrorise the community. The PP228 argued that station commanders were setting the targets of arrest could contribute to arrests before the investigation was finalised just to achieve the target. He added that this had a negative impact as people were arrested without proper investigation and this resulted in civil claims and innocent young people being unemployed.

In strengthening the CJS, five police participants underlined the importance of police commitment to their mandate to enforce law and order in the communities, combat crime, prevent crime, “ensure the safety of the community, and ensure that people obey the law”. Fifty-seven community participants also mentioned the importance of police commitment to their mandate to investigate crime and arrest criminals without fear and favour and to support victims and show respect by giving feedback about the case whether they had found the perpetrator or not.

The PP136, CP370, and CP357 emphasised the significance of deployment of more police to patrol the hotspots in crime-ridden areas. The PP224 highlighted the significance of “proper deployment of Crime Prevention Unit teams to enhance the prevention of crime”. The CP63,

PP225 and CP335 suggested that the police not be deployed in the areas where they grew up as they found it difficult to arrest the known suspects. Five community participants maintained that rotation of police from one station to another station was important to prevent them from befriending and protecting criminals and preventing an increase in crime and communities' subsequent "loss of trust and confidence in the police". Hence, CP181 suggested that the police should not work in the same place for more than three years. The CP391 added that police feared criminals if they worked in the areas where they grew up, as they knew that if they arrested them their families' lives would be in danger.

In summary, building crime detection capacity is integral in strengthening the CJS. There is a need to strengthen the CJS in order to solve the challenges surrounding it. The participants affirmed that if the CJS could prosecute and convict successfully, crime would be prevented and the people would feel safe. The study revealed that most participants thought that the harsh sentences imposed on perpetrators would prevent crime. Some participants suggested the institutionalisation of night courts for petty offences and civil cases as well as an increase in court capacity to deal with criminal cases could assist in speeding up court processes and improving the effectiveness of the CJS. Furthermore, the findings of the study demonstrated the significance of implementation of juvenile courts and compulsory attendance of rehabilitation schools for juvenile delinquents as well improvement in the juvenile delinquency skill programmes to assist them with job opportunities.

The participants felt that the CJS did not satisfactorily punish lawbreakers. Consequently, imprisonment served as temporary inconvenience for criminals. The findings of this study suggest that parole and bail conditions should be far stricter. Some participants felt that somehow the CJS sometimes contributed to making communities feel unsafe with the escape of prisoners and awaiting-trial prisoners in prisons and police custody. Such escapes induced fear in communities. The escapees get back to the society and they create unsafe feelings.

Lanier (2018) maintains that "criminology is concerned primarily with criminals and criminal acts and the CJS's response to them". According to Dixon, Gaines and Miller (2008) the CJS "attempts to control crime while in the process, and the system also hopes to prevent new crimes from taking place by arresting, prosecuting and punishing wrongdoers". The participants confirmed that corruption was one of the factors that contributed towards

ineffective CJS. Most participants concurred that the CJS did not do enough resources to deter criminal activities. They stated that an ineffective CJS did not serve as a deterrent to criminals and subjected victims to further trauma without delivering justice. They indicated that limited and capable resources in institutions mandated to create safer communities contributed to a prolonged ineffective CJS and the government tended to invest in quick fix solutions that did not address the main problems in building safer communities.

The coordination between the various departments within the JCPS Cluster is fundamental in achieving the NDP vision for safer communities. The findings of the study underscore the importance of working together to streamline resources to achieve the Cluster objectives of “reducing crime, improving the efficiency of the CJS, dealing with corruption, managing South African borders”, prioritising the fight against and preventing cybercrime, and streamlining the CJS and Department of Correctional Services system to improve all aspects of justice, crime prevention and security.

6.12 INTEGRATED APPROACH FOR SAFER COMMUNITIES

6.12.1 Police and community not cooperating

The CP224 was concerned about the police and community not working hand in hand. The PP154 elaborated on working together and stressed that all stakeholders and role-players mandated to advance community safety should do their jobs in terms of the Constitution of RSA. Many police participants emphasised the importance of building partnership and cooperation in which all cultures, races, church leaders, traditional leaders, governments departments, private sectors, Business Against Crime, Consumer Goods Council and NGOs worked together to deal with social ills and keeping SA safe. The PP302 added that SA should produce effective social crime-prevention programmes.

According to CP158, CP161 and PP12, the SAPS needed to work together with community to fight crime, as community members knew who it was who committed crime in their communities. The CP13 added that all government and municipal departments needed to work together, for example the electricity department was to ensure that all streets had lights and the transport and public works and infrastructure department that roads were in good conditions at

all times and public transport safe to travel with. The government departments had to provide service at all times to prevent unlawful strikes and protests from community.

The PP52, PP82 and CP393 concurred with CP213 and added that local municipalities should promote safer communities and the safer city concept through working with other departments and NGOs to enhance safety. Safety inspections in the communities such as checking and maintaining streetlights and cutting grass were required. The CP234 and CP382 also agreed with CP213 and added that the Department of Basic Education should employ security officers to control access and search for weapons at school gates to ensure the safety of children at school. According to CP213, this was an indication that it was not only the role of police to make the community feel safe.

According to CP62, as long as people thought that the “safety of the community rested on the shoulders of the police, community members would continue to feel unsafe at home, on the street, at school and work and in public spaces”. The police alone could not make the community feel safe. The CP95 added that South Africans had common enemies, which were crime, drug abuse, unemployment, corruption and poverty. The CP122 concurred with CP62 and CP95 that police and government departments needed to be more visible in communities. The CP122 and CP250 agreed that the safety of community was not the sole responsibility of the SAPS, as the police could not address unemployment, housing, water and sanitation challenges. The CP122, CP154, CP296, and CP375 recommended that government departments work together to deal with social issues in the communities and stop blaming each other in front of the community about who was supposed to do what.

Most community and police participants agreed that the government, police, CPFs, communities, security companies, guards, community leaders, church leaders and political leaders should work together within their respective mandates to mobilise, integrate and strengthen efforts of all the security agencies and government departments to create safer communities and serve them. They should prevent and fight crime. They should conduct crime awareness campaigns, introduce programmes to create safer communities and give feedback to the communities on time. They should identify crime trends and dangerous and risky areas and address the high rate of crime. They should employ enough public servants “to ensure the safety of the individuals and the community”. They should interact with other government

departments and stakeholders involved in building safer communities. They should ensure zero tolerance regarding crime and unemployment, illegal drugs, illegal foreigners and prostitution. They should maintain integrity in protecting and serving the community. They should address and prevent the root causes of crime in the community. They should release the precinct crime statistics to the community.

6.12.2 Enhancing stakeholder engagement and relationship

Community and police participants stressed the importance of stakeholder relationships and stakeholder engagement. They highlighted the importance of the community supplying and sharing information on the criminal activities with the police and guarding against encouraging and supporting criminal activities, e.g. by buying stolen goods. They added that the community should be informed of crime that was happening in their areas and how they should protect themselves from being a victim of such crime. According to PP45 and PP263, trust and respect were earned and mutual respect was significant in community-police relationships.

The CP 338 added that communities did not have trust in SAPS members. The improvement of the relationship and trust among the community, police and other government departments as well as critical role-players and stakeholders in advancing community safety was of paramount important (CP52, 105, 216 and CP338). The relationship of transparent and honesty among the role-players and stakeholders had to be maintained (CP338). Trust and honesty had to be harnessed in the case of both police and community members (PP71). The police had to be trusted not to reveal the information to culprits (CP321). The PP140 emphasised the importance of transparency between the community, police officers, government departments and community leaders.

According to CP155, “police need to listen to the communities as they knew criminals and what was happening in their communities”. Furthermore, CP155 maintained that this could bring back trust that was taken away by the apartheid regime as police shot people without any reason and could change the mind-set and perceptions of the community’. In addition, CP176 advocated that the community and government departments needed to take ownership for their areas of responsibilities, as the prevention of crime was everybody’s business. The community needed to respect the police (CP335). Everyone should know SAPS telephone numbers so that

everyone could report crimes (CP206). Police participants 33 and 38 added that the community members should report each crime that happened in their presence and any act of crime as this could lead to arrest.

6.12.3 Strengthening co-production with community safety forums and structures

There is a need for sustainable community safety forums and structures to coordinate activities related to community safety and safety in neighbourhoods. The community participants advocated the “establishment of community safety forums and structures” such as CPFs, sector forums, neighbourhood watches, street committees and volunteers to assist with community safety. According to CP241 and PP69, government should mandate the Department of Police to establish functional CPFs at all the police stations, monitor compliance and hold the CPFs accountable for their roles in building safer communities. The CP256 added that the empowerment of forums and structures, such as the CPFs, sector forums and neighbourhood watches was essential. The CP368, 367 and CP256 concurred that the community safety forums and structures could be empowered by making members reservists and incorporating them into the SAPS. Sixteen community participants recommended the formation of street committees, neighbourhood watches and patrollers to prevent crime.

Eleven community participants advocated the establishment and implementation of operative community safety forums and structures “in the communities in order for residents to feel safe and secure and ensure collaboration” among the police, other governments departments and NGOs in building safer communities. According to CP243, PP34, and PP 134, the police, communities and structures should ensure the implementation of social crime prevention. They added that the involvement of all role-players, such as schools, social development, small business enterprises, health, agriculture, sports, arts and recreation, was critical in enhancing community safety.

More than 600 community and police participants in total proposed functions for CPFs and structures. These functions included adopting an integrated approach to crime prevention and safety awareness campaigns, strengthening patrols and awareness campaigns, advocating for the improvement of the living conditions in communities, protecting people in risky areas, patrolling and reporting to the nearby police, empowering the community on how to be safe by

applying safety programmes, educating the community to not take the law into their own hands and about consequences of doing so, engaging the community in crime prevention, working with the schools to protect children, educating children in social crime prevention, recruiting and empowering street committees, and supporting visibility in the community .

6.12.4 Strengthening border control

Both community and police participants gave their views regarding foreigners and their impact on the safety of communities. Some participants shared views about foreigners. According to PP286 and CP28, “the RSA is overpopulated and foreigners are contributing to overpopulation”. Nine community participants felt that SA was failing to control its borders; hence they were porous and the country consequently had many illegal foreigners illegally occupying cities and closed buildings.

The CP81, CP162, CP343 and PP287 alleged that undocumented immigrants were contributing to crime and they were not arrested because their fingerprints were not recorded at the Department of Home Affairs. PP66 added that police visibility was vital in the communities where there were illegal foreigners because if they committed crimes they were not traceable. Adding to this, CP28 stated that “Hillbrow is overpopulated with undocumented citizens. Drugs and prostitution make Hillbrow very unsafe. The dilapidated and unused buildings are used for criminal activities. In some of the rooms more than 20 people stay in one room. Hillbrow is very dirty and it is very unsafe”.

6.12.5 Integrated approach to address psycho-social economic issues

The CP8 stated that without him being judged xenophobic, he felt that the employment of illegal foreigners contributed to the high rate of unemployment as they were in SA illegally, hence they accepted any job and salary offered to them. Nine other community participants agreed with CP8 and added that illegal foreigners contributed to the high incidence of selling and abuse of drugs. In addition, CP11, CP19, CP82 and CP168 felt that foreigners were opening businesses and selling expired food and illegal goods in the townships and this made community members feel unsafe – they feared for their lives and health. The CP19 and CP74 added that some foreigners were exacerbating corruption as “the underprivileged South

Africans did not have Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) houses”, while foreigners had.

The CP373 raised concerns about the fact that some police officials were not treating foreigners well and vice versa. Foreigners even compared them with the police from their countries of origin. The CP17 added that some police were taking bribes from illegal foreigners. According to CP30, the corrupt behaviour of illegal foreigners was rendering SA a lawless country. The CP148 said that SA needed to reinforce its laws in order to have a better and safer communities. The PP287 suggested that the Constitution of RSA be amended to address the challenges of illegal foreigners and enhance Cluster service delivery. The CP397, CP289 and CP357 stated that most of the undocumented immigrants who were committing crime in SA were not prosecuted and the courts were releasing them with bail. They further argued that when the foreigners were discouraged from doing wrong, they perceived South Africans to be xenophobic.

According to CP224, SA did not check foreigners’ permits and passports. Seven community participants added that government needed to check foreigners’ passports and work permit papers and if they did not have them to deport them to their countries of origin. Both community and police participants stated that all foreigners should be documented. Both community and police participants added that there should be stringent border control and that the SA President should engage with the countries where the majority of illegal foreigners were coming from and address this challenge. Both community and police participants requested the government to review the protocols of issuing asylum in order to minimise risks and promote safety of inhabitants and asylum-seekers.

“Promoting an integrated and holistic approach to community safety is paramount”. According to participants, owing to the instability and economic insecurity in some countries, people found their way into SA illegally. Participants mentioned, among many, the disputes with indigenous communities, inaccessibility of legal documents, the injustice system and corruption posing threats to undocumented foreigners. They mentioned that some of the undocumented persons committed crime with impunity knowing well that it would be difficult to trace and apprehend them. The ineffectiveness of the Border Management Agency was confirmed. The study indicates that the borders are porous, not only due to lack of capacitation

and ineffective border management structures, but also because of corruption at the borders. Participants maintained that SA needed to “strengthen border control systems at land, air and harbour border posts as part of creating safer communities”. The study findings also highlight “the importance of addressing transnational crime by improving the control of cross-border movement” and reducing international crime syndicates.

6.13 INTENSIFY POLICE VISIBILITY

According to CP140, “Police visibility is the key in policing. We feel safe when the marked police vehicles pass in our community. Unfortunately, we hardly see the police vehicles though the crime is high and levels of fear and feeling of unsafe are high. We as men in the community, we started to accompany children to school and women in the morning, afternoon and evening as women and children are daily victims of crime”. The CP56 reiterated that there were low numbers of police officers patrolling in the street and in the communities. The CP121 questioned who had stopped the branding of SAPS police vans as most were without the SAPS logo. The CP21 questioned what had happened to the blue lights. The CP56 added that police visibility reduced fear although it could not address the root causes of crime, i.e. unemployment, drug abuse, greediness and moral decay.

Community and police participants maintained that police visibility was the best deterrent in the fight against crime. They claimed that if the police were visible around public spaces, community members would immediately report any crime witnessed immediately. They added that community members often witnessed crime but were scared to be identified as they would be expected to testify against someone facing conviction. The accessibility and visibility of police were essential “in reducing communities’ fear of crime”. This called for “the SAPS to improve the quantity and quality of interaction” with the people it served.

Participants indicated that the police should make an extra effort to interact with the communities, and not only with individuals who interacted with the police for whatever reason. This included involvement of communities in jointly attending to and solving the problems identified. Participants also emphasised the importance of the “design and implementation of safety programmes by all stakeholders to address the problems identified”. Commitment to the reduction of fear of crime demanded of all stakeholders to utilise the available opportunities to

determine what people of specific communities considered to be their major problems, and the reasons for and solutions to the problems.

6.14 INTENSIFY ACCESSIBILITY TO BASIC LIVING AND HUMAN NEEDS

All governments departments – and not only the police department – should “play a role in ensuring the safety of the communities” (PP200). The PP200 and CP113 examined the presence of the departments of Public Works and Infrastructure, Social Development, Human Settlement, Water and Sanitation, Health, Sports and Recreation, Trade and Industry and Small Businesses Enterprises, Agriculture, and Public Enterprises in addressing the challenges related to community safety. They maintained that those departments all had roles to play in that regard. They emphasised that there could be no safety in communities in the absence of basic essential needs, lack of provision of sufficient police on the street and programmes to address social ills. The PP209 concurred with PP200 and added that social and health conditions contributed to community members’ feelings of not being safe.

6.14.1 Integrated approach to address social and health conditions

According to PP245, social and health conditions together with lack of community programmes to address social and health conditions contributed community members’ feelings of not being safe. The CP26, CP74 and CP288 upheld that proper shelter, clean water and toilets were the basic needs and “the fundamental human rights enshrined in the Constitution of RSA and without all of these, community members would never feel safe”. The CP230 and PP152 concurred with CP26 and added that South Africans needed a better health care system, service delivery, better housing, and water supply and abolition of the bucket system. The PP86 added that municipalities had to do away with squatter-camps and informal settlements and build proper houses for community members. The CP23 called for the government to build houses for people in order to enhance healthy family structures.

6.14.2 Integrated approach to address infrastructure challenges

The CP123 emphasised the importance of upgrading technological infrastructure and equipment to address the policing demand and cybercrime. Five police participants and eight community participants insisted that the community members fence and secure their houses in order to decrease levels of crime such as residential burglary. They highlighted that having access control gates, working streetlights, surveillance cameras and clean parks in the area could reduce crime opportunities and increase the feeling of safety. They added that policing informal settlement was difficult and dangerous because there were no streetlights and proper infrastructures. Police participants advocated the installation of streetlights and cameras to reduce the high risk of burglaries as police could not be everywhere in the communities. Cameras could assist during investigations of crimes committed. They further explained the importance of cleaning public spaces such as parks, as the criminals could hide in areas that were overgrown or strewn with rubbish.

The CP17 raised concern about the '*izinyoka-izinyoka*' (people stealing copper and cables doing damage). Taps stolen, for instance, caused water wastage and electricity cuts. Eighteen police participants underscored the negative impact of electricity cuts and consequent load shedding on community safety. They stated that Eskom contributed to the feeling of the not being safe as criminals committed crimes during load shedding. They further called for the effective implementation and enforcement of the Second-Hand Goods Act of 2009 by all responsible departments as per their different mandates as most stolen property was sold in pawn second-hand shops. Proper implementation and enforcement of the Act could stall the trade of the stolen goods as criminals would not have a market.

6.14.3 Improve and build community infrastructure

According to PP314, there was lack of proper infrastructures to address basic living and human needs. The departments of Public Works and Infrastructure, COGTA, and Human Settlement, Water and Sanitation were identified as some of those that contributed to the high level of not feeling safe in communities. Government departments should deliver quality services to communities (CP314). Both community and police participants suggested that there should be programmes and infrastructure, such as recreation centres and swimming pools, that could

assist in keeping the youth and children busy. They also called for the government to build more police stations and prisons, fix the roads, maintain streetlights and cut the grass, as without proper infrastructure, policing was difficult and dangerous. Police participants explained the effect of lack of proper infrastructure, such as solid waste removal, water supply, bridges and electricity in the lives of people in SA and that it accelerated feelings of not being safe in the communities. The PP116 added that lack of proper infrastructure, such as roads and bridges, affected the reporting of crime as the community members were unable to get to police stations.

The PP179 argued that community safety was not only about crime but also about having the basic means to survive. He maintained that “the violation of the right of community members to have access to basic means, such as food, shelter, clean water and toilets, caused feelings of not being safe”. The CP130 added that government should provide transport for children who could not afford to pay the transport to go to school. It would then likely be safe going to school. The PP144, CP291 and CP294 emphasised that communities needed more arts and culture programmes and facilities for different sporting codes to keep the youth and children busy, and away from drug and alcohol abuse and prevent them committing crime. Both community and police participants added that government should improve the accessibility of rehabilitation centres in all district municipalities to assist youth and children who had fallen prey to drugs and alcohol abuse.

The PP228 advocated the “building of more police stations in rural areas as part of building safer communities”. The CP390 supported PP228’s views and appealed to government to hire more police and build more police stations in rural communities, such as KwaMmotla in North West Province where victims of crime were paying more than R60 a single trip just to report crime at Themba Police Station. She further complained about the graveyard that was very close to house dwellers and in a wetland area – as a result the stench of decomposed bodies posed a health risk. Her responses indicated that there was still much left to be done pertaining to infrastructure in the rural communities. She further lamented the lack of water supply by water trucks. As a result, they were sharing salty water from rivers, which caused dental and other health complications.

It is evident that building safer communities is not only based on solving crime but also in providing access to basic means. Therefore, an integrated approach to addressing social and health conditions and infrastructure challenges is important. The findings revealed the importance of improving and erecting community infrastructures in building safer communities. The findings further confirmed the importance of focusing on designing systems to reduce the opportunity for crime facilitate detection and identification of criminals. The study further indicated the significance of investing in social infrastructure, such as educational institutions, healthcare and social institutions, public facilities and transportation. Housing developments “reduce the incidence of informal settlements and improve the quality of life”. Moreover, the promotion of sustainable, functional and integrated human settlements based on a proper spatial development framework is a key component in creating safer communities.

Development of recreation centres such as sport-facilities, parks, arts and culture centres help to keep children and youth safe. However, measures to keep children and youth safe and free from drugs should be stepped up. Such recreation centres should be located in such a way that they that do not put children at risk. Participants added that investing in economic infrastructure such as water, sanitation, roads, electricity, communication networks and public transport not only met the needs of households, and industrial and commercial concerns – boosting economic activities, but also impacted on the realisation of safer communities. Some participants underscored the importance of adopting technology as a prime tool towards achieving safer communities and establishing an adequately resourced research-based environment.

6.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter presents data analysis and discusses findings based on the views of community and police participants on “how to make community members feel safe at home, in the street, at school, at work and in public spaces”. Participants shared the experiences of their communities and at police stations. Police participants were from the top ten high-contact-crime police stations in four provinces namely Eastern Cape, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. These participants shared their views responding to one question, namely, “What do you think SA needs to do for the community to feel safe in the streets, at home, at school, at work and in public spaces?”

Participants were affected by issues that made them feel not safe or able to create safe communities. Therefore, as they explained their views, and advocated some actions and measures that could be utilised to build safer communities. These actions and measures were themed and sub-themed in the analysis and discussion of findings.

The findings of this study are clear that building safer communities necessitates the commitment and dedication of everybody and the execution of crime prevention interventions at the level of the community. This study revealed that community participation brought about a sense of belonging in the community. The community represented various formations, such as community leaders, community structures and community-based organisations (CPFs, NGOs, FBOs, private security companies, business formations, tribal authorities, trade unions and others). The findings further demonstrated that stakeholders and role-players should work together and in partnership to address the major challenges contributing to lack of safety of the community: national and local government departments as per NCPS at all three tiers, i.e. national, provincial and local levels, police, informers, municipal law enforcement officers, civil society and organisations, traditional, political, church and religious and faith-based leaders, institutions of learning and research, private entities and partners, e.g. BACSA and SABRIC, other law enforcement agencies under the auspices of structures or organs such as INTERPOL, Southern African Regional Police Chiefs Co-operation Organisation (SARPCCO) and Southern African Development Community (SADC) forums, and international governments through embassies. This chapter reveals that partnership approaches play an important role in building safer communities. These partnership approaches strengthen collaboration in community policing and crime prevention intervention.

Following analysis of the perceptions and viewpoints of police and community members, it became evident that the concept of building safer communities in South Africa should be grounded on capacitation of the police which includes professionalisation of police, exercising the culture of accountability and ethical leadership in the country, addressing the root causes and impact of substance abuse, investing on parent and family empowerment programmes, investing on conducive and supportive environment for women and children, institutionalising the culture of accountability to political leaders, advancing economic development, strengthening community collaboration and mobilisation as well as strengthening the Criminal Justice System and accessibility to basic living and human needs. From these perceptions and

viewpoints, the main conclusion is that integrated approach is the foundation for building a model of safer communities in South Africa.

Chapter 7 presents the analysis of data obtained through the quantitative approach. It focusses on the thematic analysis of the findings on the basis of empirical data gathered through quantitative research approach. Chapter 7 draws triangulation with reference to the qualitative research findings and quantitative research findings. The variables that contribute to lack of safety of South African communities and ways that can be explored to build safer communities are analysed and conclusions are drawn. Potential aspects that can be used to identify possible indicators to assess safety of communities as well as findings in this Chapter, Chapter 6, were used to develop themes for questionnaires that police and community members completed.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Fox *et al.* (2006:58) define the public policy implementation stage “as a plan set in motion”. This chapter analyses the SAPS implementation of the NDP’s five priority areas of building safer communities. The implementation is the translation of the NDP “into workable and actionable strategies that seek to meet the pre-set public policy objectives through utilising available resources”. As stated by Fox *et al.* (2006:58), “the utilisation of resources implies the use of human capital, budgets, and designed programmes to achieve public policy [including NDP] objectives”. Thus, understanding the NDP implementation ought to “enable the unpacking and clarification of questions such as: What happened after the NDP had been enacted? Are the objectives of the NDP being achieved? Who and what is influencing and shaping the direction of the NDP implementation?”

These questions call for a need to explore the NDP in building safer communities. The SAPS should have indicators to establish the results being achieved and what the longer-term effects are. There is a need for a set of indicators for assessing the NDP implementation towards achieving safer communities and subsets for the individual strategies, plans, programmes and projects. Ultimately, the outcomes of the NDP should be closely linked to the results attained by the different strategies, plans, programmes, and projects in the NDP implementation.

As indicated in Chapter 2 of this study, the NDP is referred to as public policy, which is the broad guideline SA is following to address particular problems or challenges “in order to provide consistency in decision-making and improve the lives of people”. The norms and recommendations within the NDP ought to “be translated into actions that address the challenges and problems and the needs of the South African and global communities”. This process during policy phases is referred to as policy implementation. This chapter analyses the translation of the NDP’s five priority areas and the influence of critical variables shaping the direction of its implementation.

The primary question of this research was to determine the SAPS understanding of the NDP vision, and implementation and internalisation of it in its policing mandate. Research participants were requested to elucidate their understanding, implementation and internalisation of the safer community concept. The variables that contribute to lack of safety of SA communities and ways to build safer communities were examined. Kruger and *et al.* (2016:58-59) mention in Table 7.1 (below) aspects that could be assessed to identify possible indicators to assess safety of communities.

Table 0.1: Possible indicators to measure safety of communities

Stakeholder-driven	Police-driven
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “Amount and type of media coverage ▪ Level of public understanding of community safety ▪ Extent to which local activities involve the youth ▪ Number, availability, and use of programmes that support positive parenting ▪ Number of residents involved in community development activities ▪ Number of residents using streets and public spaces ▪ Degree of cleanliness and maintenance of physical environment ▪ Extent of loitering ▪ Extent of vandalism and graffiti ▪ Changes in the number of insurance claims and average value per claim ▪ Extent of target-hardening measures like the number of burglar alarm systems ▪ Range and diversity of users of inner-city areas” 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ “Crime rates ▪ Levels of fear of crime ▪ Feelings of safety among residents ▪ Victimisation rates ▪ Number of calls for police service ▪ Level of awareness of police services ▪ Level of satisfaction with police services ▪ Level of awareness of a crime prevention initiative within the community”

Source: Adapted from Kruger and et al (2016). Making South Africa Safe: A Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention Making South Africa Safe.

These indicators were used to draft the quantitative questionnaire and its themes (Table 7.2 below).

Table 0.2: Themes for police and community perceptions on safety of communities

Themes	Themes	Themes
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Policing proficiency ▪ Capacitation of the police ▪ Police mandatory commitment ▪ Ethical standards 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Service excellence ▪ Cooperation in policing ▪ Feeling safe ▪ Role-players in community safety 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Community programmes ▪ Economic conditions ▪ Social diversity ▪ Juvenile delinquency ▪ Criminal justice system

▪ Respect for diversity	▪ Basic living conditions ▪ Social and health conditions	▪ Trust and confidence
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7.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

In total over 1 000 questionnaires (police officers) and over 1 000 questionnaires (members of public) were distributed and total of 1 908 questionnaires were returned. Out of 1 908 respondents, 807 (42,3%) were police officers and 1101 (57,7%) were members of public. For purposes of this study, a total of 1 908 respondents were regarded as the study population. There was a 95,4% return rate of the questionnaire. The community by responding to the questionnaire supported the study with almost 60%, i.e. almost 20% more compared to police officers. This indicates that the community is ready to take part in bringing about safety. The biographical data in this section was obtained from community participants (CPs) and police participants (PPs).

7.2.1 Police and community members' sample population

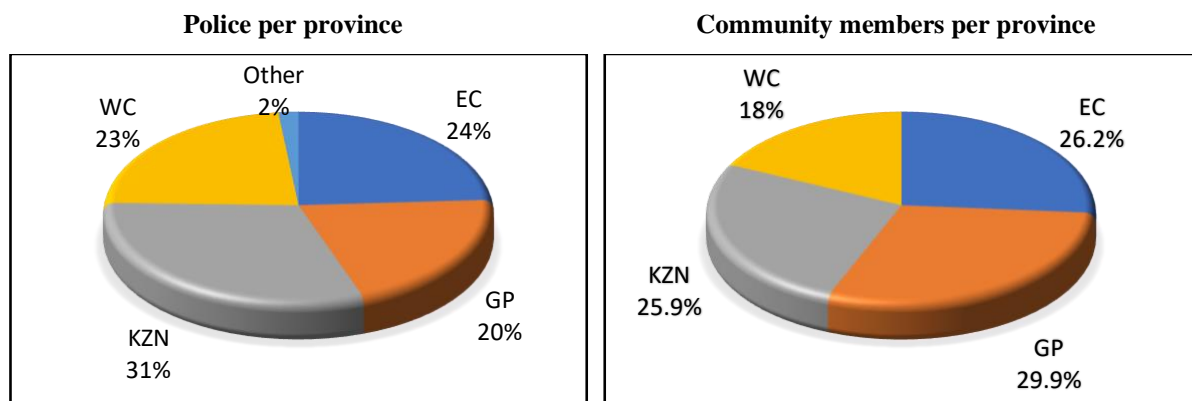


Figure 0.1: Police and community members' sample population

KwaZulu-Natal had the most police participating in the study while Gauteng had the least police participating. However, the most CPs were in Gauteng, and the least CPs and PPs were in Western Cape.

7.2.2 Police and community members' genders

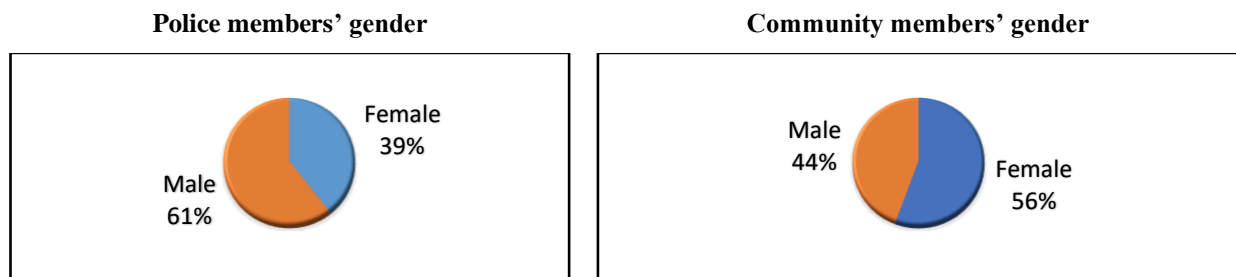


Figure 0.2: Police and community members' genders percentage

The sample's gender representation resembles the SA gender demographics (Statistics SA, 2019). According to the SAPS 2018/2019 Annual Report, the organisation's staffing consisted of 34,48% policewomen, which is still far below the national population percentage of 51%.

7.2.3 Police and community members' race

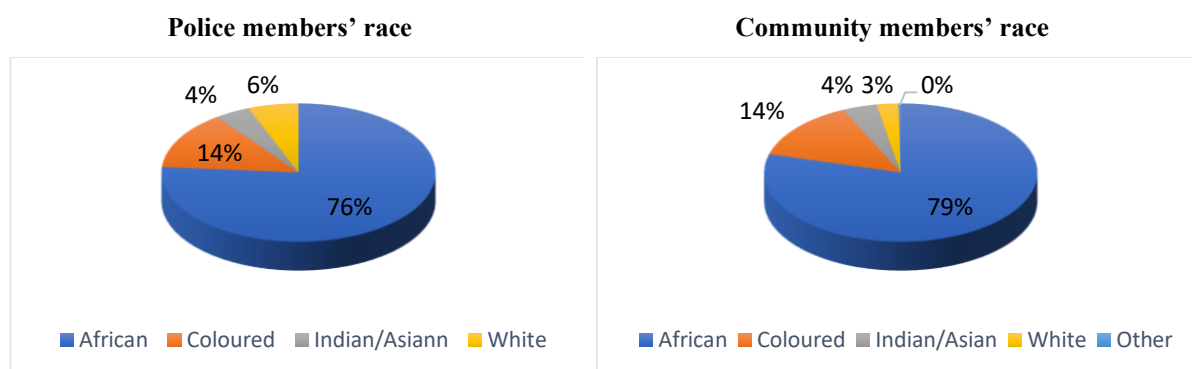


Figure 0.3: Police and community members' race

The profile of both PPs and CPs in terms of race is presented in Figure 7.3 and shows that approximately three quarters of both PPs (76%) and CPs (79%) were Africans. The next population group of both PPs and CPs, although coming a distant second at 14%, were Coloured. These figures corresponded with the South African demographics pertaining to African and Coloured.

7.2.4 Police members' and community members' age groups

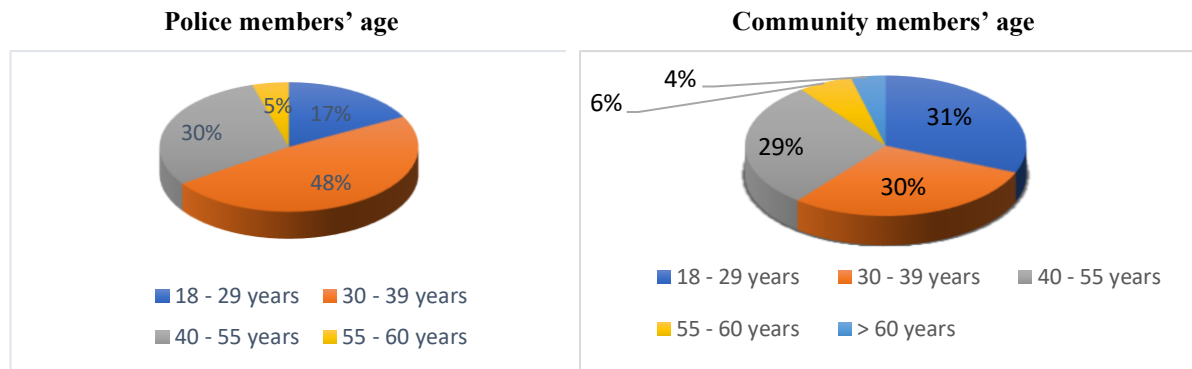


Figure 0.4: Police members' and community members' age groups

The age groups of the PPs show that almost half (48%) were in the 30–39-year age group followed by 30% in age group 40–55. The CPs show 30% in age bracket of 30–39 years as presented in Figure 7.4 above. Regarding the CPs there was significant correspondence in the age group 18–29 (31%), 41–50 (30%) and 40–55 (29%). The majority of the participants in the study were in the age group of 30–55 years with an average of 68,5% and participants in other age groups with an average 31,5%.

7.2.5 Police bursaries

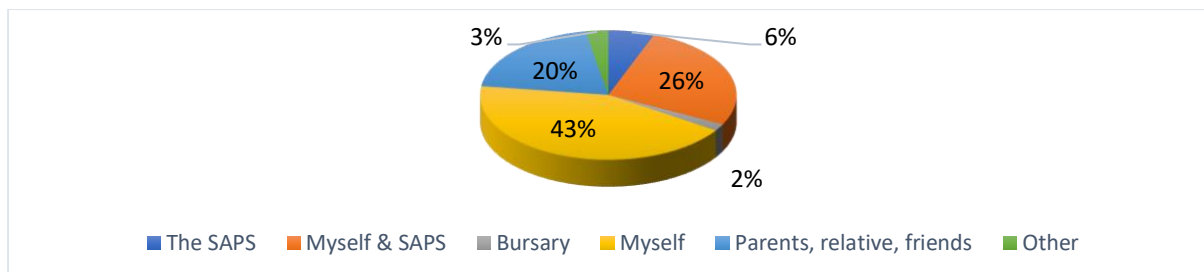


Figure 0.5: Police bursaries

Figure 7.5 above shows that SAPS assisted at least 63% of members in some or other way in continuing with their studies.

7.2.6 Police years of experience

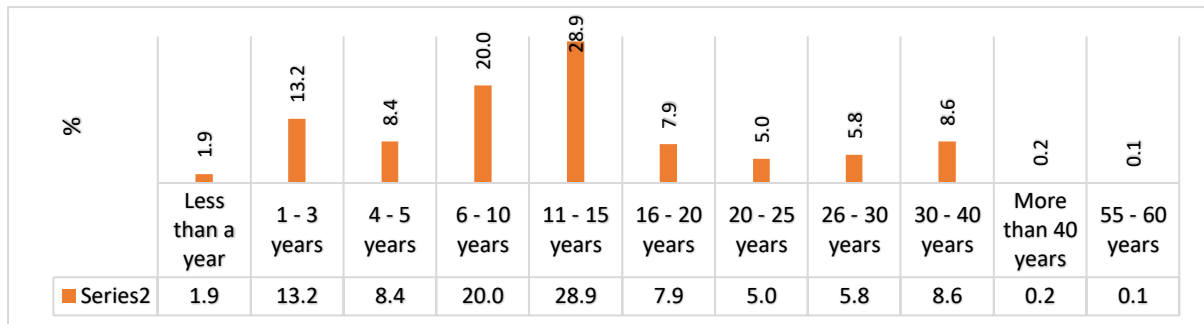


Figure 0.6: Police years of experience

In Figure 7.6 above, the participants were grouped into categories in terms of their service periods or number of years in the SAPS. Those who had been with the SAPS for 1–3 years were 13,2%, for period 4–5 years 8,4%, 6–10 years 20%, 11–15 years 28,9%), 16–20 years were 7,9%, 20–25 years were 5%, 26–30 years 5,8%, 30–40 years 8,6. %, less than a year 1,9% and more than 40 years 0,2%. The majority of the participants who took part in the study had been with the SAPS for a period between 6–15 years (48%). Twenty percent (20%) of the participants had experience of more than 20 years in the SAPS.

7.2.7 Police ranks

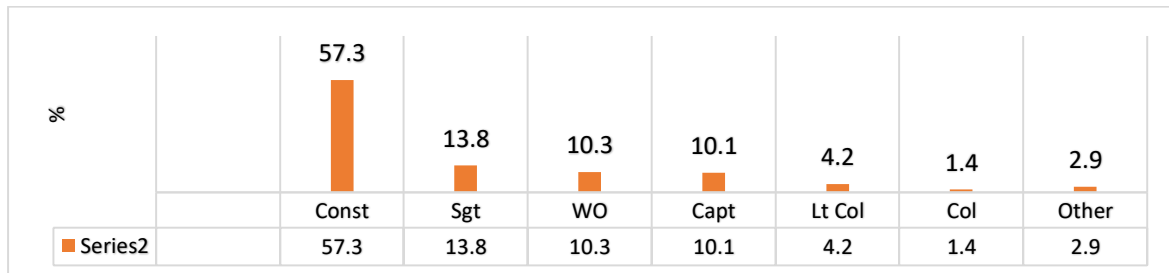


Figure 0.7: Police ranks

According to Figure 7.7 above, most of the participants fell under the Constable category in terms of rank with a percentage of 57,3%. Only 13,8% and 10,3% fell under Sergeant and Warrant Officers categories respectively. Commissioned Officers (Colonels, Lieutenant Colonels and Captains) formed 15,7% against 81,4% of Non-Commissioned Officers. The highest percentage that took part in this study was that for the Non-Commissioned Officers (81,4%) who were daily operationally fighting crime and working with communities to create safer environments for them.

7.2.8 Police highest qualification

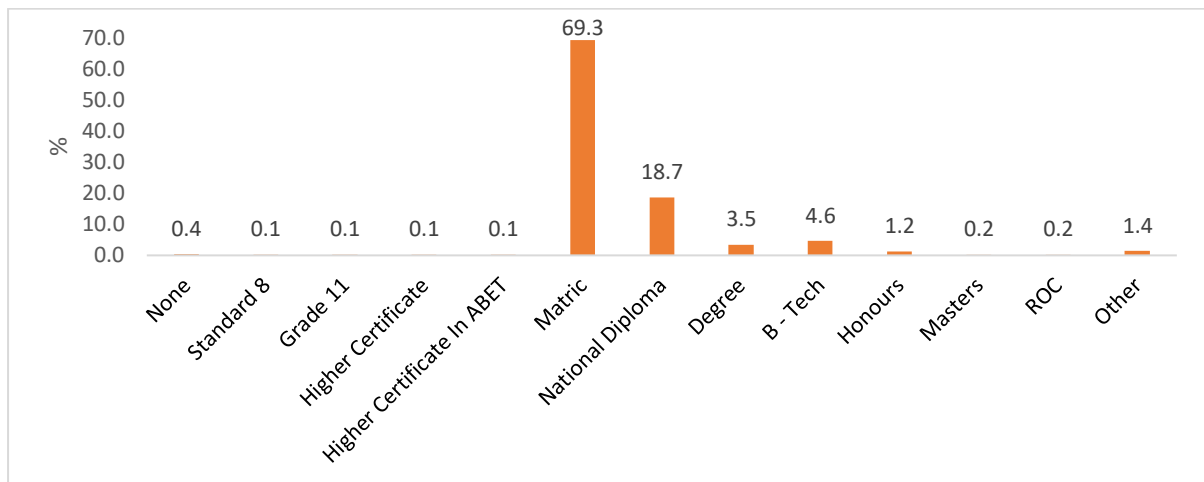


Figure 0.8: Police highest qualification

There was only 1,4% participants whose highest qualifications were in the Other category, 69,3% had Matric/ Grade 12. Tertiary qualifications were as follows: 18,7% with National Diploma, 3,5% with Degrees, 4,6% with B-Tech, 1,2% with Honours Degrees and 0,2% with Master's Degrees.

7.2.9 Police years in same rank

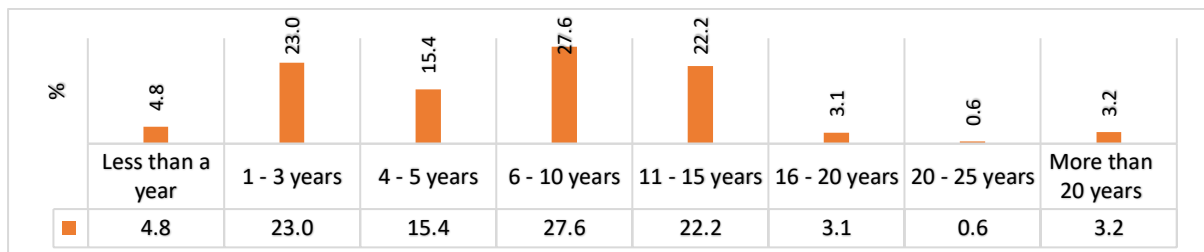


Figure 0.9: Police years in same rank

Figure 7,9 above indicates the number of years each employee had been at the same rank. Participants who had been at the same rank for 1–3 years made out 23%, 22,2% had been at same rank for 11–15 years, 3,1% for 16–20 years, 15,4% for 4–5 years, 27,6% for 6–10 years, 4,8% for less than a year, and 3,2% more than 20 years.

7.3 PARTICIPANT VIEWS

Following data collation and analysis, this section provides graphical depictions of the distribution of participants' views on the questionnaires.

7.3.1 Participant views on police proficiency

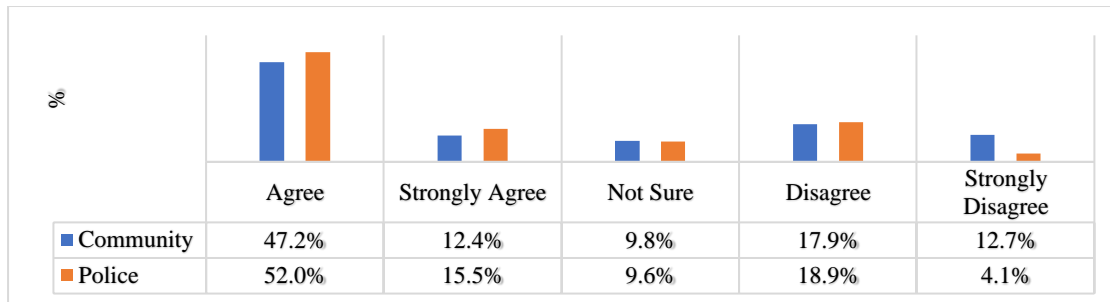


Figure 0.10: Views on police behaviour supporting positive image of SAPS

Figure 7.10 above shows 67.5% PPs and 59,6% CPS agreed police behaved in a way that supported the positive image of the SAPS. Almost two in 10 police members did not agree that some police officials contributed to the positive image of SAPS. (23% PPs and 30,6% CPs disagreed).

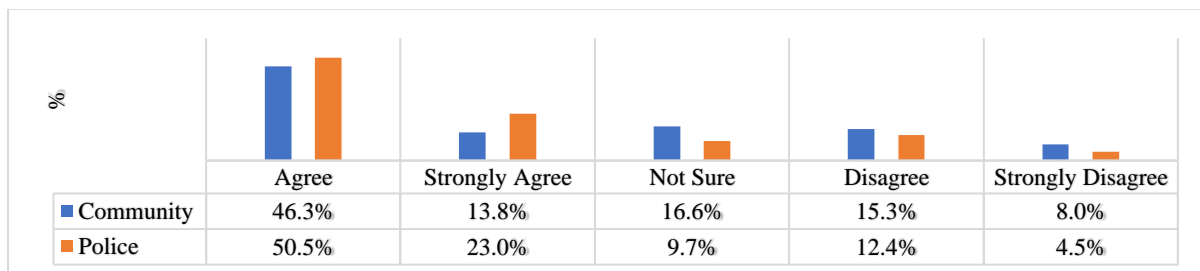


Figure 0.11: Views on whether the police were well-informed of their roles in policing

Views on police being well-informed about what their roles were varied among PPs and CPs. In Figure 7.11 above 73,5% PPs and 62,1% CPs indicated that police were well-informed of their roles in policing (six in 10 CPs felt that the police were well-informed about the part that they were supposed to be playing in their police work, and almost two in 10 PPs felt that police were not well-informed about their role in policing).

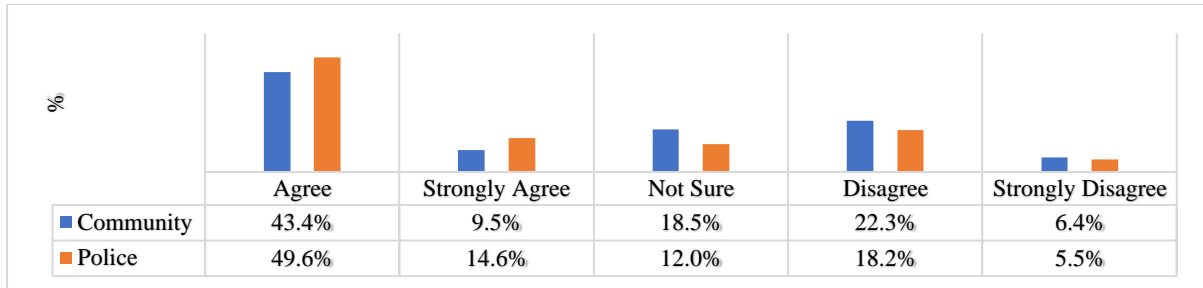


Figure 0.12: Views on police understanding and performing functions/ obligation/duties

Figure 7.12 above shows that 64,2% PPs and 52,9% CP indicated that police members understood and performed their functions accordingly while 23,7% PPs and 28,7% CPs disagreed.

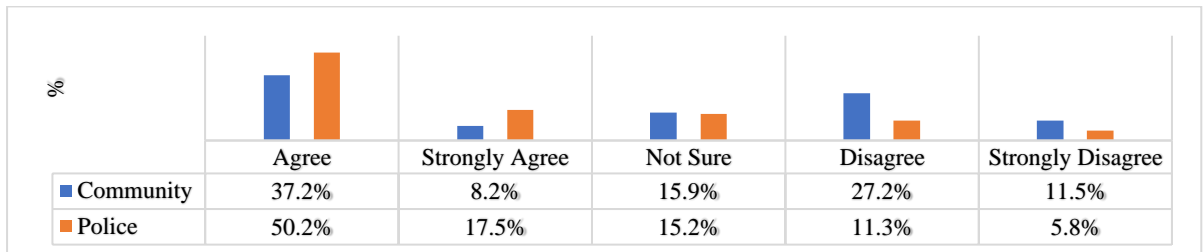


Figure 0.13: Views on police respecting victims

There is a significant difference in opinions of PPs and CPs regarding police respecting victims of crime. Figure 7.13 above shows 67,7% PPs and 45,4% CPs that police members respected victims while 17,1% PPs and 36,7% CPs disagreed.

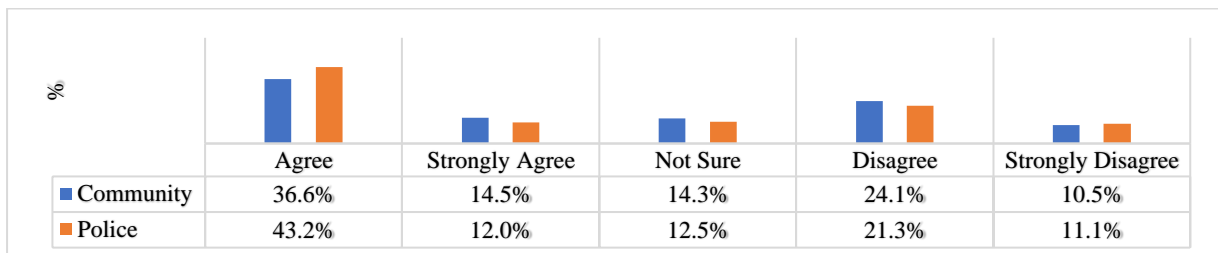


Figure 0.14: Views on police earning community's respect and support

Figure 7.14 above indicates that 55,2% PPs and 51,1% CPs indicated that the police had earned their respect and full support of the community. However, 32,4% PPs and 34,6% CPs felt that members had not earned the respect and support of the community.

7.3.2 Participant views on police capacitation

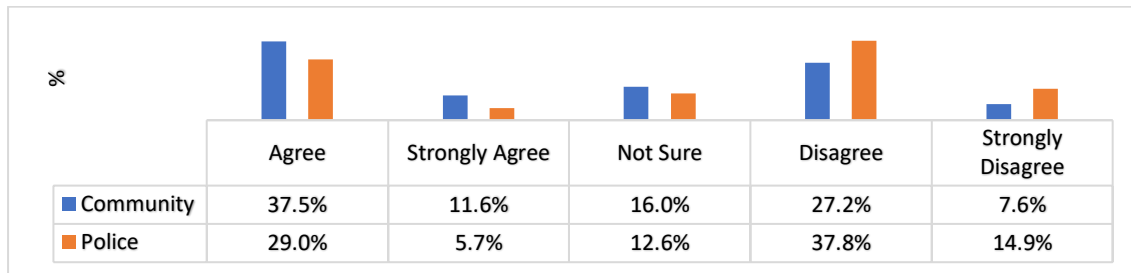


Figure 0.15: Views on police having adequate resources to do the job

Figure 7.15 above shows that 34,7% CPs and 49,1% PPs indicated there were adequate resource for police to do their work 52,7% PPs and 34,8% CPs held the views that police did not have adequate resources to perform their duties.

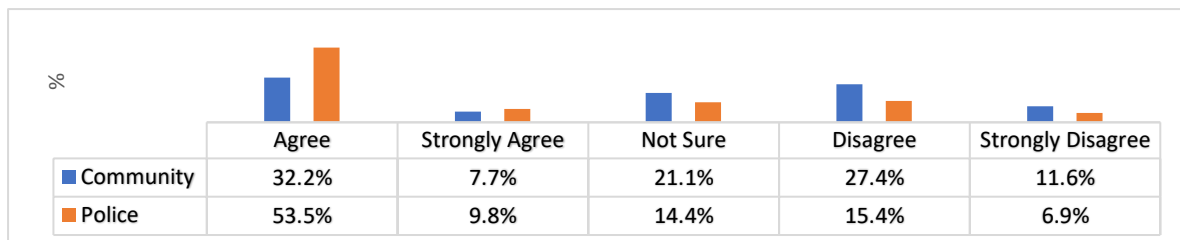


Figure 0.16: Views on police using state time appropriately to solve crime

Figure 7.16 above shows that 63,3% PPs and 39,9% indicated that police used state time appropriately to solve crime whereas 22,3% PPs and 39% disagreed.

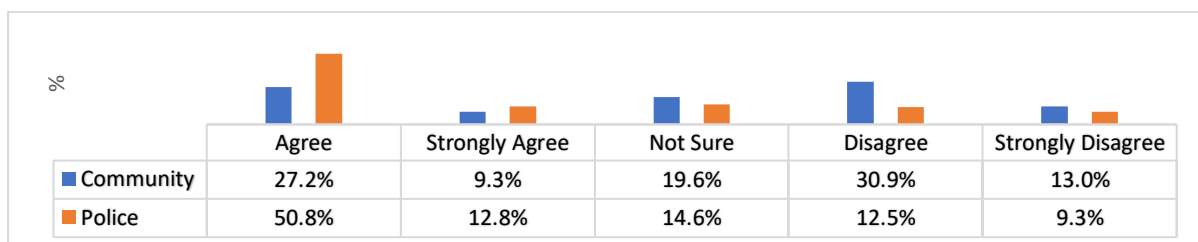


Figure 0.17: Views on police utilising state vehicles appropriately to solve crime

Figure 7.17 above shows that 63,6% PPs and 36,5% CPs indicated that the police were not using state vehicles appropriately to solve crime. However, 21,8% PPs and 43,9% CPs indicated that police members were not using state vehicles appropriately to solve crime.

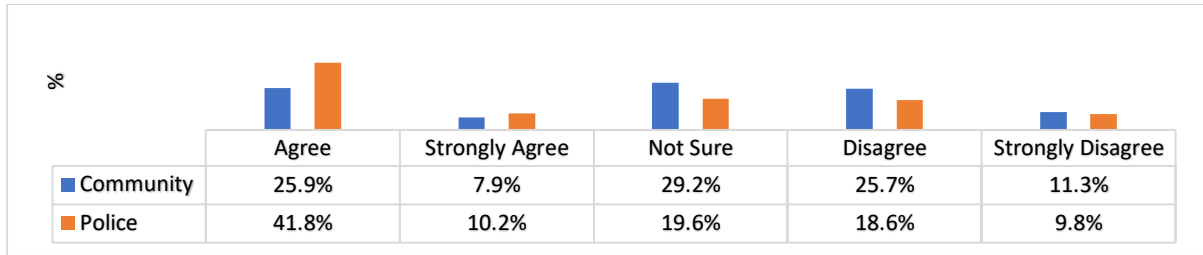


Figure 0.18: Views on police not utilising state resources for private benefit

Figure 7.18 above indicates that 52% PPs and 33,8% CPs did not have the view that police members utilised state resources for their private benefit even though 28,4% PPs and 37% CPs disagreed.

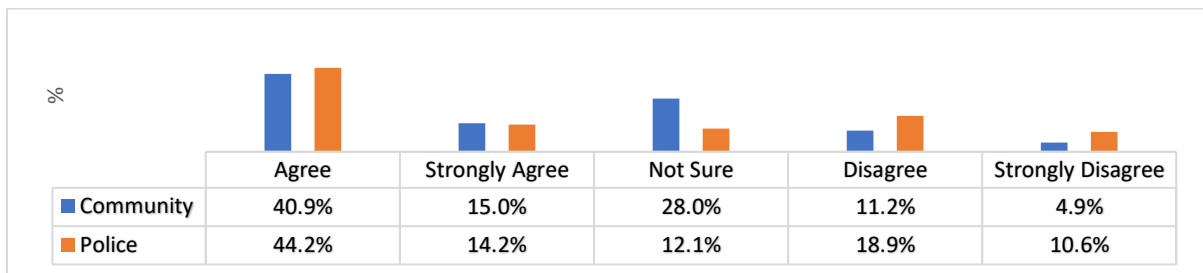


Figure 0.19: Views on whether police were well-trained

Figure 7.19 above displays that 55,9% of the CPs felt that most police members were well-trained compared to 58,4% of the PPs who indicated that most of the police members were well-trained.

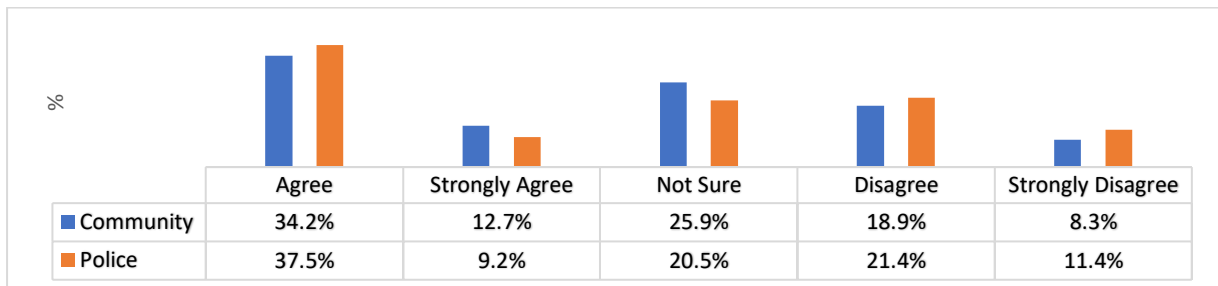


Figure 0.20: Views on police having required skills needed

Figure 7.20 above indicates that 46,7% PPs and 46,9% CPs felt that police officers did have all the necessary skills needed. However, 32, 8% PPs and 27, 2% CPs felt that police officers did not have all the necessary skills needed.

7.3.3 Participant views on police mandatory commitment

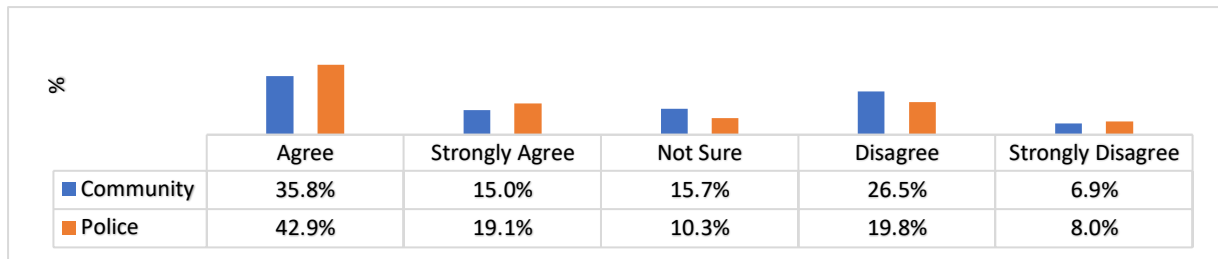


Figure 0.21: Views regarding police motivation to create safe and secure environments

According to Figure 7.21 above, 63% PPs and 50,8% agreed that police were motivated to create a safe and secure environment for the people of SA whilst 27,8% PPs and 33.4% CPs disagreed.

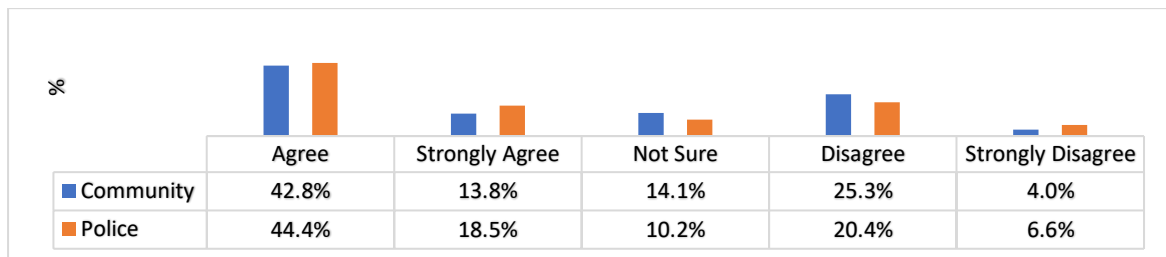


Figure 0.22: Views on police motivation to prevent and combat crime

Figure 7.22 above reveals that 62,9% PPs and 56,6% CPs indicated that police members were motivated to prevent and combat crime in communities. However, 27% PPs and 29,3% disagreed.

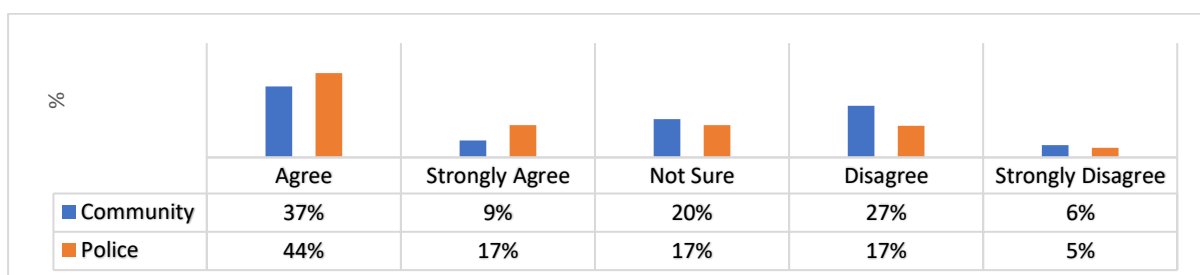


Figure 0.23: Views regarding police motivation to investigate crime without bias

Sixty one percent (61%) of PPs felt that the police were motivated to investigate crime without bias (See Figure 7.23 above) whilst 46% CPs agreed with this. On the other hand, 22% PPs and 33% CPs disagreed.

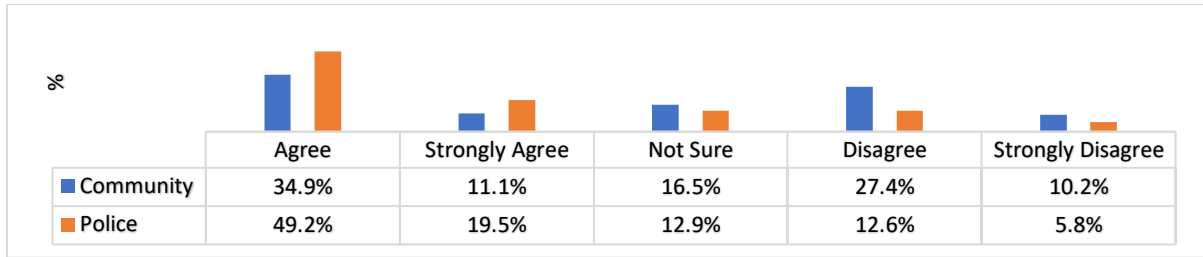


Figure 0.24: Views on police motivation to ensure offenders were brought to justice

Figure 7.24 shows that 68, 7% PPs and 46% CPs were of the view that police members were motivated to ensure that offenders were brought to justice. Yet, 18,4 % PPs and 37,6% CPs disagreed.

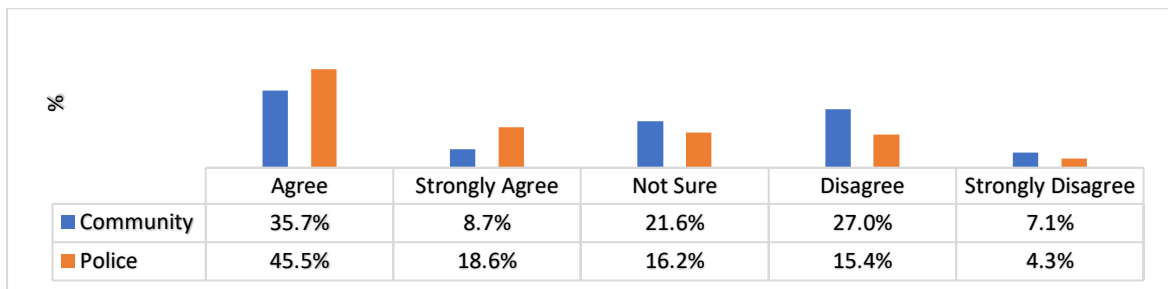


Figure 0.25: Views on police motivation to address root causes of crime

Figure 7.25 above shows that 64,1% PPs and 44,4% CPs indicated that the police were motivated to participate in the addressing of the root cause of crime in the community. There is indication that 19,7% PPs and 34,1% disagreed.

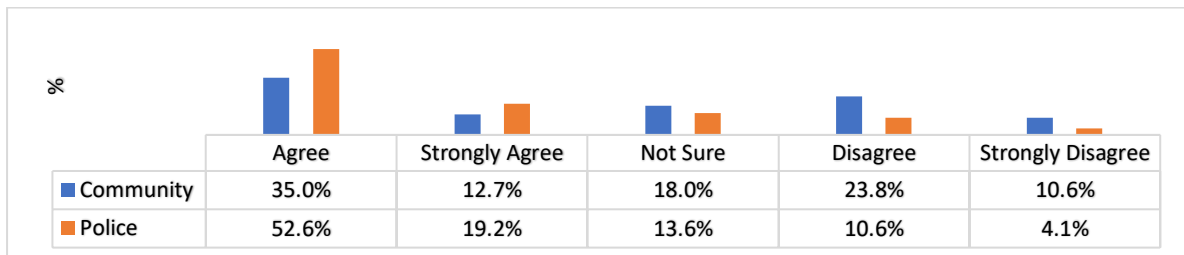


Figure 0.26: Views on police motivation to address human rights violation

The above Figure 7.26 indicates that 71,8% PPs and 47,7% CPs indicated that police members were motivated to protect community members when their human rights were violated. On the other hand, 14,7% PPs and 34,4% CPs disagreed.

7.3.4 Participant views on ethical standards

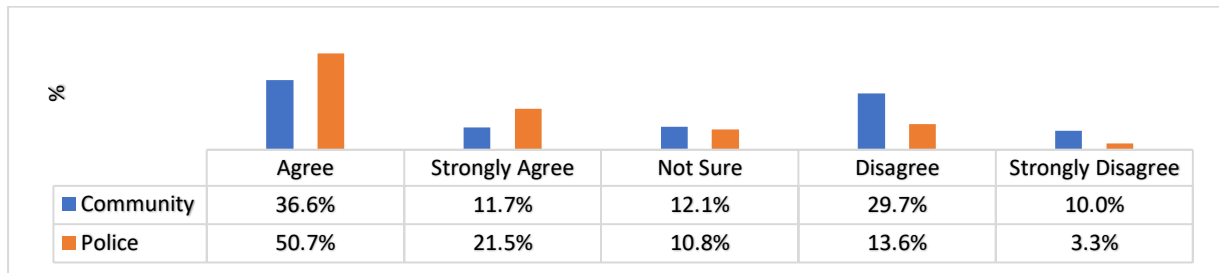


Figure 0.27: Views on police treating community with respect

Figure 7.27 above shows that 72,2% PPs and 48,3% CPs indicated that police members respected the community while 16,9% PPs and 39,7% CPs disagreed.

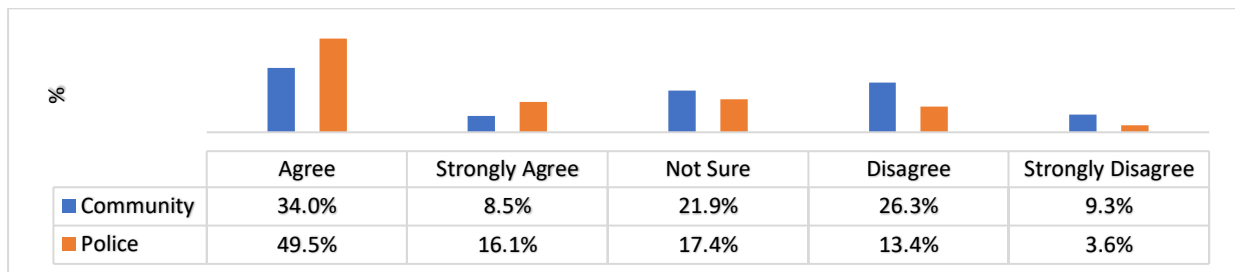


Figure 0.28: Views on police using powers responsibly

Figure 7.28 above shows that 65,6% PPs 42,5% CPs agreed that police members were using their powers responsibly. However, 17% PPs and 35,6% CPs disagreed.

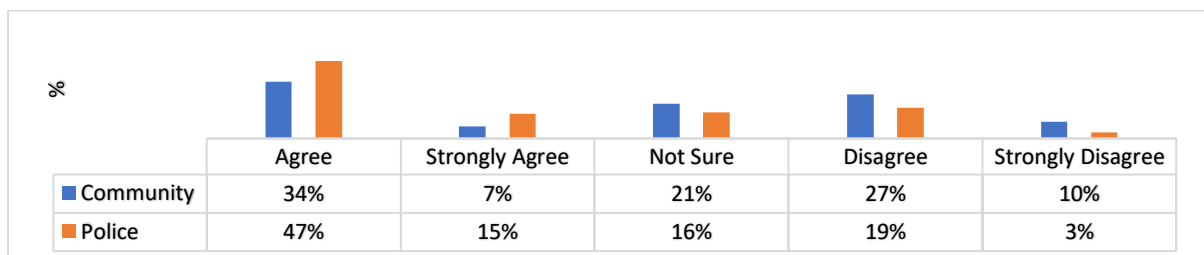


Figure 0.29: Views on police being accountable and reliable

Figure 7.29 above shows that 62% PPs and 41% CPs indicated that they viewed police members as being reliable and accountable to the community whilst 37% CPs and 22% PPs disagreed.

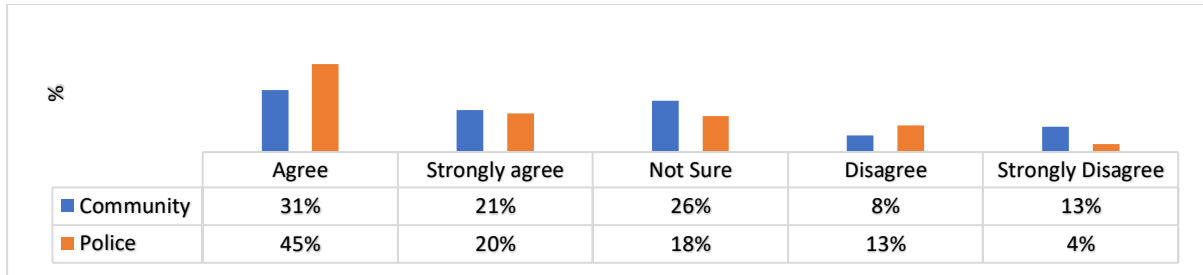


Figure 0.30: Views regarding police transparency

Figure 7.30 above indicates that 65% PPs and 52% CPs regarded police members being transparent with the community whilst 17% PPs and 21% CPs disagreed.

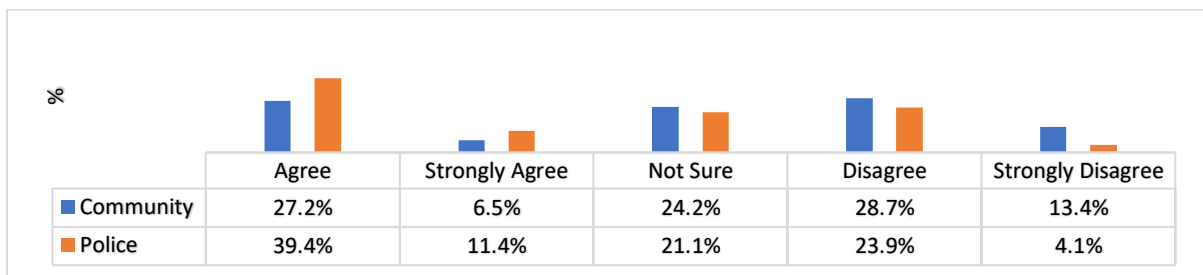


Figure 0.31: Views on police acting honestly in all situations

Figure 7.31 above shows that 50,8% PPs and 33,7% CPs indicated that police members acted with honesty in all situations. However, 42,1% CPs and 28% PPs CPs disagreed.

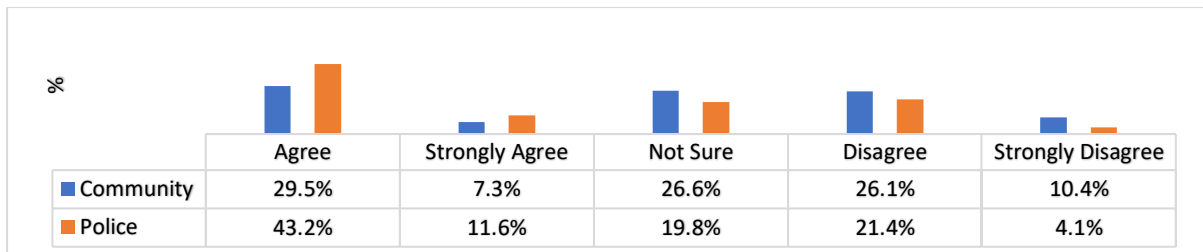


Figure 0.32: Views on police acting responsibly in all situations

Figure 7.32 above shows, 54,8% PPs and 36,8% CPs indicated that police members acted responsibly in all situations. However, 25,5% PPs and 36,5% CPs disagreed.

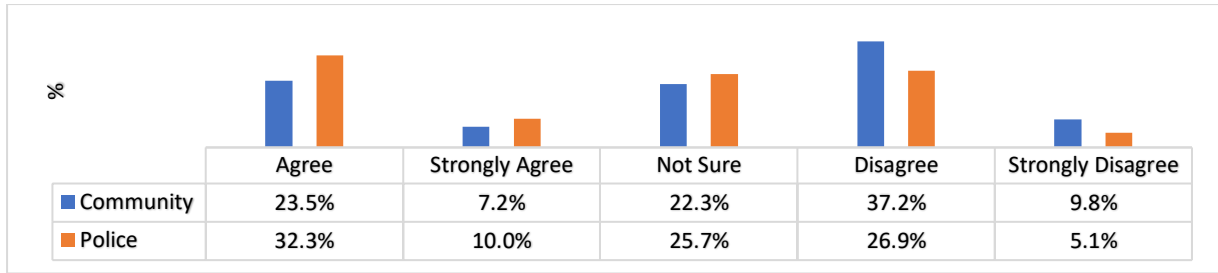


Figure 0.33: Views on police trustworthiness

According to Figure 7.33 above, 42,3% PPs and 30,7% CPs indicated that the police were trustworthy whilst 32% PPs and 47% CPs disagreed.

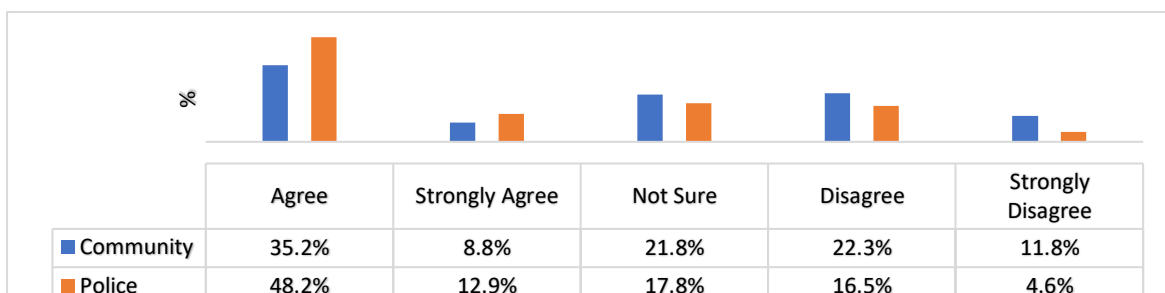


Figure 0.34: Views on police doing what is right in performing their duties

Figure 7.34 above shows that 61,2% PPs and 44% CPs indicated that police members were doing what was right in performing their duties. Contrarily, 21,1% PPs and 34,1% CPs disagreed.

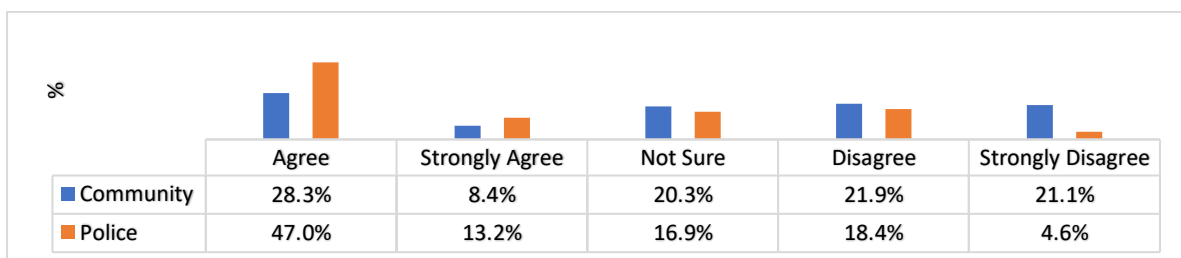


Figure 0.35: Views on police providing progress on complaints

Figure 7.35 above displays that 60,2% PPs and 36,7% CPs indicated that police members provided progress on complaints. On the other hand, 23% PPs and 43% CPs disagreed.

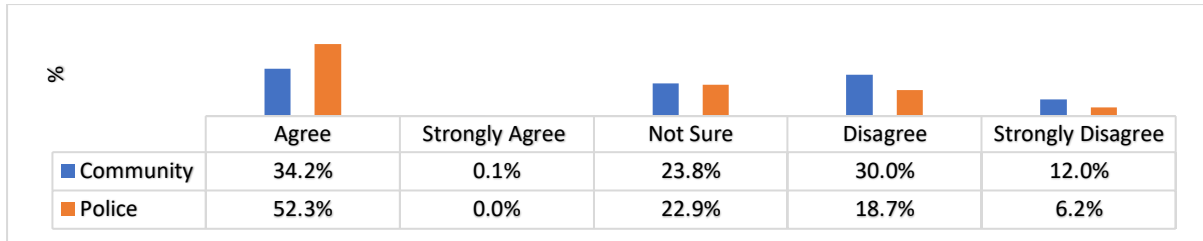


Figure 0.36: Views on exemplary police conduct in the community

The above Figure 7.36 presents that 52,3% PP and 34,3% CPs felt that the police members' conduct was exemplary in the community. However, 24,9% PP and 42% CPs.

7.3.5 Participant views on respect for diversity

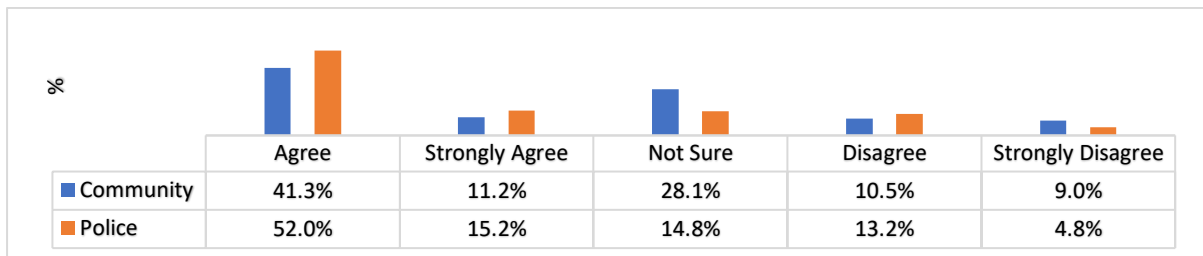


Figure 0.37: Views on police respecting diverse cultures and diversity in the community

Figure 7.37 above indicates that 67,2% PP and 52,5% CPs believed that police members respected diverse cultures and diversity in the community when their performing their duties whilst 18% PP and 19,5% CPs disagreed.

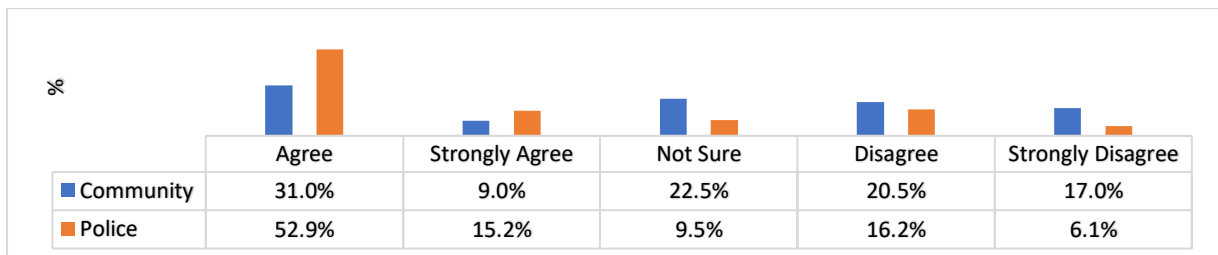


Figure 0.38: Views on police treating males and females with equality and respect

Figure 7.38 above shows that 68,1% PP indicated that the police treated males and females equally when performing their duties while only 40% CPs agreed with this. Only 22,3% PP and 37,5% CPs disagreed with this.

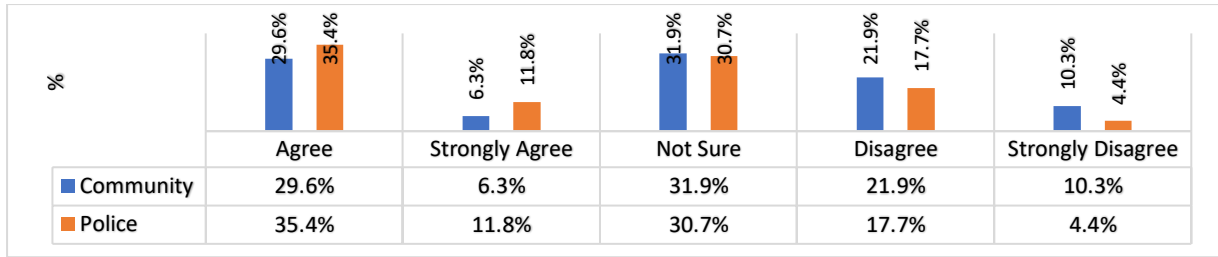


Figure 0.39: Views on police treating the gay and lesbian community with respect

Results of Figure 7.39 above shows that 47,2% PPs and 35,9% CPs agreed that police were treating the gay and lesbian community with respect. Contrary, 26,1% PPs and 32,2% CPs disagreed.

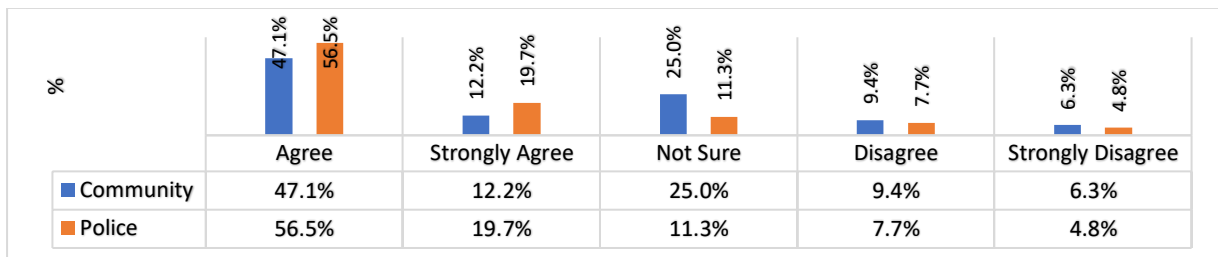


Figure 0.40: Views on police treating people with disabilities with respect

According to Figure 7.40 above, 76,2% PPs were of the view that police treated people with respect when performing their duties. Only 59,3% CPs agreed. Exactly, 15,7% PPs and 12.5% CPs disagreed.

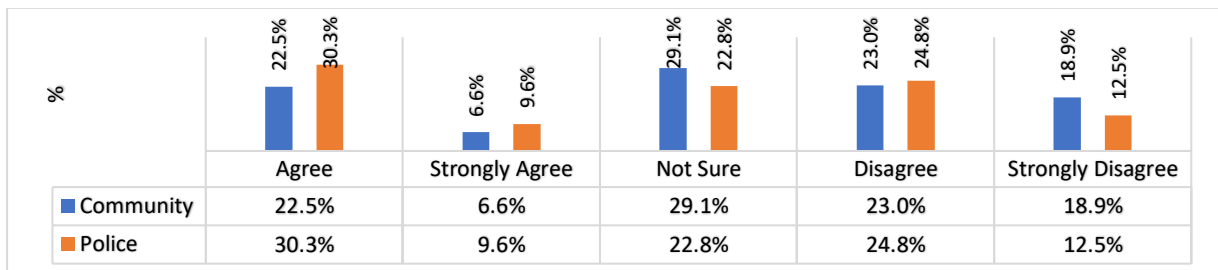


Figure 0.41: Views on police being able to help community in sign language

Precisely, 39,9% PPs and 29,1% CPs stated that the police were able to help community members who needed to be assisted in sign language. However, 37,3% PPs and 41,9% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.41 above).

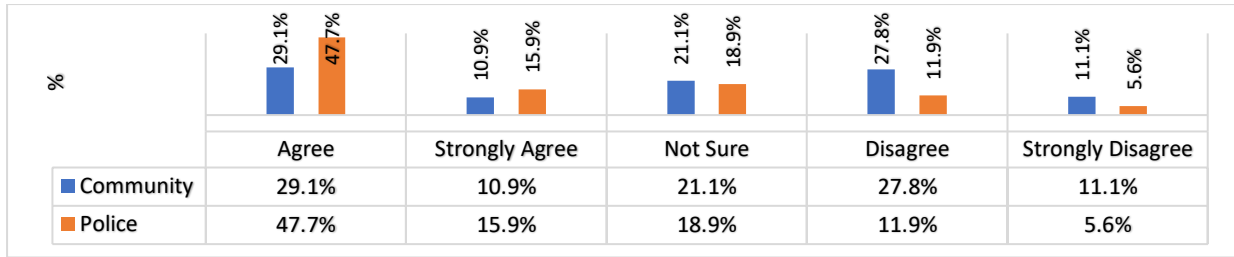


Figure 0.42: Views on police treating everyone with dignity

Specifically, 63,6% PPs and 40% CPs stated that police treated all people with dignity. However, 17,5% PPs and 38,9% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.42 above).

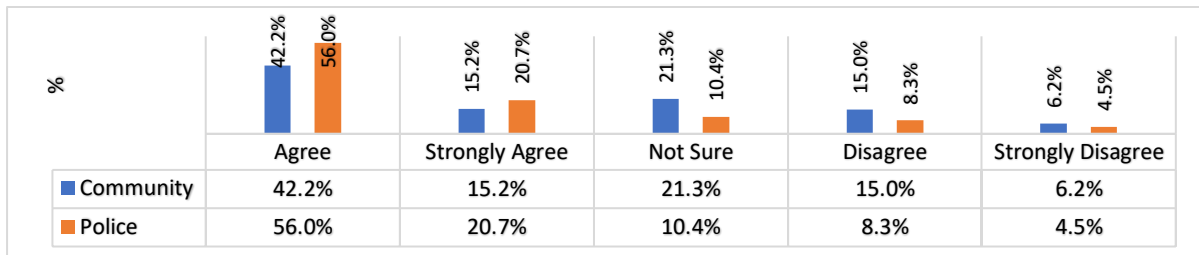


Figure 0.43: Views on police respecting children's rights

Figure 7.43 shows that 76,7% PPs and 57,4% CPs were of the view that police respected children's rights. Only 12,8% PPs and 21,2% PPs disagreed.

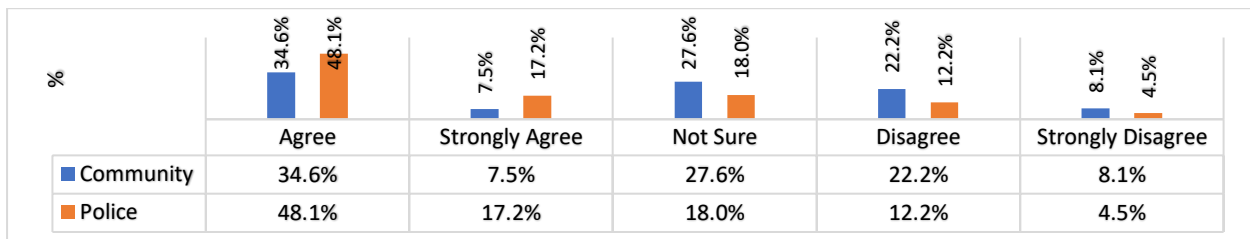


Figure 0.44: Views on most police not unlawfully discriminating against anyone

Figure 7.44 above shows that 65,3% PPs and 42,1% CPs were of the view that most police did not unlawfully discriminate against any person. Just 16,7% PPs and 30,3% CPs disagreed.

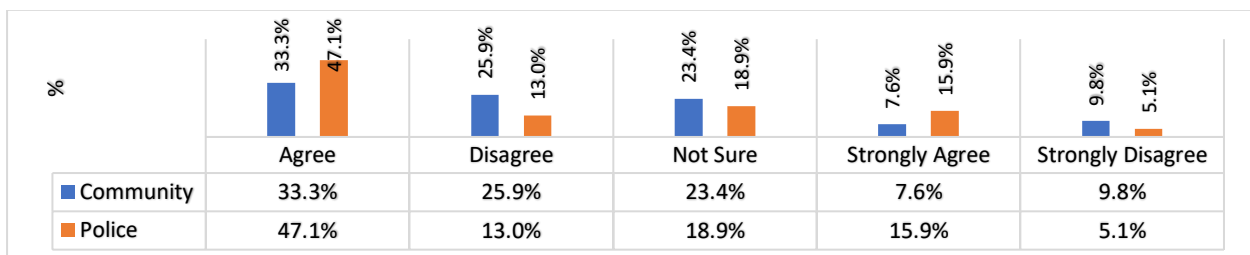


Figure 0.45: Views on most police not being biased when attending to complaints

Figure 7.45 above shows that 60,1% PPs and 59,2% CPs were of the view that police were not biased when attending to complaints. Merely 21% PPs and 17,4% CPs disagreed.

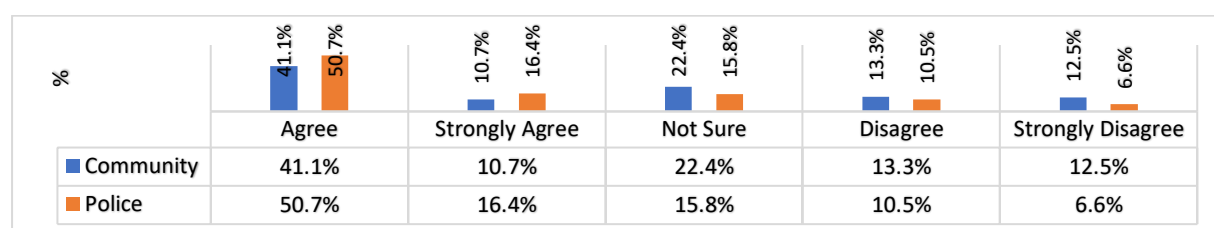


Figure 0.46: Views on most police respecting different faith/religious/spiritual groups

Figure 7.46 above shows that 67,1% PPs and 51,8% CPs were of the view that most police respected different faith/religious/spiritual groups. Just 17,1% PPs and 25,8% CPs disagreed.

7.3.6 Participant views on service excellence

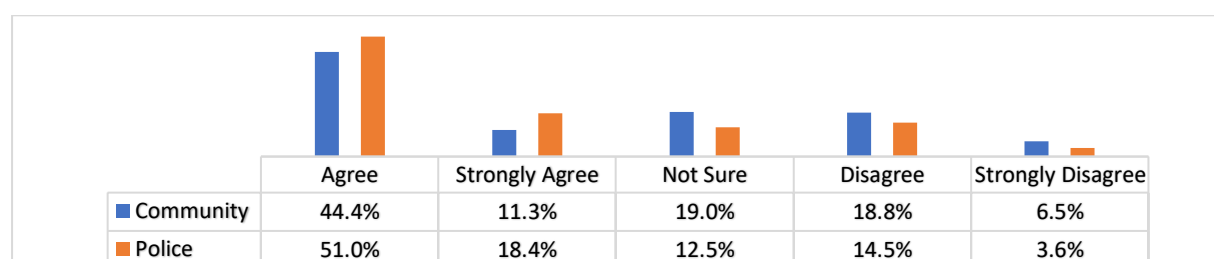


Figure 0.47: Views on most police enforcing the law properly

Figure 7.47 above shows that 69,4% PPs and 55,7% CPs were of the view that most police were enforcing the law properly (in accordance with the law). There were 18,1% of PPs and 25,3% of CPs disagreed.

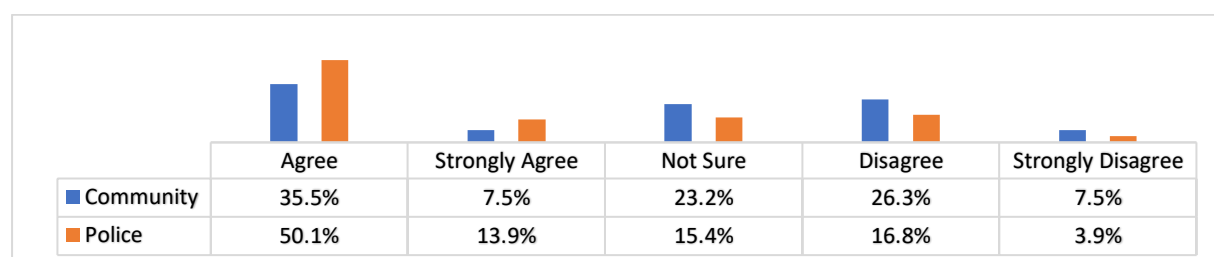


Figure 0.48: Views on most police not violating the Constitution

The above Figure 7.48 presents that 64% of PPs and 43% of CPs were of the view that most police were not violating the Constitution of the country. However, 20,7% PPs and 33,8% CPs disagreed.

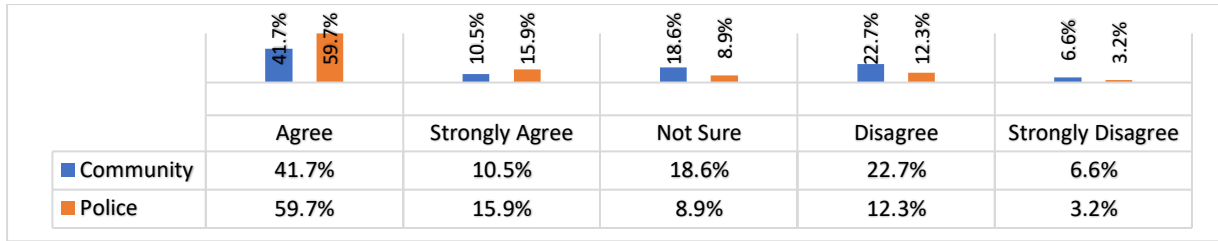


Figure 0.49: Views on police protecting communities against illegal action

Figure 7.49 above shows that 75,6% PPs and 52,2% CPs were of the view that most police protected communities against illegal/unlawful action. Yet, 5,5% PPs and 29,3% CPs disagreed.

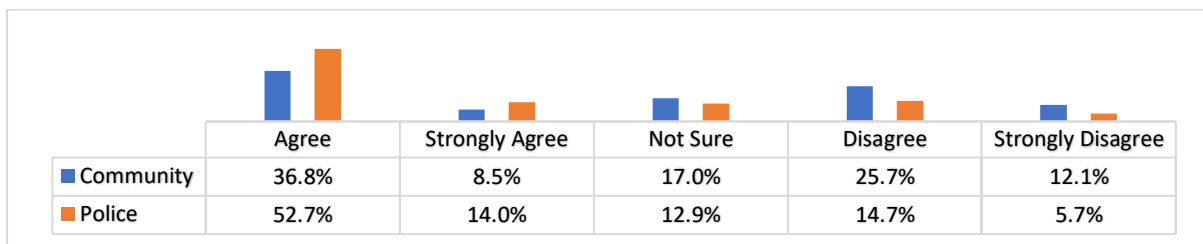


Figure 0.50: Views on most police behaving professionally

Exactly, 66,7% PPs and 45,3% CPs were of the view that most police behaved in a professional manner. However, 20,4% PPs and 37,8% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.50 above).

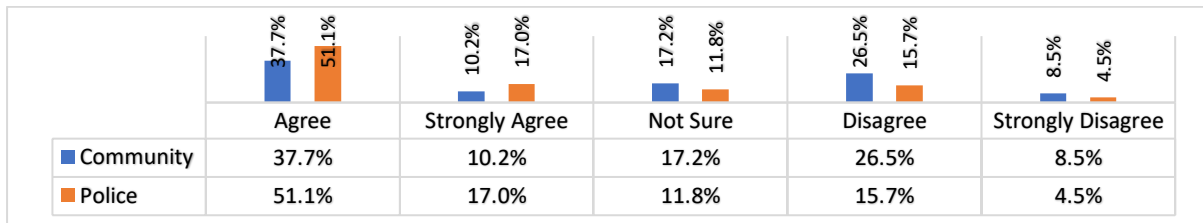


Figure 0.51: Views on most police being committed to provide excellent

Figure 7.51 above shows that 68,1% PPs and 47,9% CPs were of the view police were committed to provide excellent service to the best of their abilities. There were 20,2% of PPs and 35% of CPs disagreed.

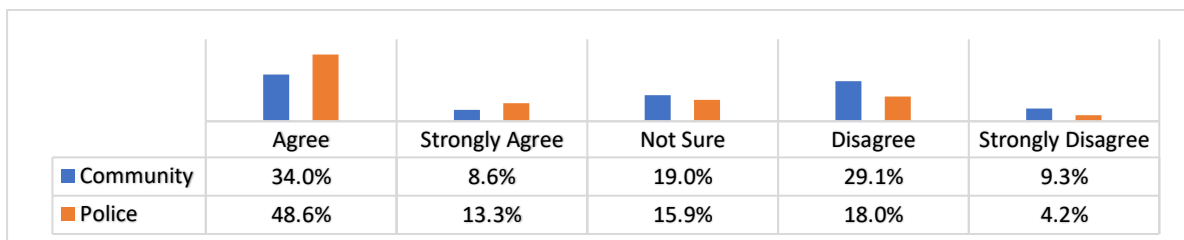


Figure 0.52: Views on most police rendering service responsibly and accountably

Figure 7.52 above shows that 61,9% PPs and 42,6% CPs were of the view that most police rendered high-quality service in a responsible and accountable manner. Contrarily, 22,2% PPs and 38,4% CPs disagreed.

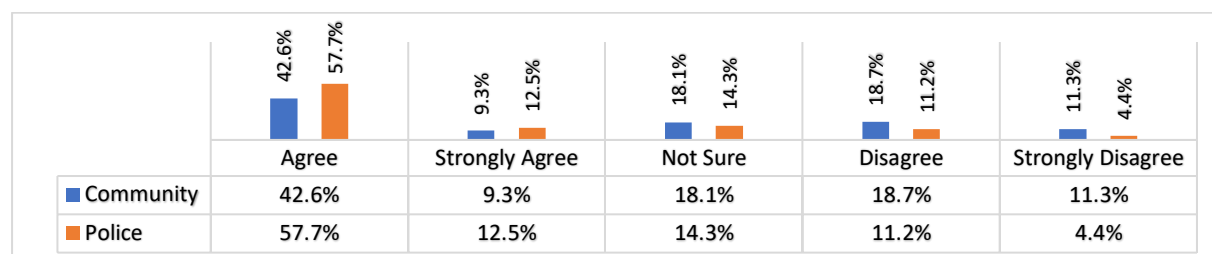


Figure 0.53: Views on most police abiding by the law when rendering service

Figure 7.53 above shows that 70,2% PPs and 51,9% CPs were of the view that most police adhered to the law when rendering service. Just 15,6% PPs and 30% CPs disagreed.

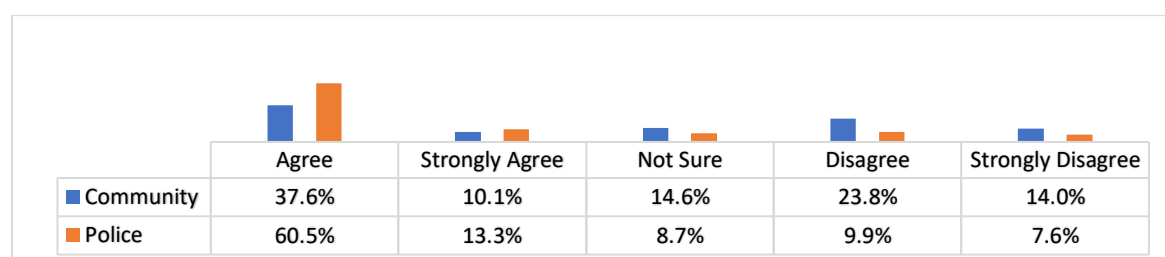


Figure 0.54: Views on most police service being accessible to community

Above Figure 7.54 indicates that 73,8% PPs and 47,7% CPs were of the view that most police service was accessible to the community. However, 17,5% PPs and 37,8% CPs disagreed.

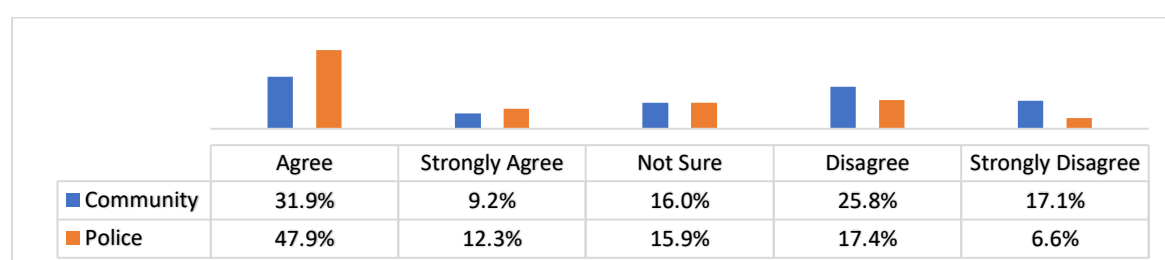


Figure 0.55: Views on most police working hard to prevent any form of corruption

Figure 7.55 above shows that 60,2% PPs and 41,1% CPs were of the view that most police worked hard to prevent any form of corruption. Precisely, 24% PPs and 42,9% CPs disagreed.

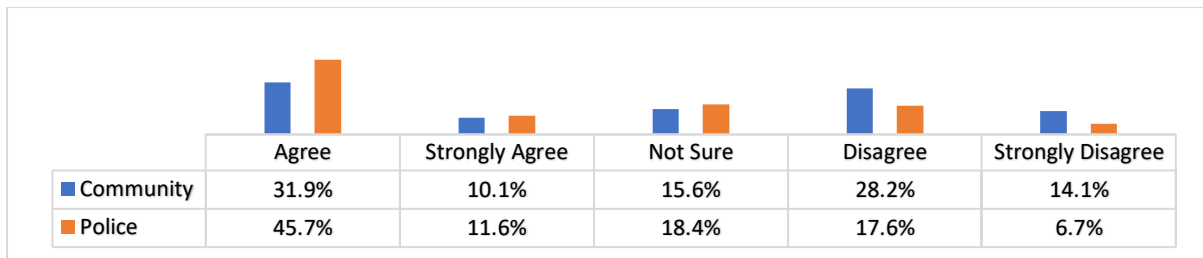


Figure 0.56: Views on most police working hard to bring corrupt people to justice

Exactly, 57,3% PPs and 42% CPs were of the view that most police were working hard to bring corrupt people to justice. Yet, 24,3% PPs and 42,3% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.56 above).

7.3.7 Participant views on cooperation in policing

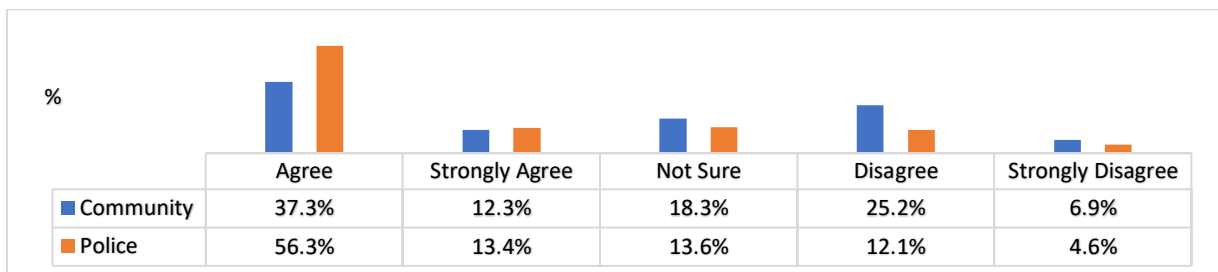


Figure 0.57: Views on police working with communities to create safe environments

Figure 7.57 shows that 69,7% PPs and 49,6% CPs were of the view that most police work together with communities to create safe environments. On the other hand, 16,7% PPs and 32,1% CPs disagreed.

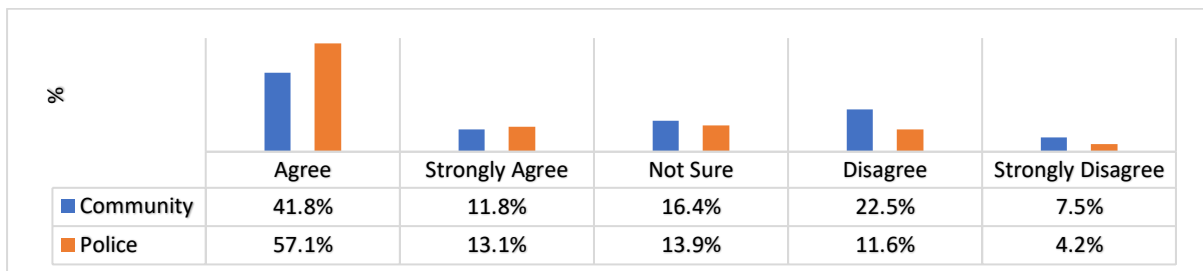


Figure 0.58: Views on police working with government departments to create safe environments

Exactly, 70,2% PPs and 53,6% CPs were of the view that police were working together with government departments to create safe environments for communities. Contrarily, 15,8% PPs and 30% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.58 above).

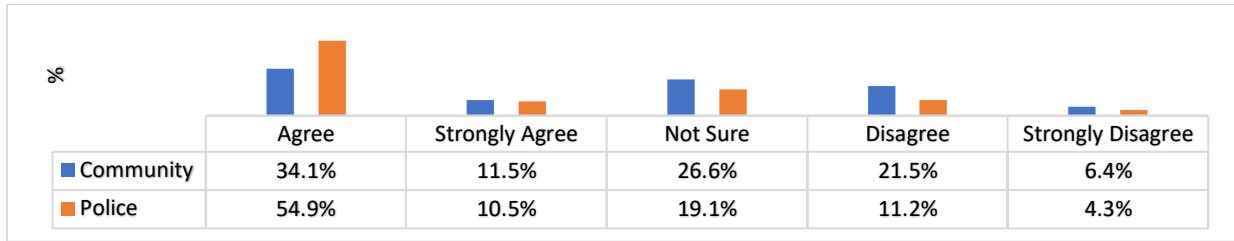


Figure 0.59: Views on police working with NGOs to create safe environments

Figure 7.59 above shows that 65,4% PPs and 45,6% CPs were of the view that police were working with the non-government organisations to create a safe environment for communities whilst 15,5% PPs and 27,9% CPs disagreed.

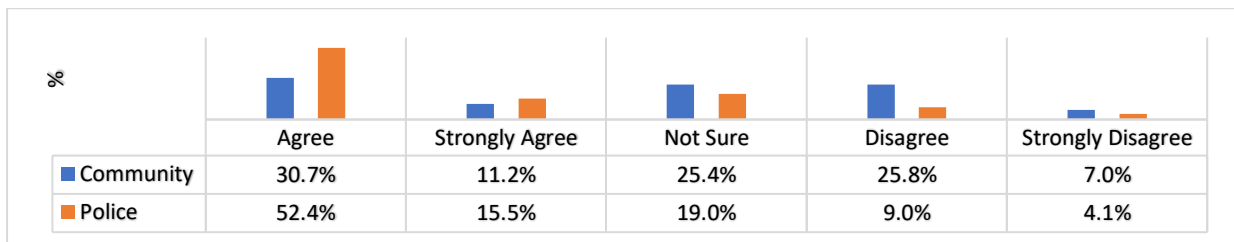


Figure 0.60: Views on police working with community leaders to create safe environments

Exactly 67,9% PPs and 41,9% CPs were of the view that most police were working together with various community leaders, without discrimination, to create safe environments for communities. However, 13,1% PPs and 32,8% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.60 above).

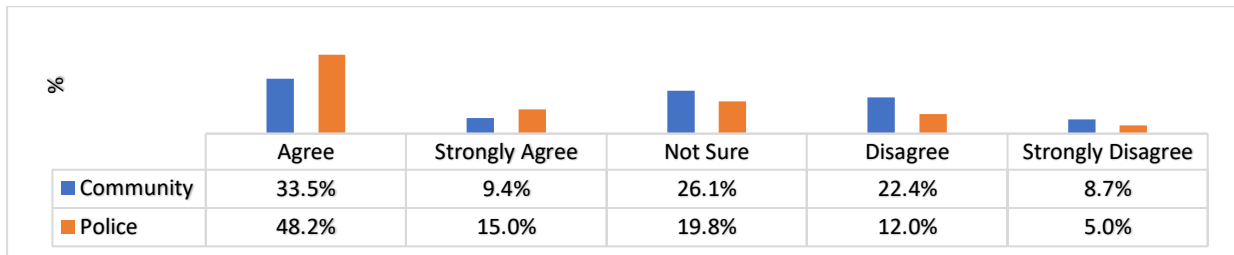


Figure 0.61: Views on police working with security companies

Figure 7.61 above shows that 63,2% PPs and 42,9% CPs were of the view that most police were working together with private security companies to create safe environments for communities. On the other hand, 17% PPs and 31,1% CPs disagreed.

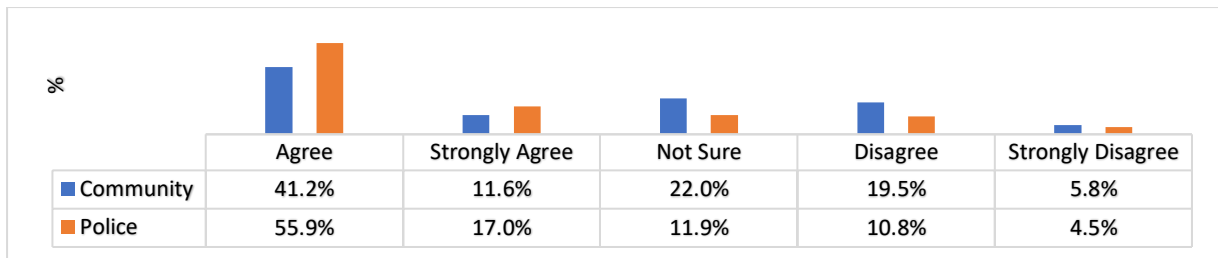


Figure 0.62: Views on police working with CPFs to create safe environments

Figure 7.62 above indicates that 72,9% PPs and 52,8% CPs were of the view that most police were working together with community policing forums (CPF) to create safe environments for communities. Exactly 15,3% PPs and 25,3% CPs disagreed.

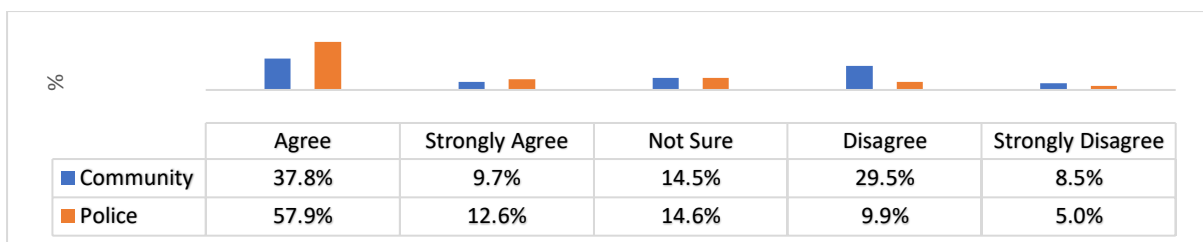


Figure 0.63: Views on police interacting with community amicably

Figure 7.63 above shows that 70,5% PPs and 47,5% CPs were of the view that police were interacting with the community in an approachable (welcoming) and a helpful manner. Only 14,9% PPs and 38% CPs disagreed.

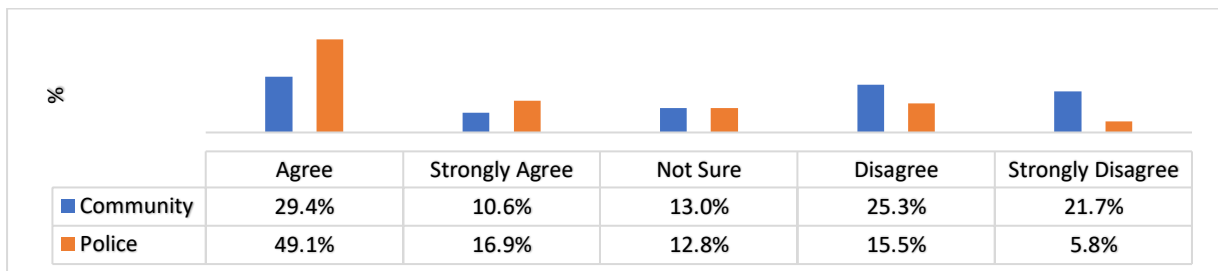


Figure 0.64: Views on police always being visible in the community

Sixty six percent (66%) PPs and 40% CPs were of the view that police were always visible in the community. Precisely 21,3% PPs and 47% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.64 above).

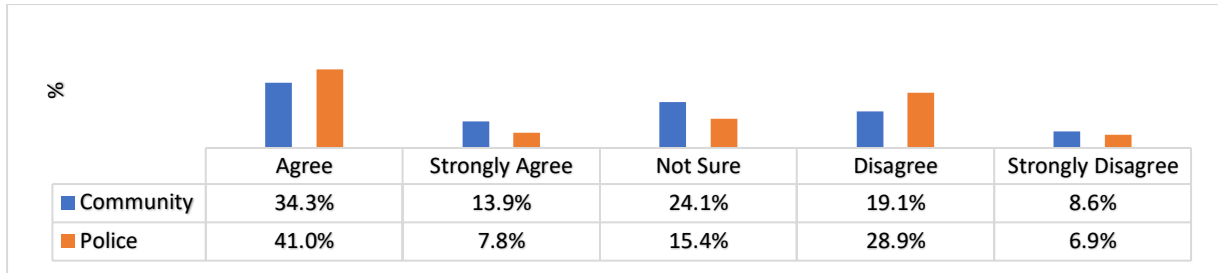


Figure 0.65: Views on communities providing information related to crime to police

Figure 7.65 shows that 48,8% PPs and 48,2% CPs were of the view the community provided much information related to criminal activities being provided to police. Yet, 35,8% PPs and 27,7% CPs disagreed.

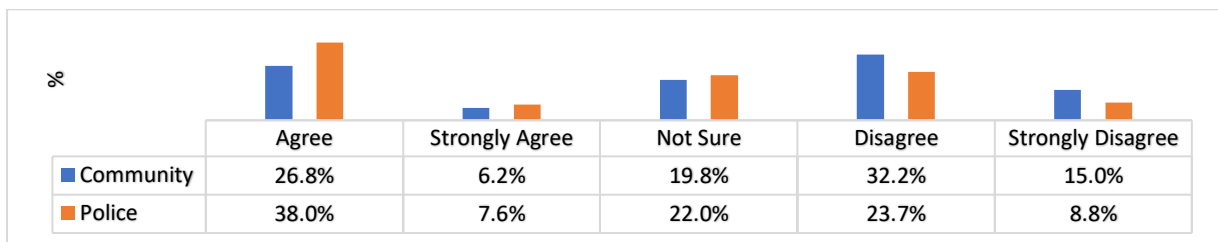


Figure 0.66: Views on there being a good relationship between community and police

Figure 7.66 shows that 45,6% PPs and 33% CPs were of the view that there was a good relationship between the community and police whilst 32,5% PPs and 47,2% CPs disagreed.

7.3.8 Participant views on feeling safe

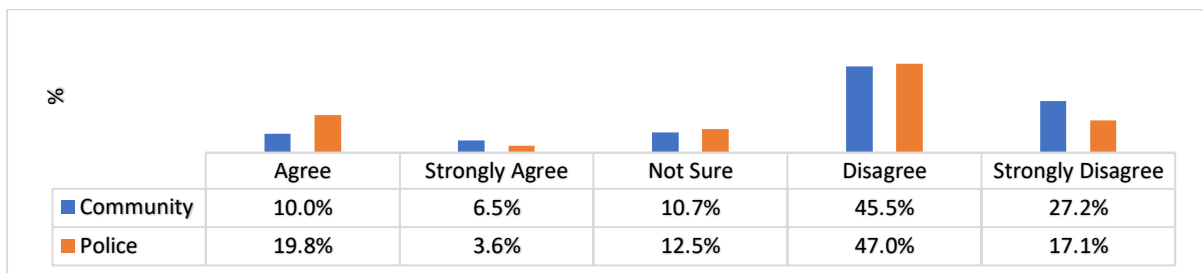


Figure 0.67: Views on there being low levels of crime in community

Figure 7.67 shows that 23,4% PPs and 16,5% CPs were of the view that of there were low levels of crime in the community. However, 64,1% PPs and 72,7% CPs disagreed.

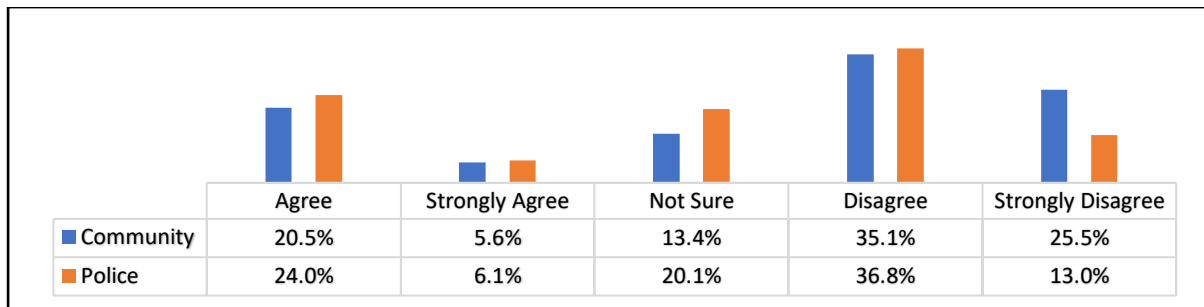


Figure 0.68: Views on there being high incidence of residents not fearing crime

Exactly 30,1% PPs and 26,1% CPs were of the view that there was high occurrence of residents not fearing crime. Yet, 49,8% PPs and 60,6% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.68 above).

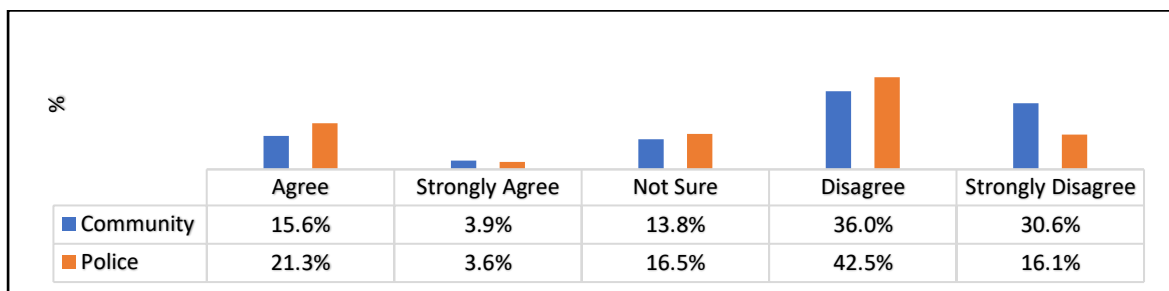


Figure 0.69: Views on no high incidence of not becoming victims in communities

Figure 7.69 above shows that 24,9% PPs and 19,5% CPs were of the view that there was a high occurrence of not becoming victims in the community. Exactly 58,6% PPs and 66,6% CPs disagreed.

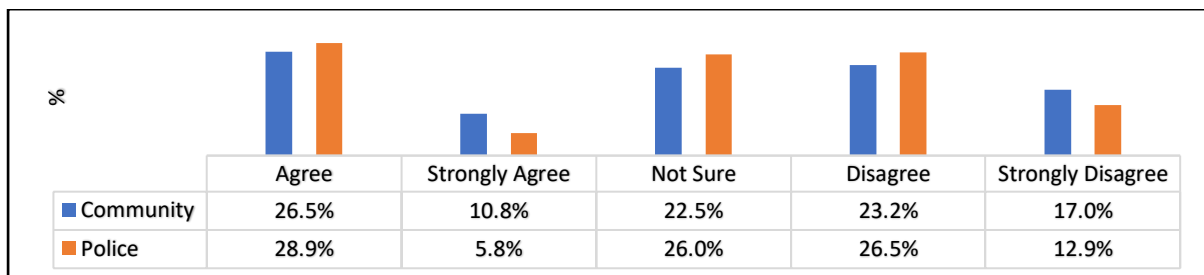


Figure 0.70: Views on high levels of media coverage related to the community safety

Figure 7.70 above shows that 34,7% PPs and 37,3% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of media coverage related to community safety. Precisely 39,4% PPs and 40,2% CPs disagreed.

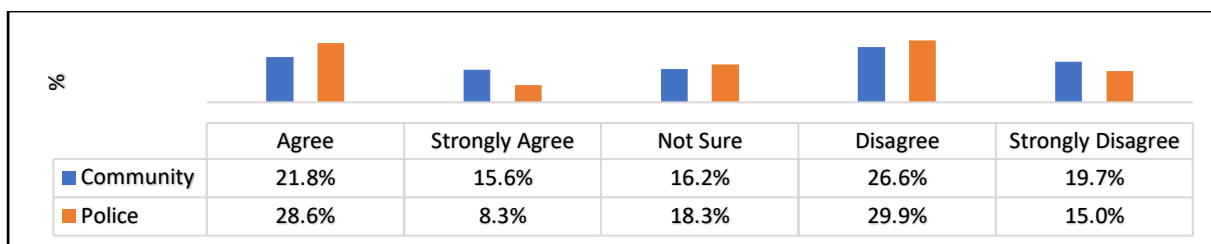


Figure 0.71: Views on incidence of homes with burglar alarm systems/guards

Figure 7.71 above shows that 36,9% PPs and 37,4% CPs were of the view that there were a high number of houses with burglar alarm systems/guards. However, 44,9% PPs and 46,3% CPs disagreed.

7.3.9 Participant views on role-players in community safety

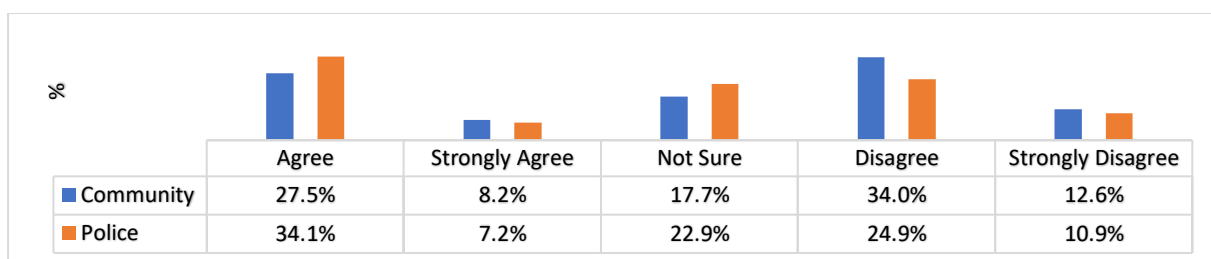


Figure 0.72: Views on government taking responsibility for communities feeling safe

According to Figure 7.72 above, 41,3% PPs and 35,7% CPs were of the view that government departments were taking responsibility for communities feeling safe, whether at home or on the street. However, 35,8% PPs and 46,6% CPs disagreed.

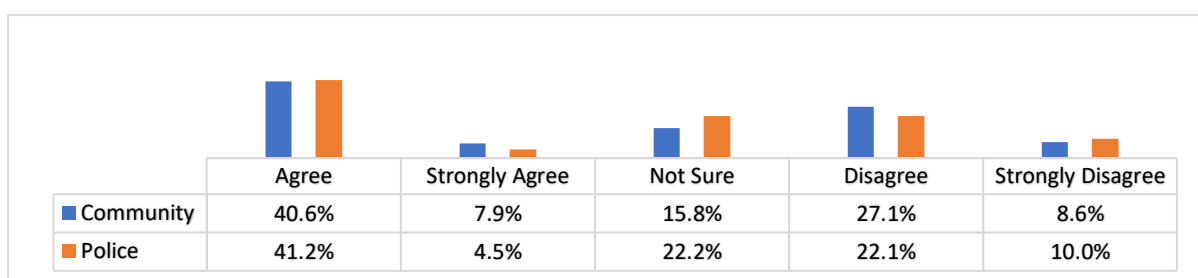


Figure 0.73: Views on communities taking responsibility for feeling safe

Figure 7.73 above shows that 45,7% PPs and 48,5% CPs were of the view that communities were taking responsibility for feeling safe, whether at home or on the street. Exactly 32,1% PPs and 35,7% CPs disagreed.

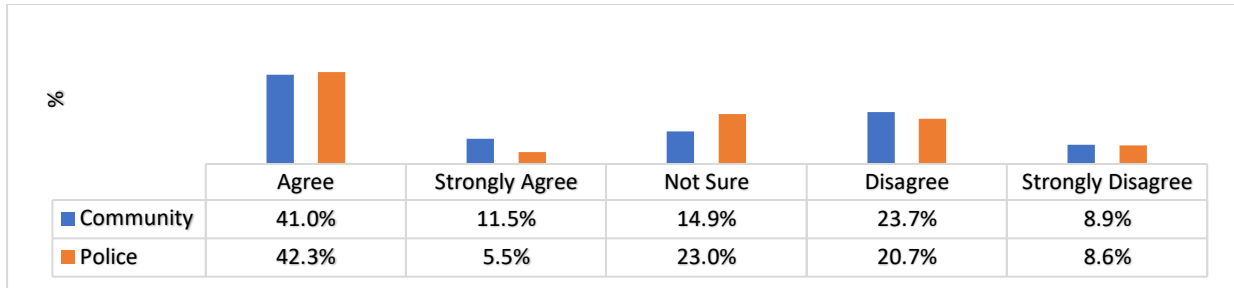


Figure 0.74: Views on community leaders taking responsibility for communities feeling safe

Figure 7.74 above shows that 47,8% PPs and 52,5% CPs were of the view that various community leaders were taking responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street. However, 29,3% PPs and 32,6% CPs disagreed.

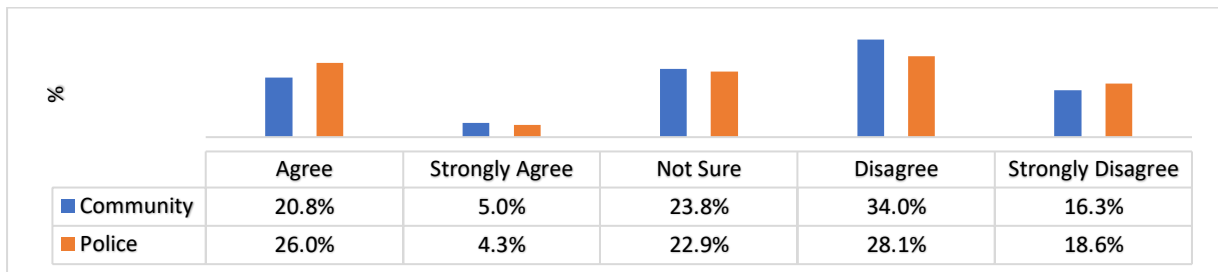


Figure 0.75: Views on political leaders taking responsibility for communities feeling safe

Figure 7.75 above shows that 30,3% PPs and 25,8 CPs were of the view that political leaders were taking responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street but 46,7% PPs and 50,3% CPs disagreed.

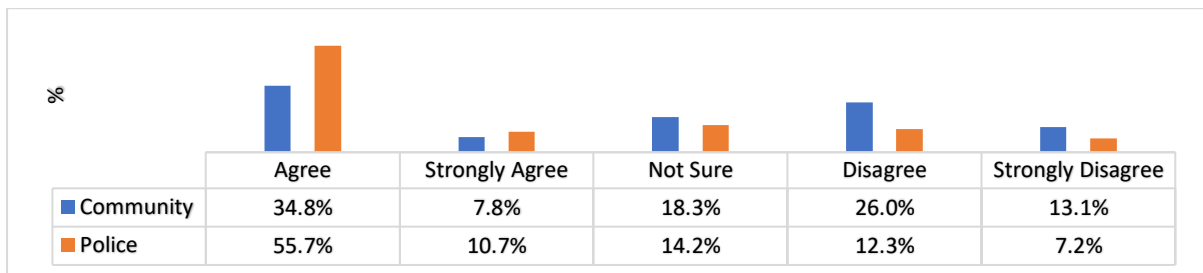


Figure 0.76: Views on police taking responsibility for communities to feel safe

Figure 7.76 shows that 66,4% PPs and 42,6% CPs were of the view that police were taking responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street, although 19,5% PPs and 39,1% CPs disagreed.

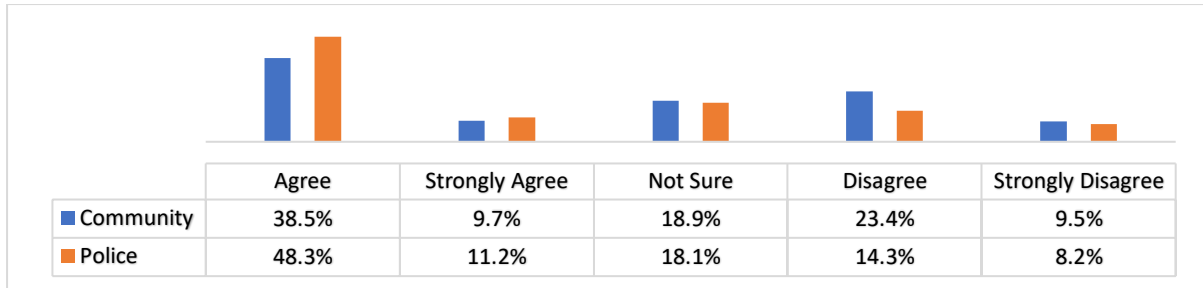


Figure 0.77: Views on CPFs taking responsibility for communities to feel safe

Figure 7.77 above shows that 59,5% PPs and 48,2% CPs were of the view that community policing forums were taking responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street, even though 22,5% PPs and 32,9% CPs disagreed.

7.3.10 Participant views on basic living conditions

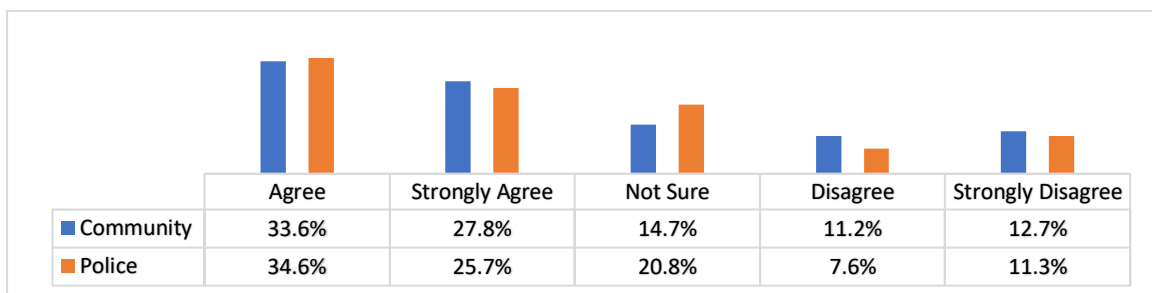


Figure 0.78: Views on high numbers of homes in communities with flushing toilets

Figure 7.78 above presents that 60,3% PPs and 61,4% CPs were of the view that there were high numbers of homes in communities with flushing toilets, yet 18,9% PPs and 23,9% CPs disagreed.

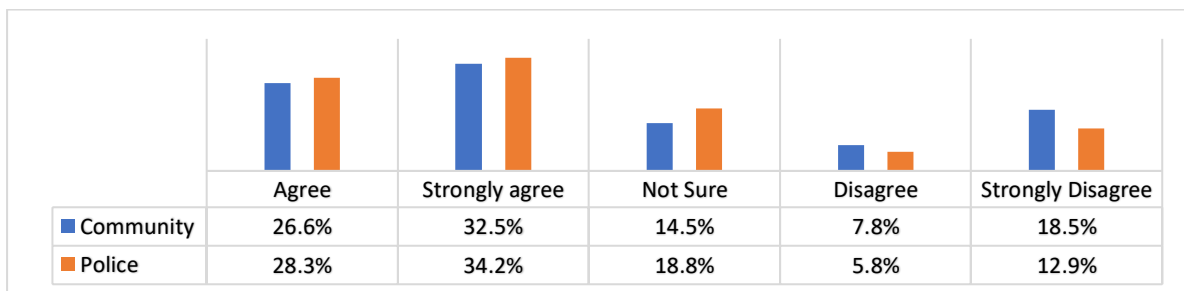


Figure 0.79: Views on there being high numbers of families with adequate housing

Figure 7.79 above shows that 62,5% PPs and 59,1% CPs were of the view that there were a high number of families with adequate housing in communities but 18,7% PPs and 26,3% CPs disagreed.

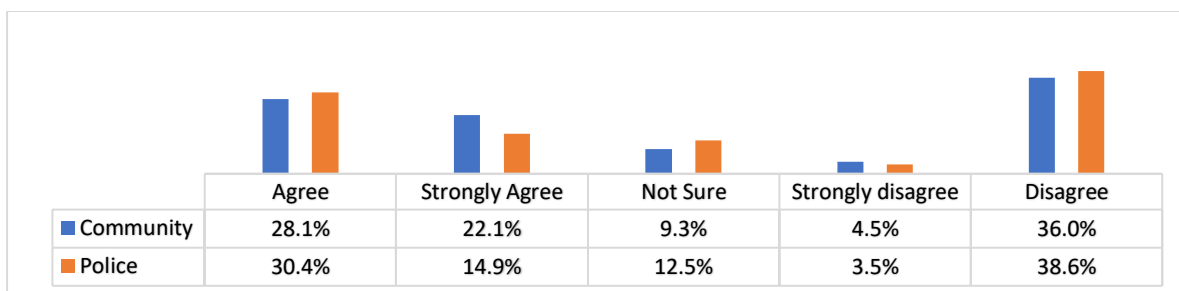


Figure 0.80: Views on there being a high number of good roads for communities

Exactly 45,3% PPs and 50,2% CPs were of the view that there were a high number of good roads in communities, although 44,1% PPs and 40,5% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.80 above).

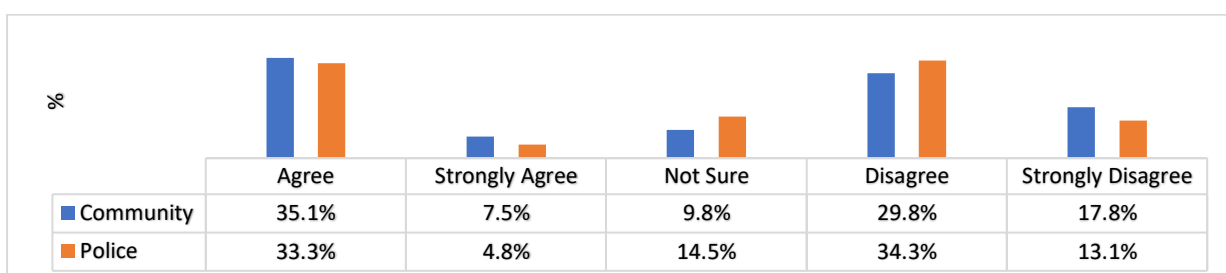


Figure 0.81: Views on there being there are high levels of running water in communities

Figure 7.81 above shows that 38,1% PPs and 42,6% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of running water in communities. However, 47,4% PPs and 47,6% CPs disagreed.

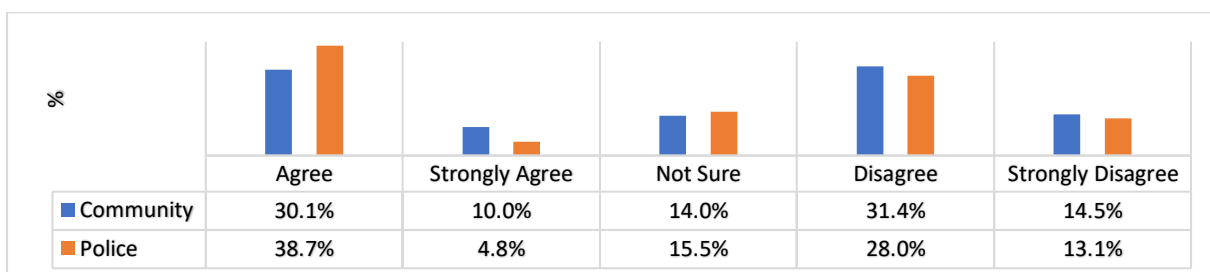


Figure 0.82: Views on there being high levels of electricity supply in communities

Exactly 43,5% PPs and 40,1% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of electricity supply in communities whilst 41,1% PPs and 45,9% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.82 above).

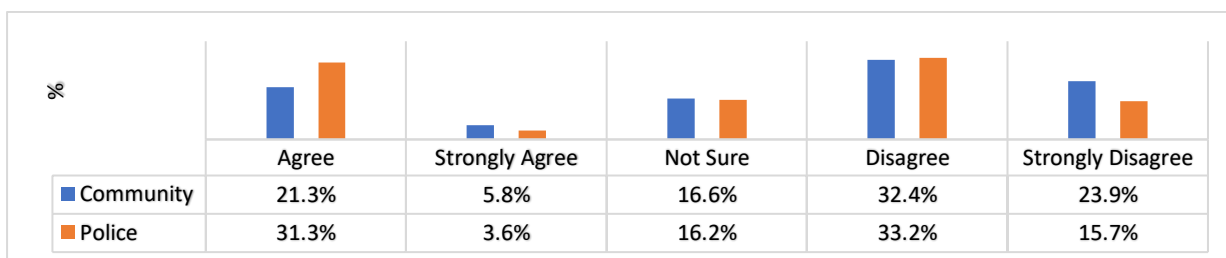


Figure 0.83: Views on whether there was high-level accessibility of recreation facilities

Figure 7.83 shows that 34,9% PPs and 27,1% CPs were of the view that there was high-level accessibility of recreation facilities for communities. However, 48,9% PPs and 56,3% CPs disagreed.

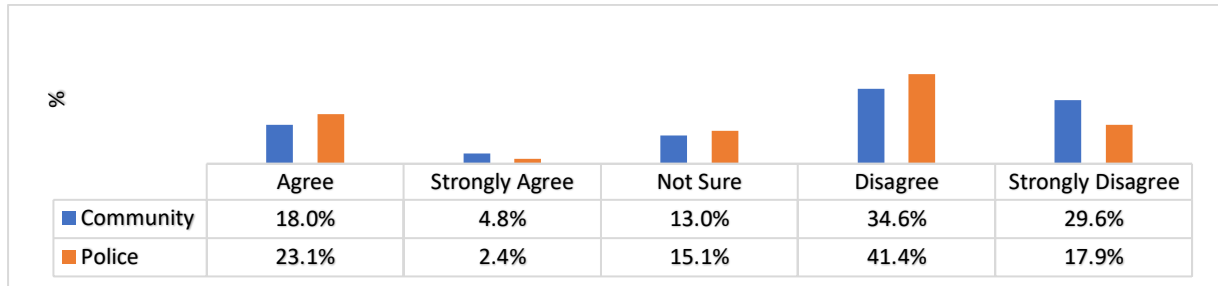


Figure 0.84: Views on whether there was a high level of cleanliness on streets

Precisely 25,5 % PPs and 22,8% of CPs were of the view that there was a high level of cleanliness on streets in communities. However, 59,3% PPs and 64,2% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.84 above).

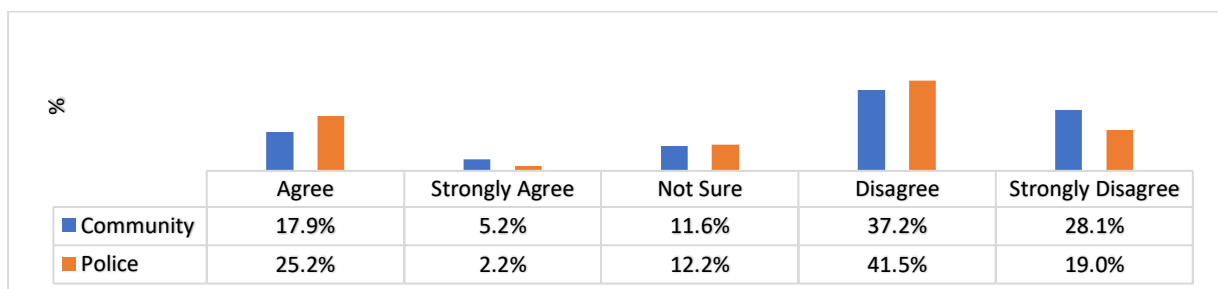


Figure 0.85: Views on whether grass was cut to increase community safety

Figure 7.85 shows that 27,4% PPs and 23,1% CPs were of the view that the grass was always cut to increase community safety, though 60,5% PPs and 65,3% CPs disagreed.

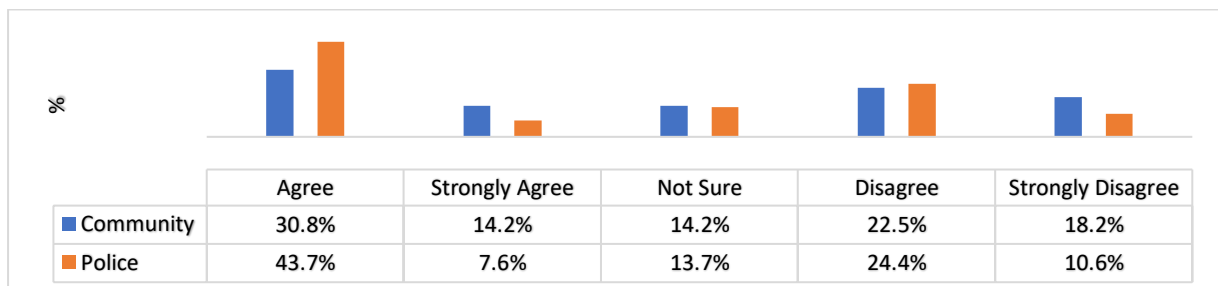


Figure 0.86: Views on whether there was high community presence on the streets/ public places in the evenings

Exactly 51,3% PPs and 45% CPs were of the view that there was high community presence on the streets/ public places in the evenings. However, 35% PPs and 40,7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 8.86 above).

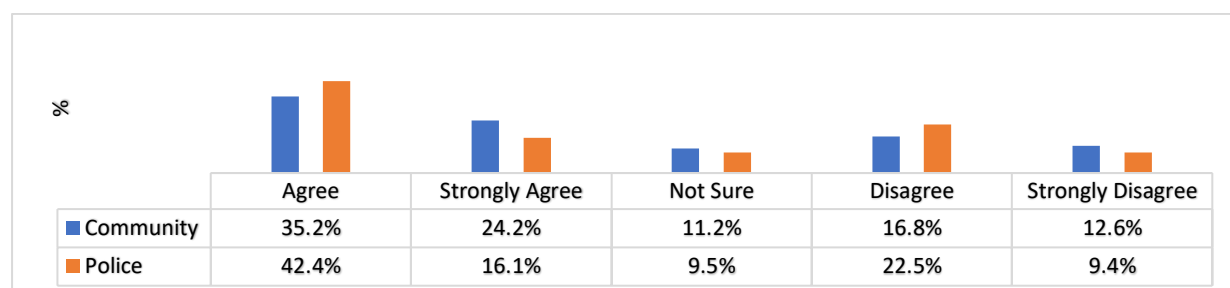


Figure 0.87: Views on whether there was a high incidence of informal settlements

Figure 7.87 shows that 58,5% PPs and 59,4% CPs indicated that there was a high incidence of informal settlements in the communities and yet 31,9% PPs and 29,4% CPs disagreed.

7.3.11 Participant views on social and health conditions

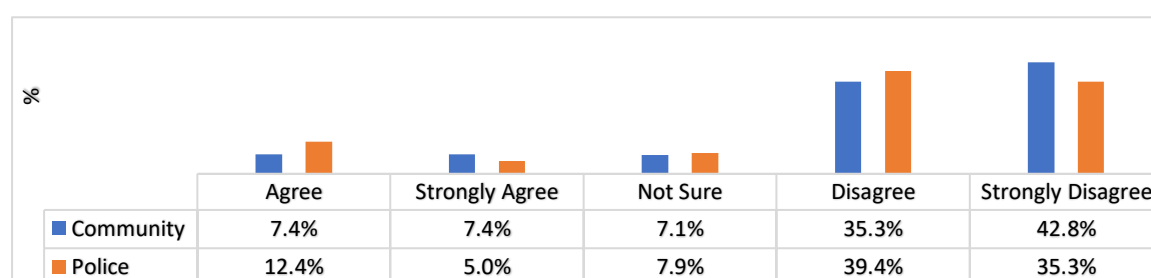


Figure 0.88: Views on whether there was low incidence of alcohol abuse

Figure 7.88 above shows that 17,4% PPs and 14,8% were of the view that there was low incidence of alcohol abuse in communities. On the other hand, 74,4% PPs and 78.1% CPs disagreed.

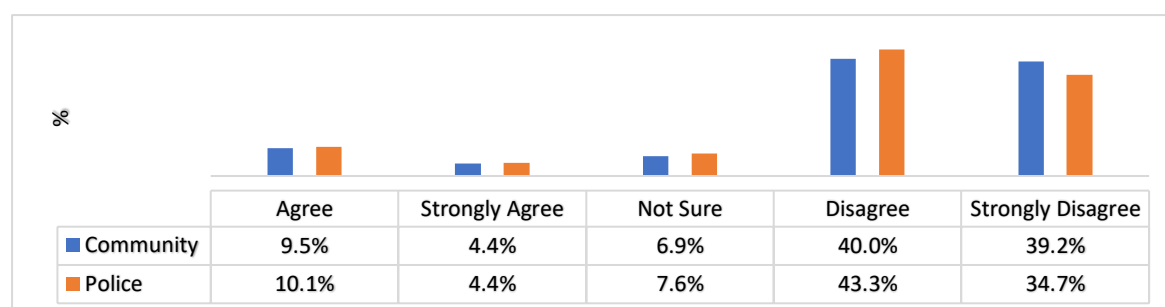


Figure 0.89: Views on whether there were low levels of access to alcohol

Figure 7.89 above shows that 14,5% PPs and 14,9% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of accessibility to alcohol in the communities. Majority of participants (78% PPs and 79,2% CPs) disagreed.

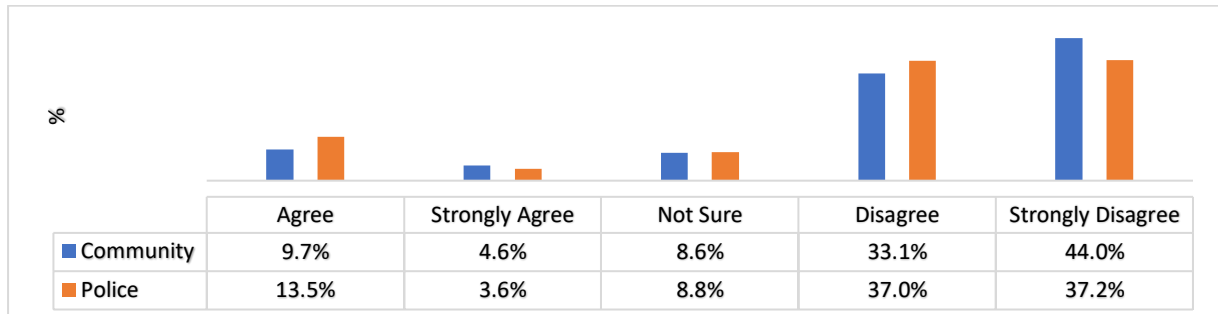


Figure 0.90: Views on whether there were low levels of usage of illegal drugs

Figure 7.90 above shows that 17,1% PPs and 14,3% agreed that drug usage was low. Majority of participants (74,2% PPs and 77,1% CPs) disagreed.

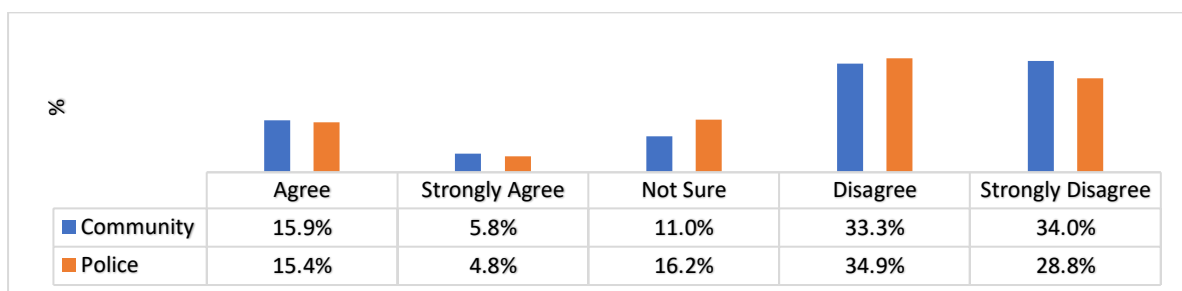


Figure 0.91: Views on whether there were low levels of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings

Figure 7.91 above shows that 20,2% % PPs and 21,7% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings. Majority of participants (63,7% PPs and 67,3 % CPs) disagreed.

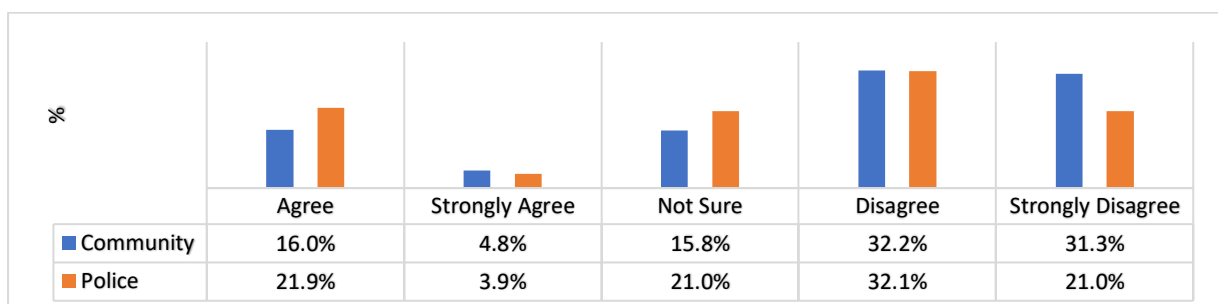


Figure 0.92: Views on incidence of unlawful writing/scribbling/drawings on public walls

Figure 7.92 above indicates that 25,8% PPs and 20,8% CPs were of the view that there was a low incidence of unlawful writing/ scribbling/ drawings on public walls. Majority of participants (53,1% PPs and 63,5% CPs) disagreed.

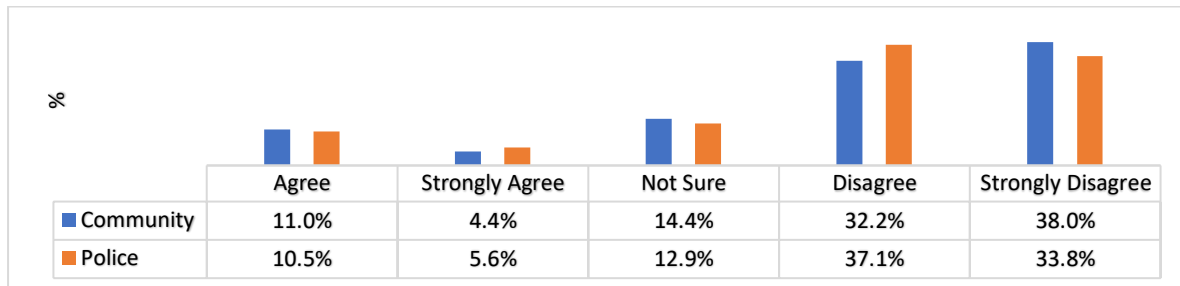


Figure 0.93: Views on incidence of usage of illegal firearms in communities

Figure 7.93 above shows that 16,1% PPs and 15,4% CPs were of the view that there was a low incidence of usage illegal firearms in communities. Contrarily 70,9 % PPs and % 70,2% CPs disagreed.

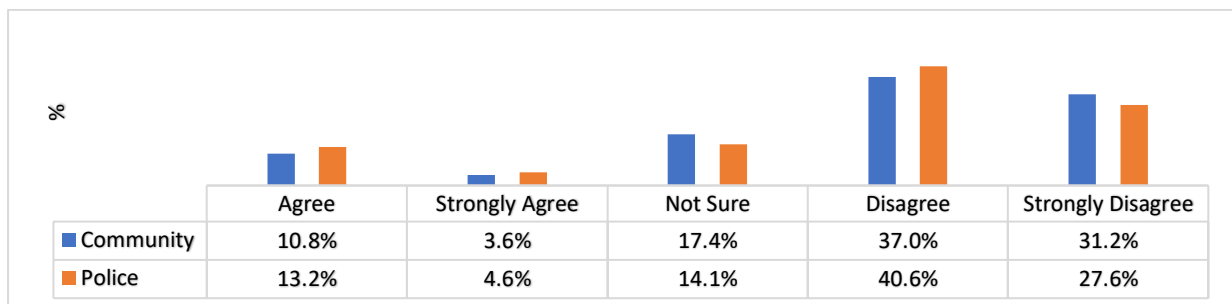


Figure 0.94: Views on incidence of crime victims where firearms were used

Figure 7.94 above indicates that 17,8 % PPs and 14,4% CPs were of the view that a low number of people were crime victims where firearms were used. Equally so, 68,2 % PPs and 68,2% CPs disagreed.

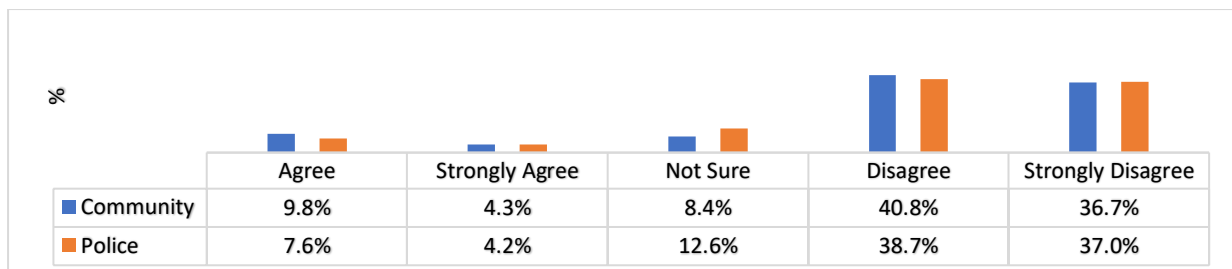


Figure 0.95: Views on incidence of teenage pregnancy in communities

Figure 7.95 above shows that 11,8% PPs and 14,1% CPs were of the view that there was a low incidence of teenage pregnancy in communities. However, in majority, 75,7% PPs and 77,5% CPs disagreed.

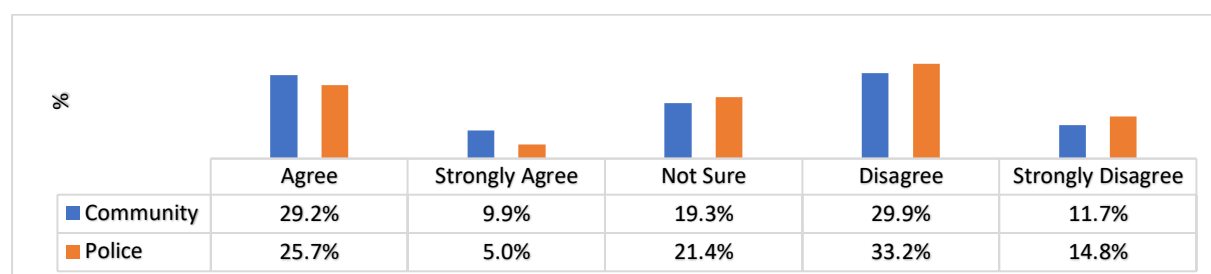


Figure 0.96: Views on whether there were many role models in communities

Figure 7.96 above reveals that 30,7% PPs and 39,1% CPs were of the view that there were many parents who were role models in communities and yet 48% PPs and 41,6% CPs disagreed.

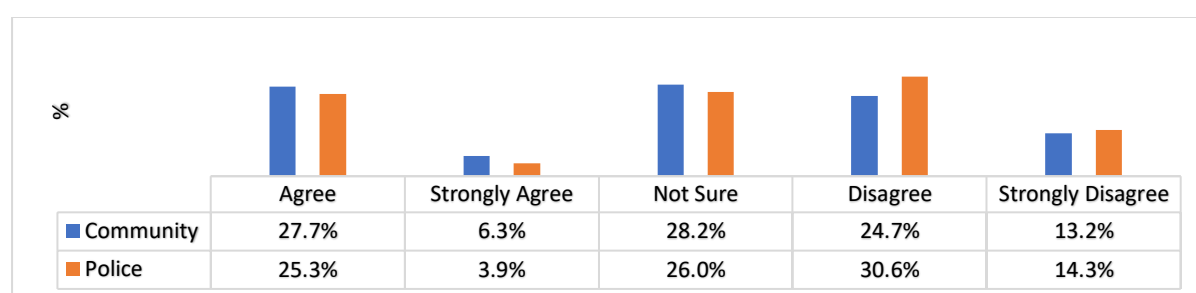


Figure 0.97: Views on whether there were few families headed by children or youth

Figure 7.97 above shows that 29,2% PPs and 34% CPs were of the view that few families were headed by children or youth but 44,9 % PPs and 37,9% CPs disagreed.

7.3.12 Participant views on community programmes

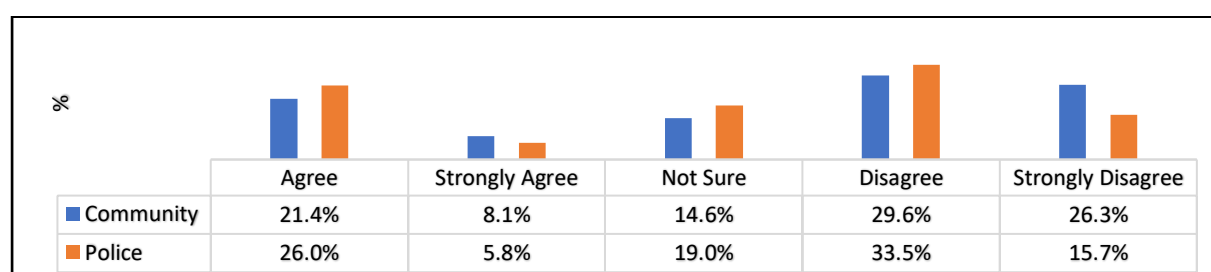


Figure 0.98: Views on incidence of programmes to address substance/drugs abuse

According to Figure 7.98 above, 31,8 % PPs and 29,5% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of programmes to address substance/drugs abuse in communities. However, 49,2% PPs and 55,9% CPs disagreed.

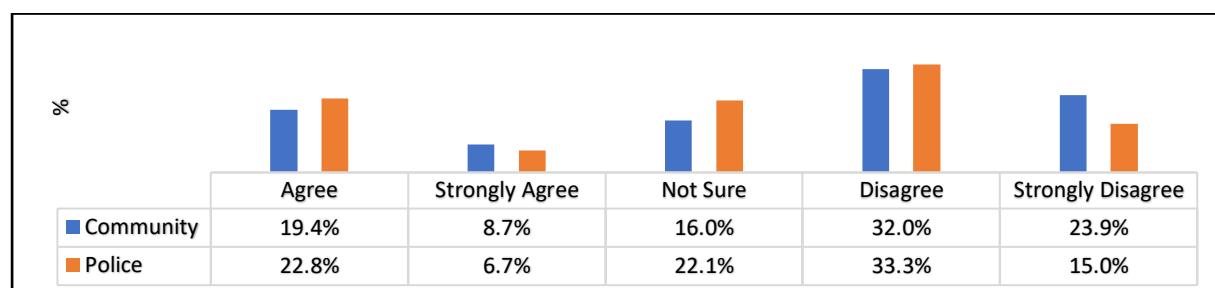


Figure 0.99: Views on whether there were high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for childhood development in communities

Figure 7.99 above shows that 29,5% PPs and 28,1% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for childhood development in communities, although 48,3% PPs and 55,9% CPs disagreed.

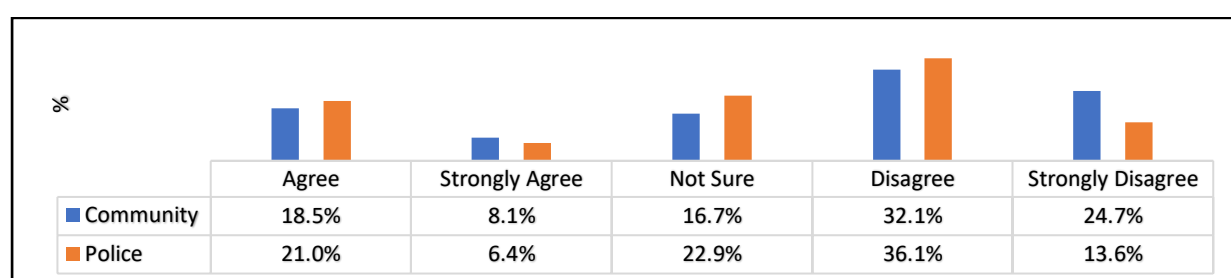


Figure 0.100: Views on whether there were high levels of programmes provided by social and health services to support responsible parenting in communities

Figure 7.100 above indicates that 27,4% PPs and 26,6% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of programmes provided by social and health services to support responsible parenting in communities, although 49,7% PPs and 56,8% CPs disagreed.

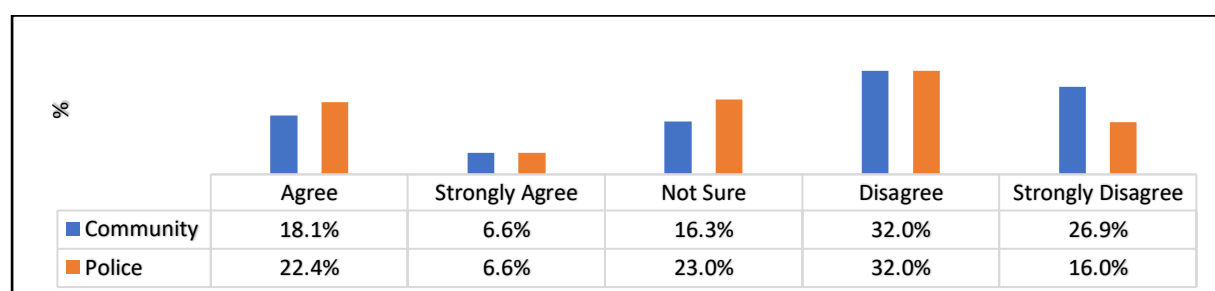


Figure 0.101: Views on incidence of programmes provided by social and health services

According to Figure 7.101 above, 29% PPs and 24,7% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for healthcare in communities and yet 48% PPs and 58,9% CPs disagreed.

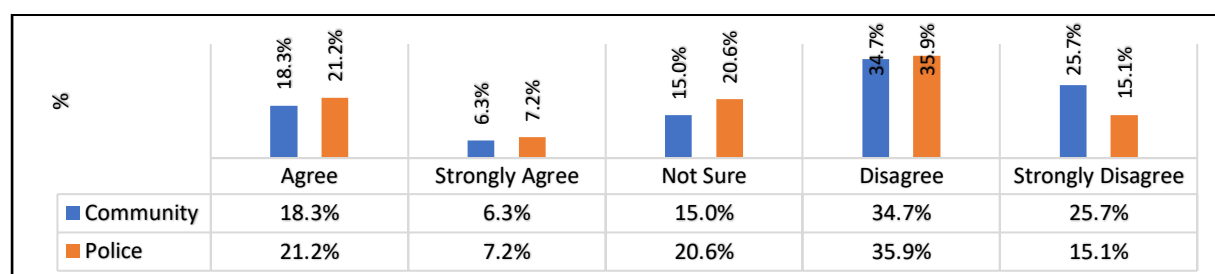


Figure 0.102: Distribution of views on incidence of community activities involving youth

Although Figure 7.102 above indicates that 28,4% PPs and 24,6% CPs were of the view that there was a high of community activities involving the youth, 51% PPs and 60,4% CPs disagreed.

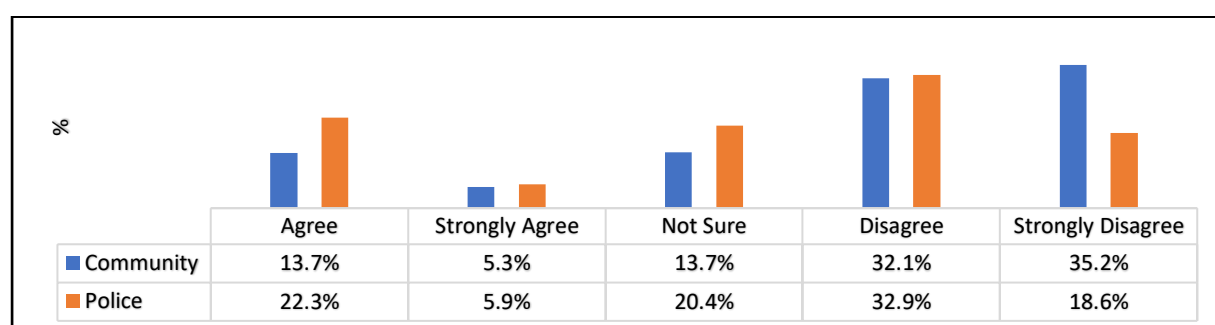


Figure 0.103: Views on incidence of programmes to help youth committing criminal

Figure 7.103 above shows that 28,2% PPs and 19% CPs were of the view that there was a high incidence of programmes to help young persons (under 18) who had habits of committing criminal acts or offences in communities. However, 51,5% PPs and 67,3% CPs disagreed.

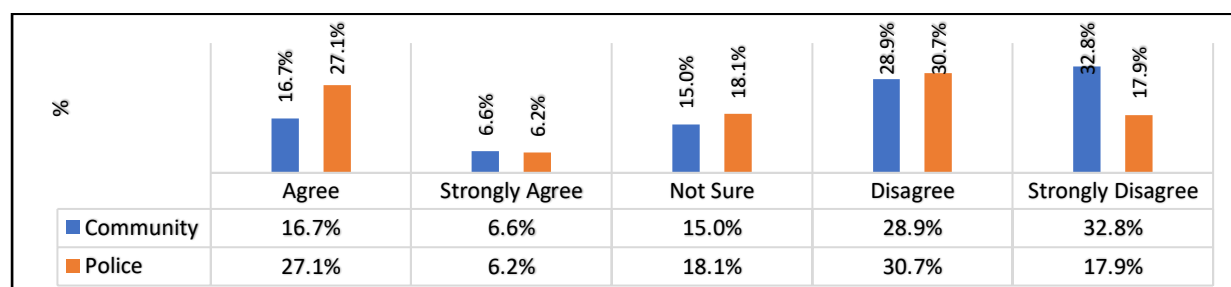


Figure 0.104: Distribution of views incidence of programmes for crime prevention within

Although Figure 7.104 above shows that 33,3% PPs and 23,3% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of programmes provided for crime prevention within communities, 48,6% PPs and 60,7% CPs disagreed.

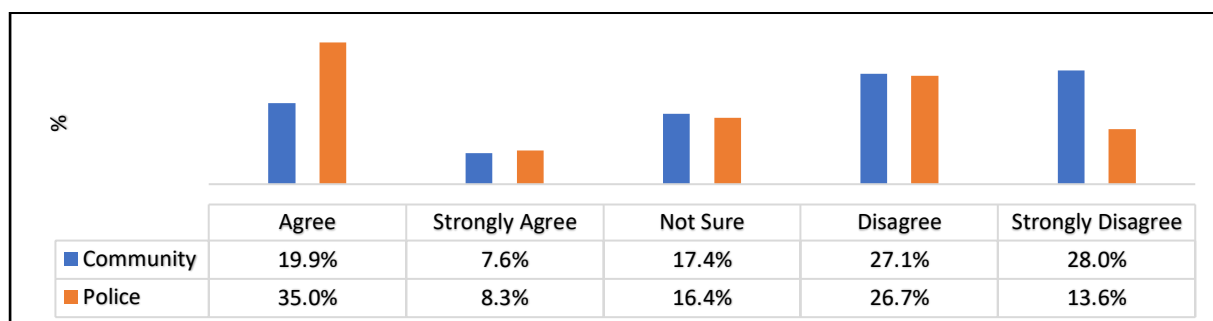


Figure 0.105: Distribution of views on incidence levels of awareness of police services

Figure 7.105 above shows that 43,3% PPs and 27,5% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of awareness of service police provided and yet 40,3 % PPs and 55,1% CPs disagreed.

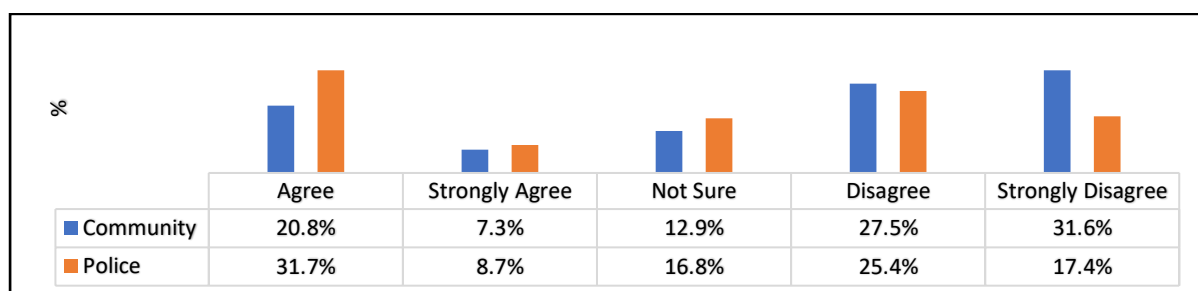


Figure 0.106: Views on programmes provided on gender-based violence

Even though 40,4 % PPs and 28,1% CPs were of the view that there were programmes provided on gender-based violence, 42,8% PPs and 59,1 % CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.106 above).

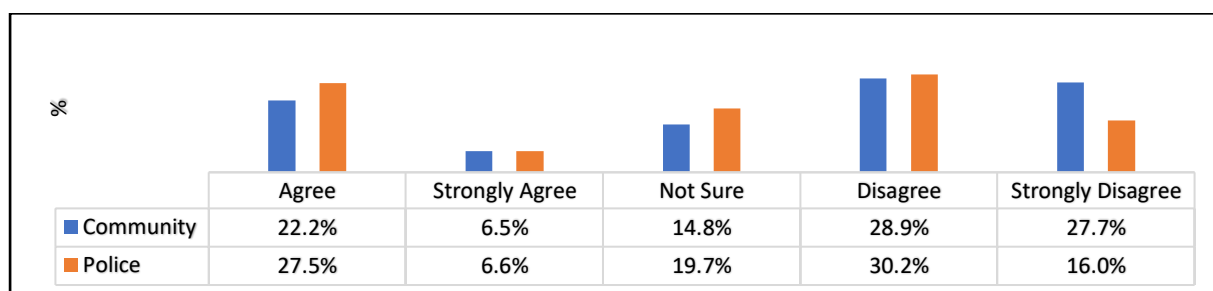


Figure 0.107: Views on programmes on sports, arts, culture and recreation

Figure 7.107 shows that 34,1% PPs and 28,7% CPs were of the view that there were programmes provided on sports, arts, culture and recreation. On the other hand, 46,2% PPs and 56,6% CPs disagreed.

7.3.13 Participant views on economic conditions

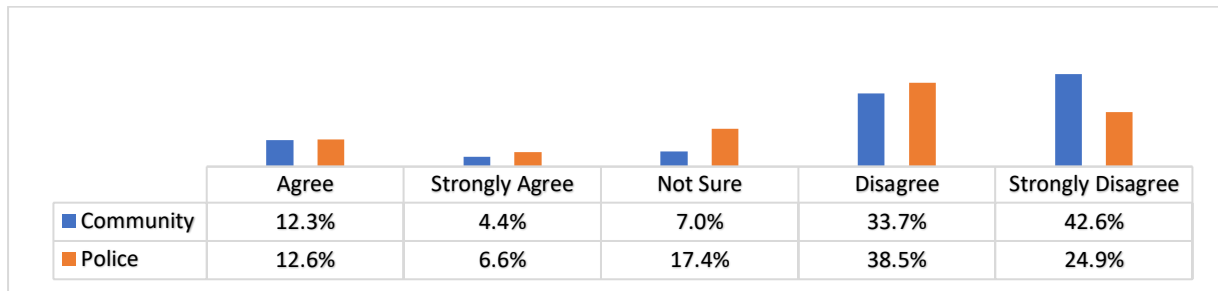


Figure 0.108: Views on incidence of people losing jobs

While 19,2 % PPs and 16,7% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of people losing jobs, 63,4% PPs and 76,3% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.108 above).

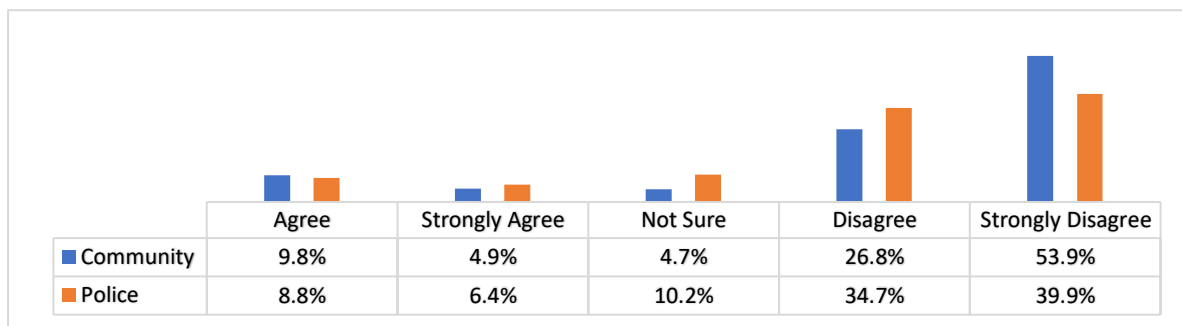


Figure 0.109: Views on levels of unemployment

Figure 7.109 shows that 15,2% PPs and 14,7% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of unemployment. However, majority of participants (74,6% PPs and 80,7% CPs) disagreed.

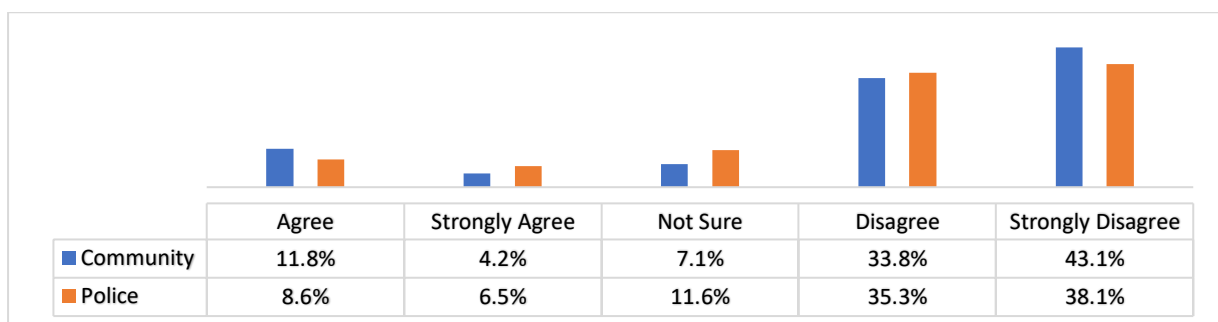


Figure 0.110: Views on food-price decrease making it affordable

Although 15,1% PPs and 16% CPs were of the view that there was a high level of food-price decrease which made food affordable, majority of participants (73,4% PPs and 76,9% CPs) disagreed (see Figure 7.110 above).

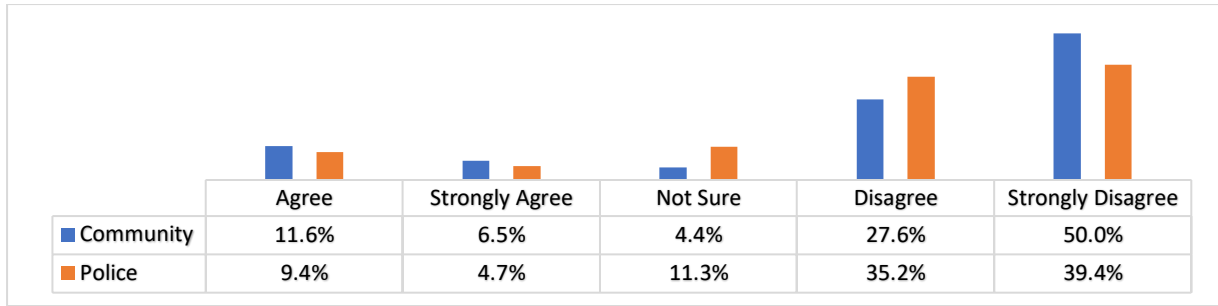


Figure 0.111: Views on levels of poverty in communities

Despite the fact that Figure 7.111 shows that 15,1% PPs and 17,1% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of poverty in communities, 74,6% PPs and 77,6% CPs disagreed.

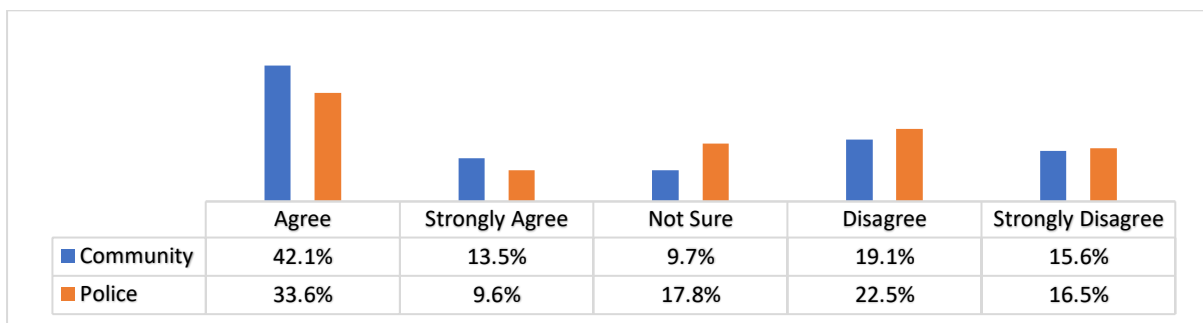


Figure 0.112: Views on incidence of people opening small businesses

According to Figure 7.112 above, 43,2% PPs and 55,6% CPs were of the view that there were a high number of people opening small businesses. However, 39% PPs and 34,7% CPs disagreed.

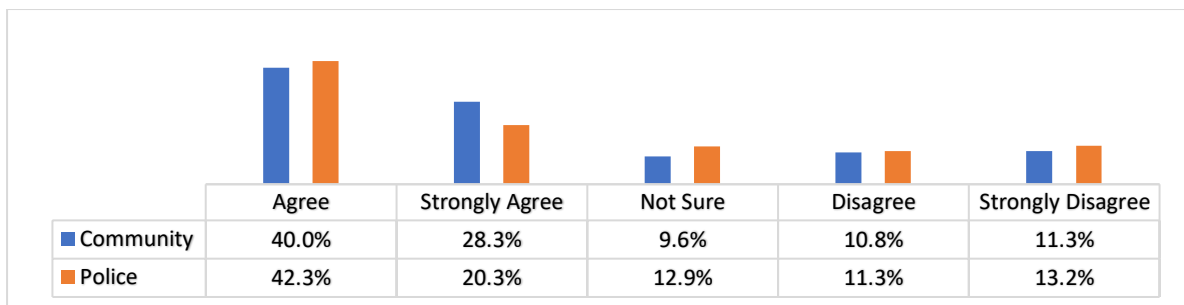


Figure 0.113: Views on whether there were high levels of people loitering in the streets without purpose

Figure 7.113 above shows that 62,6% PPs and 68,3% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of people loitering in the streets without purpose but 24,5% PPs and 22,1% CPs disagreed.

7.3.14 Participant views on social diversity

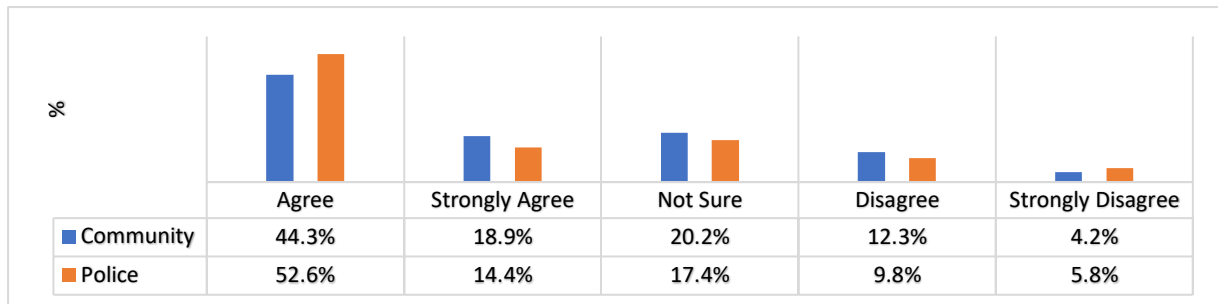


Figure 0.114: Views on individuals working hard to ensure community safety

Even though 67% PPs and 63,2% CPs were of the view that there were individuals who were working hard to ensure that the community was safe, 15,6% PPs and 16,5% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.114).

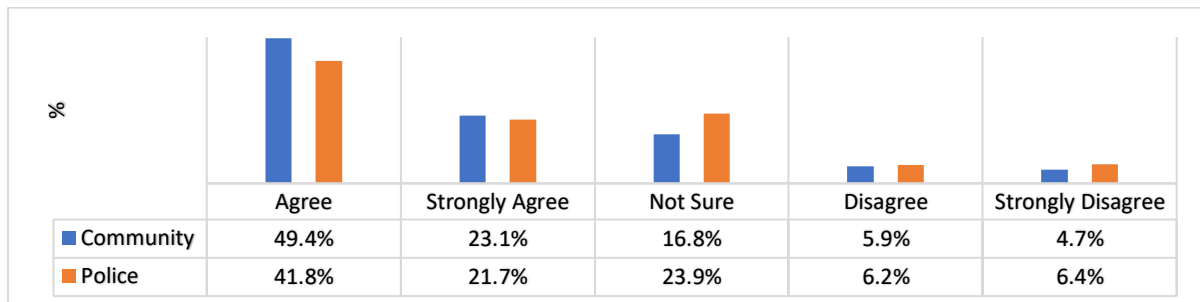


Figure 0.115: Views on whether there were known individuals who were gangsters

Figure 7.115 above shows that 63,5 % PPs and 72,5% CPs were of the view that there were known individuals who were gangsters and yet 12,6% PPs and 10,6% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.115 above).

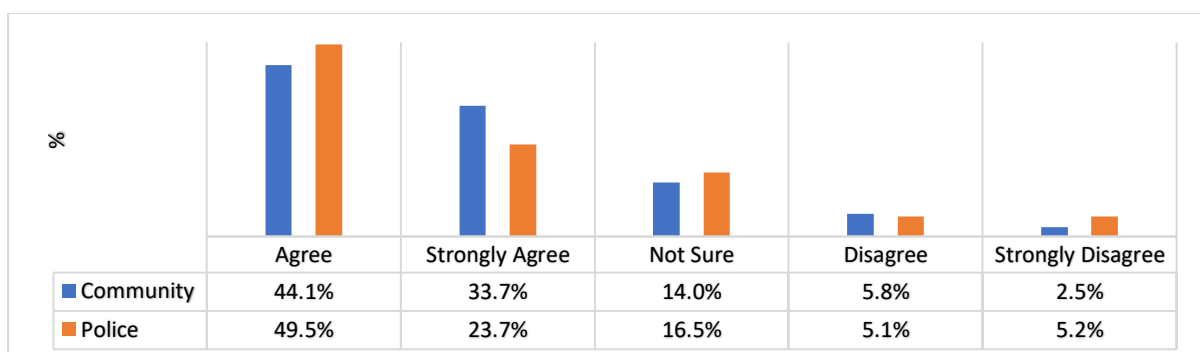


Figure 0.116: Views on whether there were individuals known to be drug sellers

Despite the fact that 73,2% PPs and 77,8% CPs were of the view that there were individuals who were known to be drug sellers in the community, 10,3% PPs and 8,3% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.116 above).

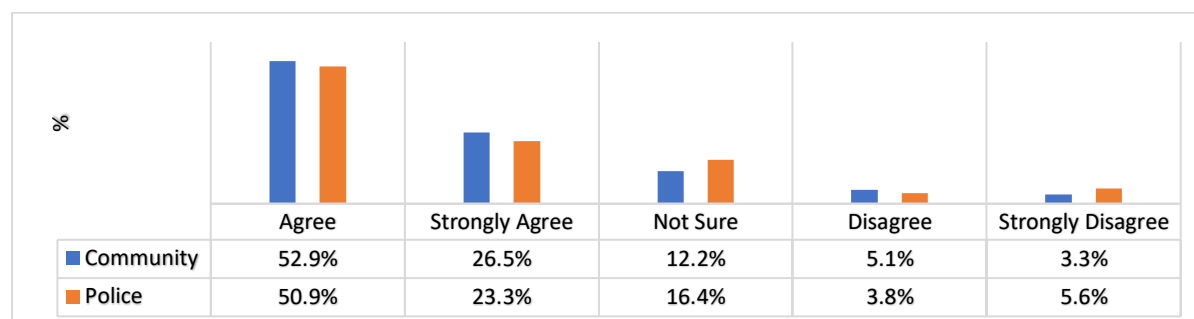


Figure 0.117: Views on children who were school drop-outs

Figure 7.117 shows that 74,2% PPs and 79,4% CPs were of the view that there were known children who were school drop-outs but 9,4% PPs and 8,4% CPs disagreed.

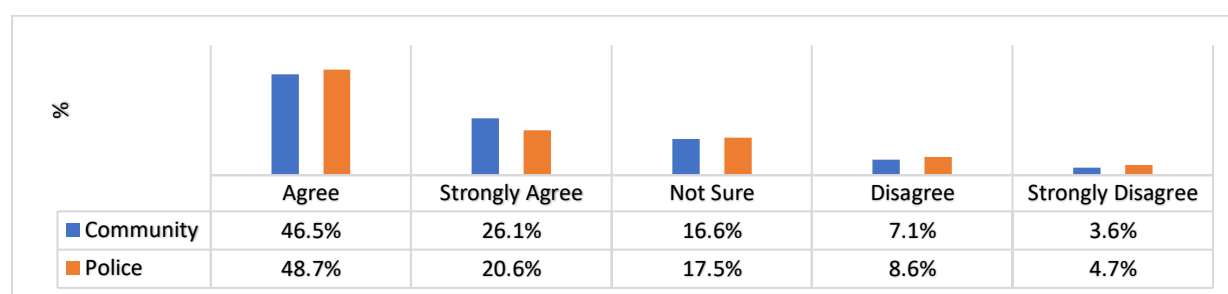


Figure 0.118: Views on w homeless/street children in the community

Even though 69,3% PPs and 72,6% CPs were of the view that there were known homeless/street children in the community, 13,3% PPs and 10,7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.118 above).

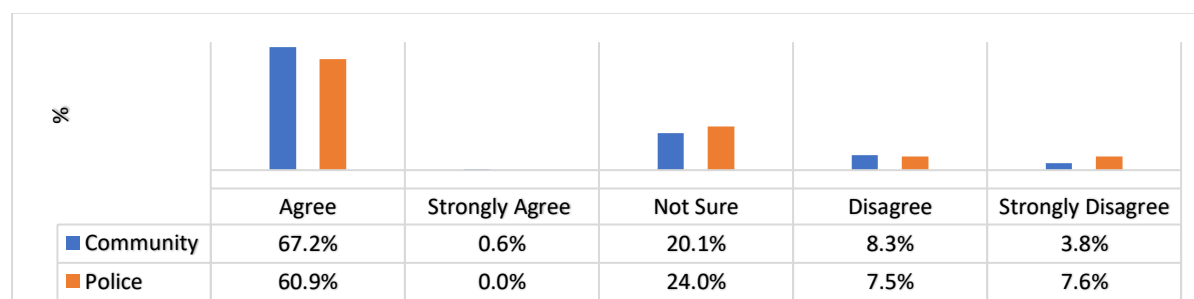


Figure 0.119: Views on known immigrants in the community

Figure 7.119 above shows that 60,9% PPs and 67,8% CPs were of the view that there were known immigrants in the community. On the other hand, 15,1% PPs and 12,1% CPs disagreed.

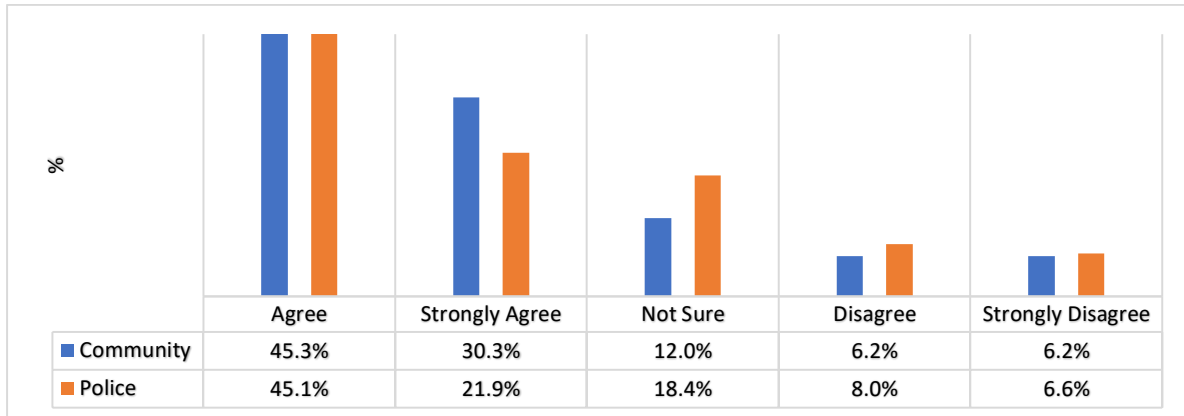


Figure 0.120: Views on taverns and shebeens open 24 hours

Despite the fact that 67% PPs and 75,6% CPs were of the view that there were known taverns and shebeens that were open 24 hours, 14,6% PPs and 12,4% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.120 above).

7.3.15 Participant views on juvenile delinquency

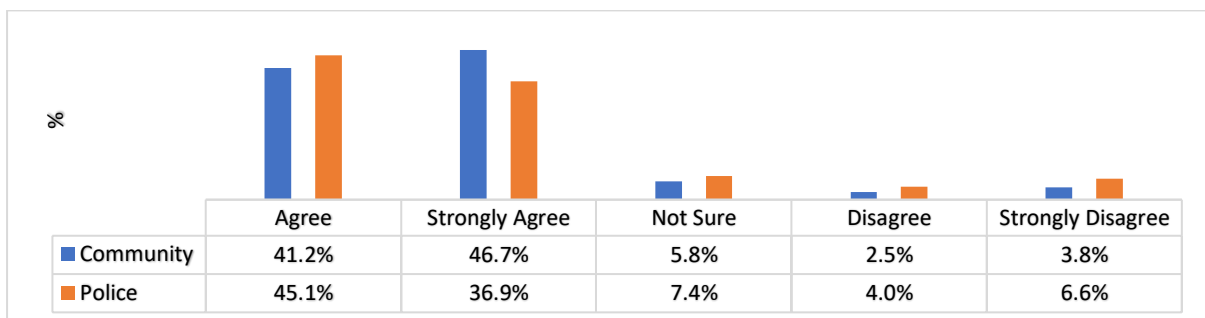


Figure 0.121: Views on levels of young person's drinking alcohol in the community

Figure 7.121 above shows that majority of participants (82% PPs and 87,9 % CPs) were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) drinking alcohol in the community. Far lesser participants (10,6% PPs and 6,3% CPs) disagreed.

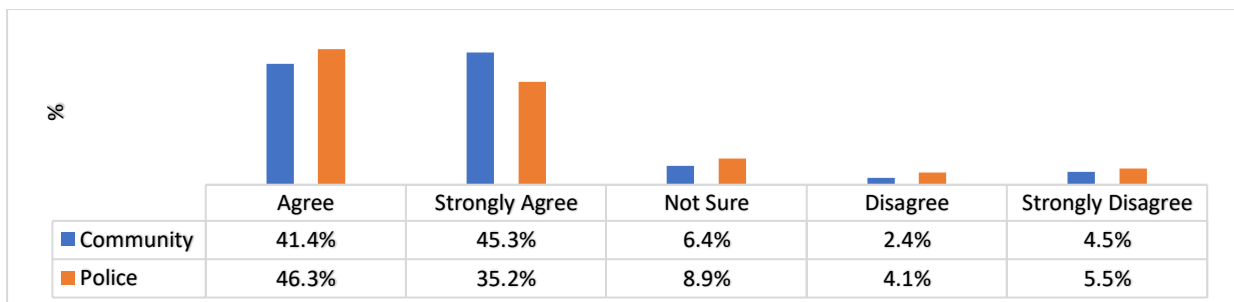


Figure 0.122: Views on young persons (under 18) involved in petty crimes

Overwhelming majority of participants (81,5% PPs and 86,7% CPs) were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) involved in petty crimes, such as stealing, vandalism and bullying. Minority of participants (9,6% PPs and 6,9% CPs) disagreed (see Figure 7.122 above).

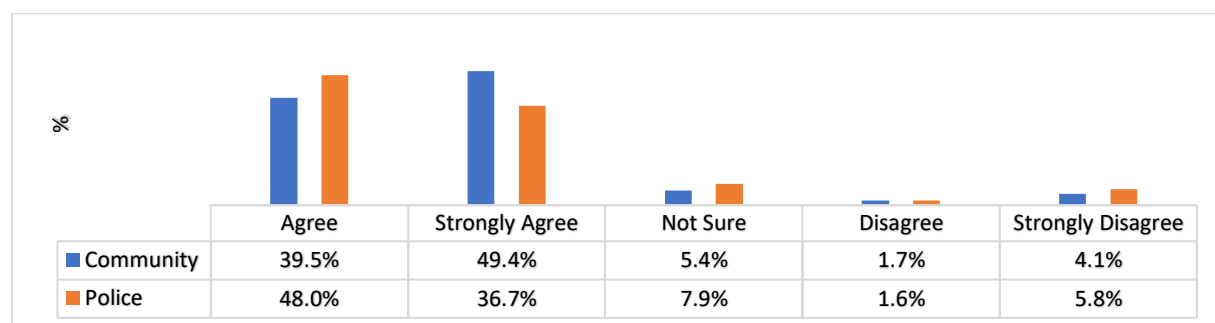


Figure 0.123: Views on incidence of young persons (under 18) in the community smoking

Figure 7.123 above shows that majority of participants (84,7% PPs and 88,9% CPs) were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) smoking in the community. Far lesser participants (7,4% PPs and 5,8 % CPs) disagreed.

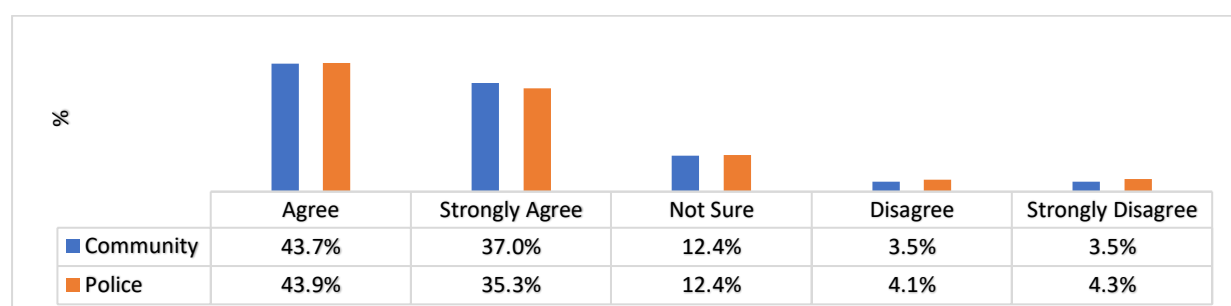


Figure 0.124: Views levels of young person's absents themselves from school

Despite the fact that 79,2% PPs and 80,7% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community who absented themselves from school, 8,4% PPs and 7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.124 above).

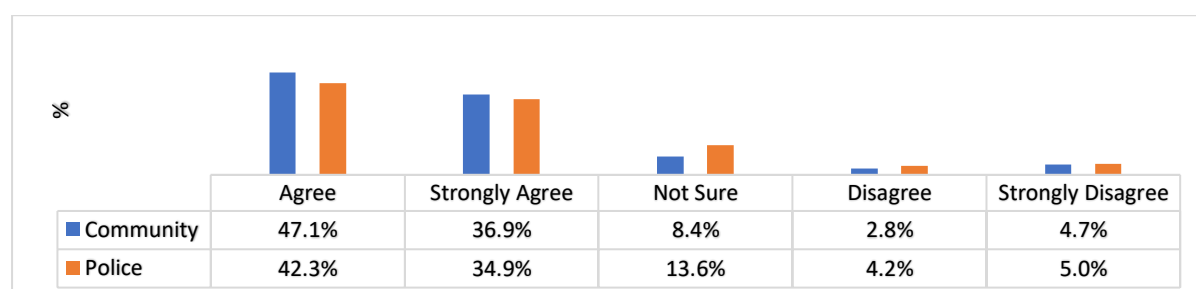


Figure 0.125: Views on levels of young person's bullying and engaging in fighting

Figure 7.125 above shows that 77,2% PPs and 84% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) who were bullying and engaging in fighting in the community. However, 9,2% PPs and 7,5% CPs disagreed.

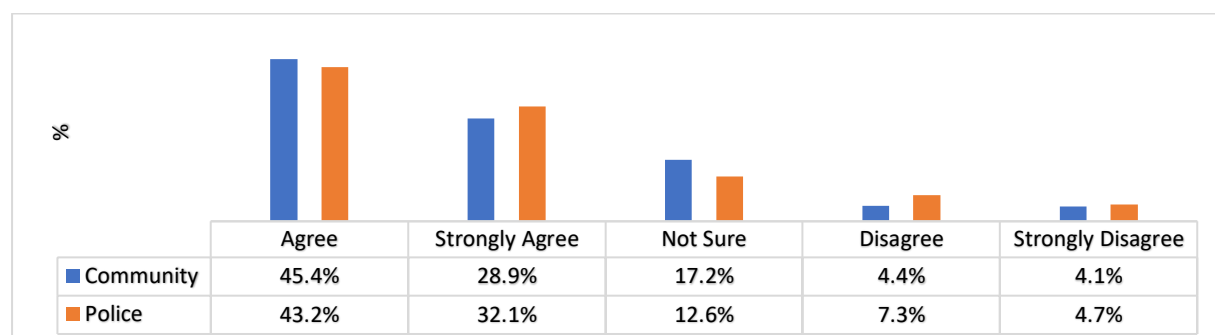


Figure 0.126: Views on of young persons (under 18) involved in serious crime

Although 75,3% PPs and 74,3% CPs were of the view that there were high levels of young persons (under 18) involved in serious crime, 12% PPs and 8,5% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.126 above).

7.3.16 Participant views on CJS

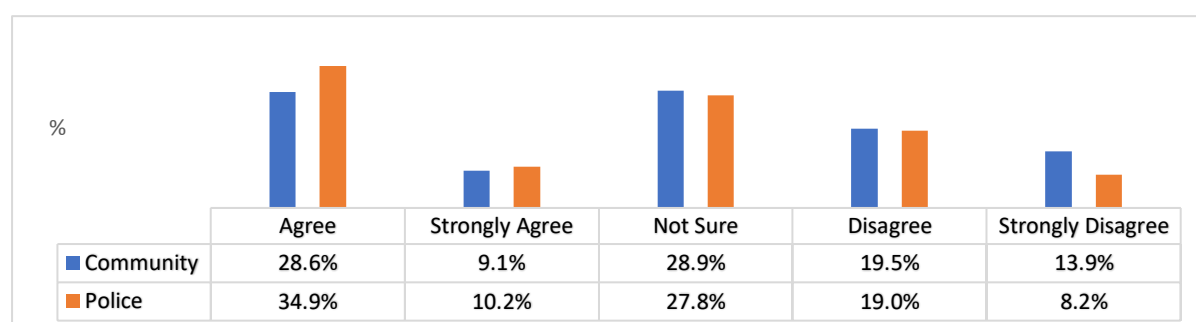


Figure 0.127: Views on whether police were not friends with criminals

Figure 7.127 shows that 45,1% PPs and 37,7% CPs were of the view that police were not friends with criminals but 27,2% PPs and 33,4% CPs disagreed.

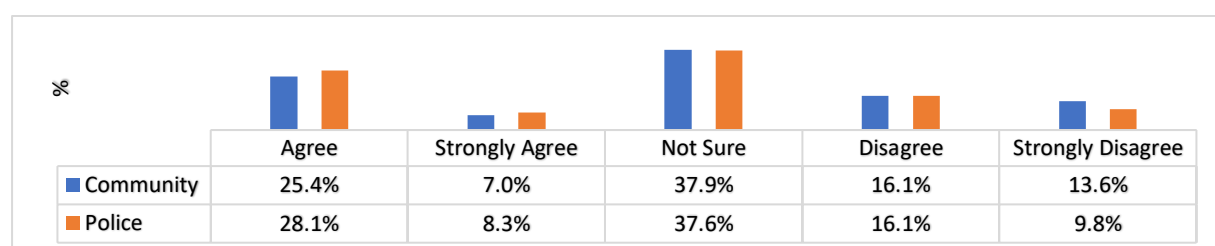


Figure 0.128: Views on whether prosecutors were not friends with criminals

Although 36,4% PPs and 32,4% CPs were of the view that prosecutors were not friends with criminals, 25,9% PPs and 29,7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.128 above).

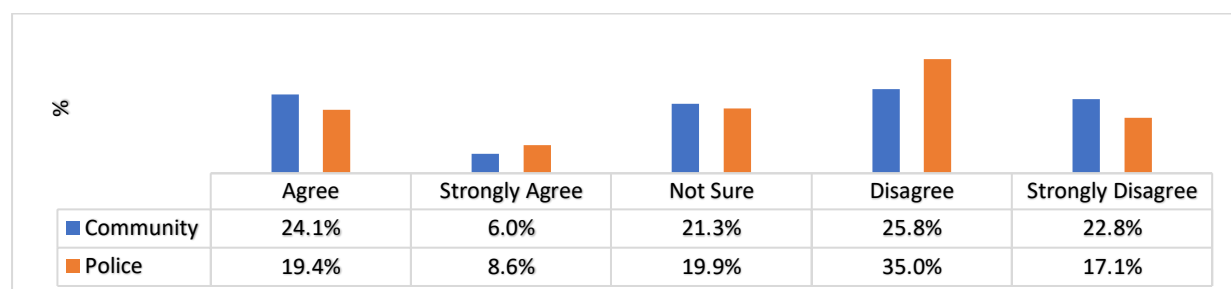


Figure 0.129: Views on whether criminals were hardly released on bail

Figure 7.129 above shows that 28% PPs and 30,1 % CPs were of the view that criminals were hardly released on bail and yet 52,1% PPs and 48,6% CPs disagreed.

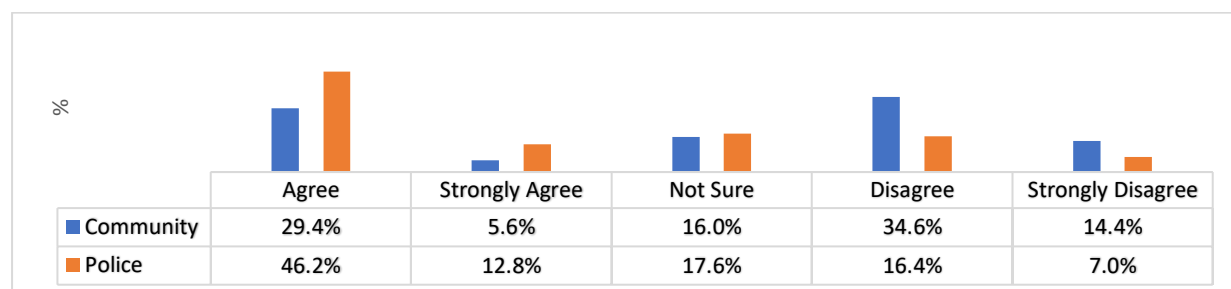


Figure 0.130: Views on whether suspected criminals were often arrested

Although Figure 7.130 above indicates that 59% PPs and 35% CPs were of the view that suspected criminals were often arrested, 23,4% PPs and 49% CPs disagreed.

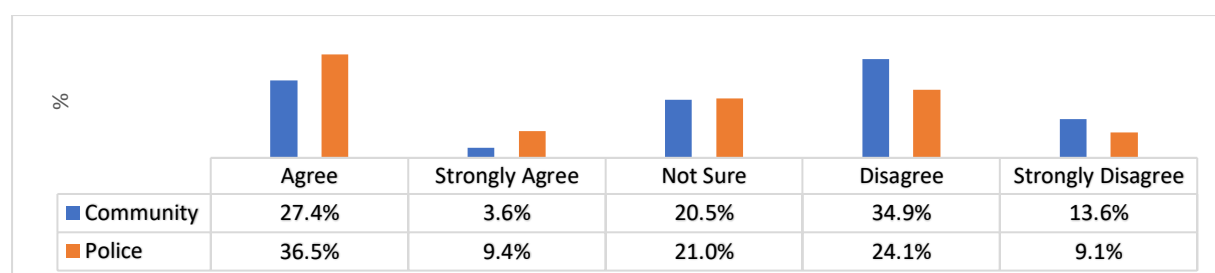


Figure 0.131: Views on whether suspected criminals were often prosecuted

Figure 7.131 above shows that 45,9% PPs and 31% CPs were of the view that suspected criminals were often prosecuted. However, 33,2% PPs and 48,5% CPs disagreed.

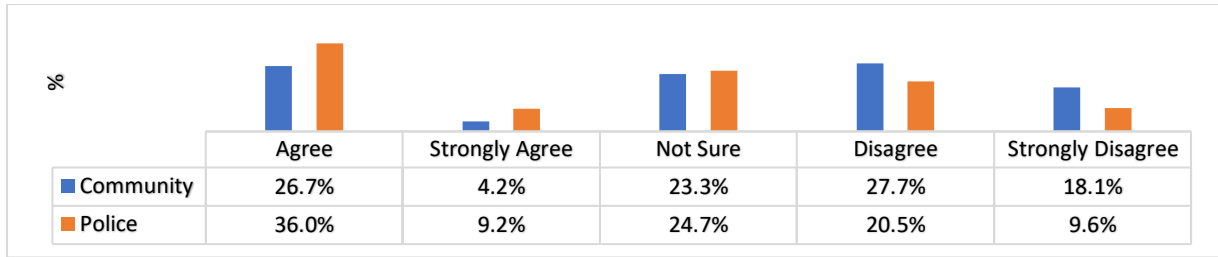


Figure 0.132: Views on whether prosecuted criminals were often convicted

Even though 45,2% PPs and 30,9% CPs were of the view that prosecuted criminals were often convicted, 30,1 % PPs and 45,8% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.132 above).

7.3.17 Participant views on trust and confidence

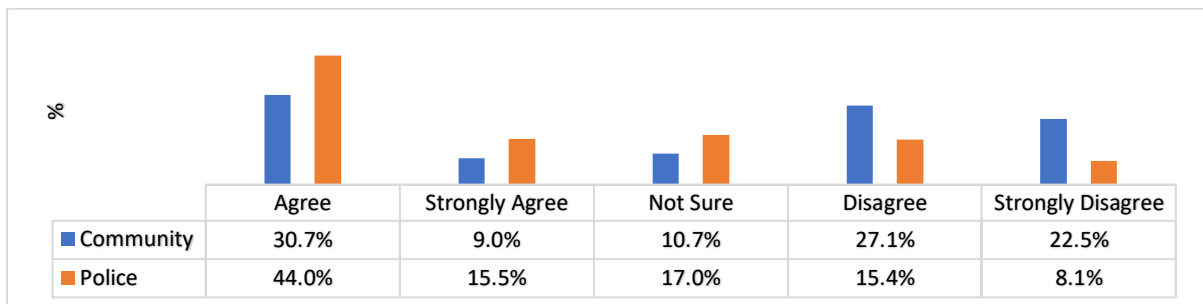


Figure 0.133: Views on whether there was high visibility of police at risk

Figure 7.133 shows that 59,5% PPs and 39,7% CPs were of the view that there was high visibility of police at risk areas in communities. Contrarily, 23,5% PPs and 49,6% CPs disagreed.

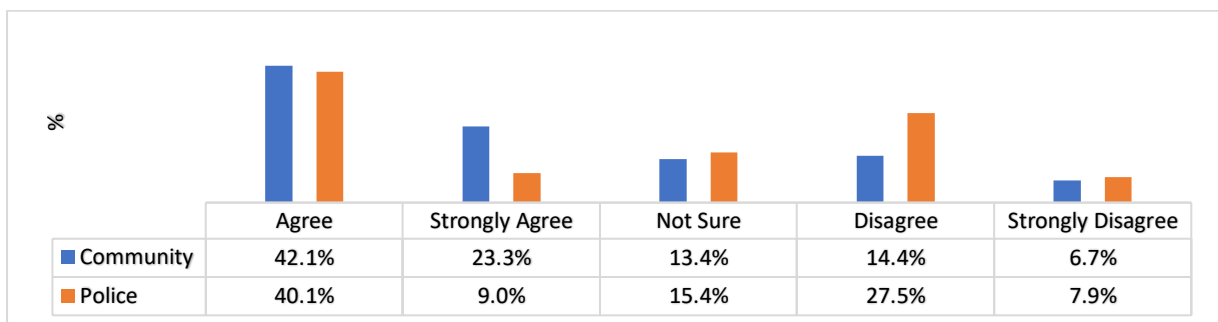


Figure 0.134: views on whether the community was reporting criminals to the police

While 49,1% PPs and 65,4% CPs were of the view that the community was reporting criminals to the police, 35,4% PPs and 21,1% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.134 above).

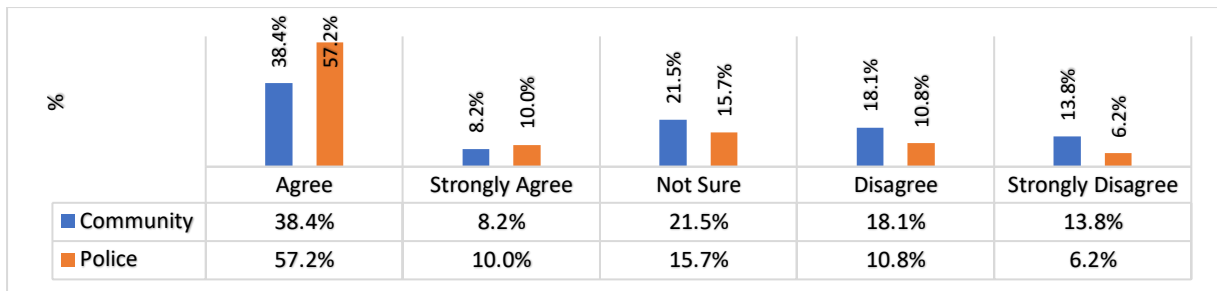


Figure 0.135: Views on police following information on criminal activities

Figure 7.135 above shows that 67,2% PPs and 46,4% CPs were of the view that police followed the information but 17 % PPs and 31,9% CPs disagreed.

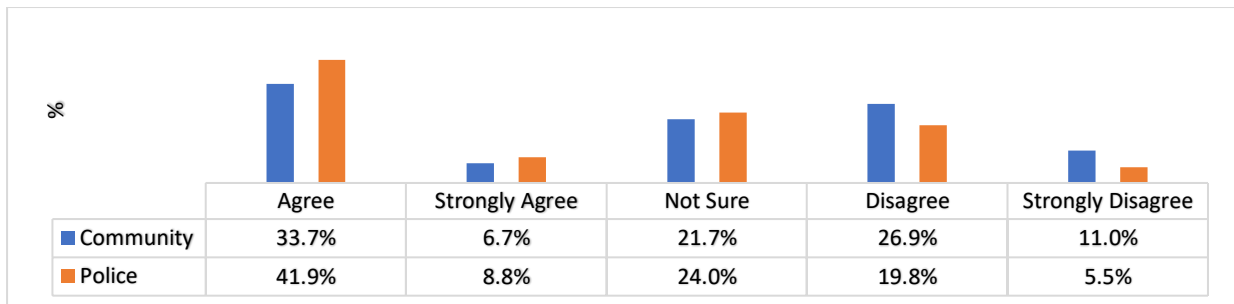


Figure 0.136: Views on level of understanding of community safety

Even though 50,7% PPs and 40,4% CPs were of the view that there was a high level of understanding of community safety amongst residents, 25,3% PPs and 37,9% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.136 above).

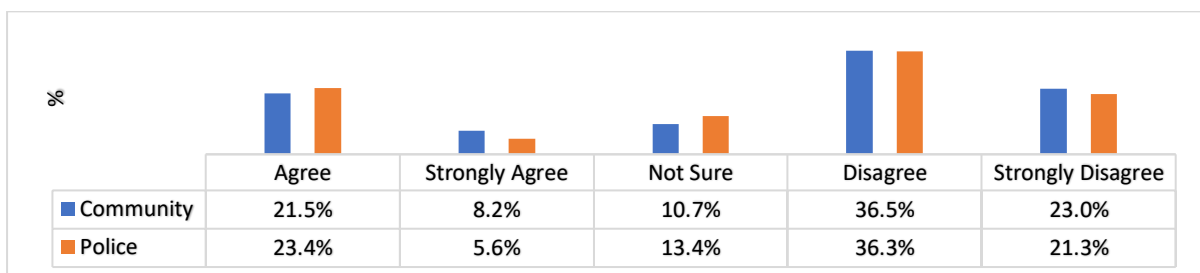


Figure 0.137: Views on levels of criminal activity in the community

Figure 7.137 shows that 29% PPs and 29,7% CPs were of the view that there were low levels of criminal activity in the community but majority of participants (57,6% PPs and 59,5 CPs) disagreed.

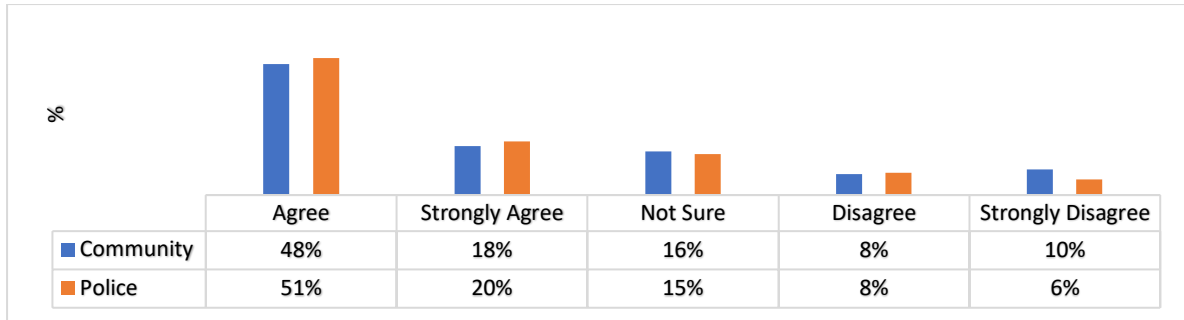


Figure 0.138: Views on numbers of calls made requesting police assistance

Figure 7.138 indicates that 71% PPs and 66% CPs were of the view that there were high numbers of calls made by the community requesting police assistance. However, 14% PPs and 18% CPs disagreed.

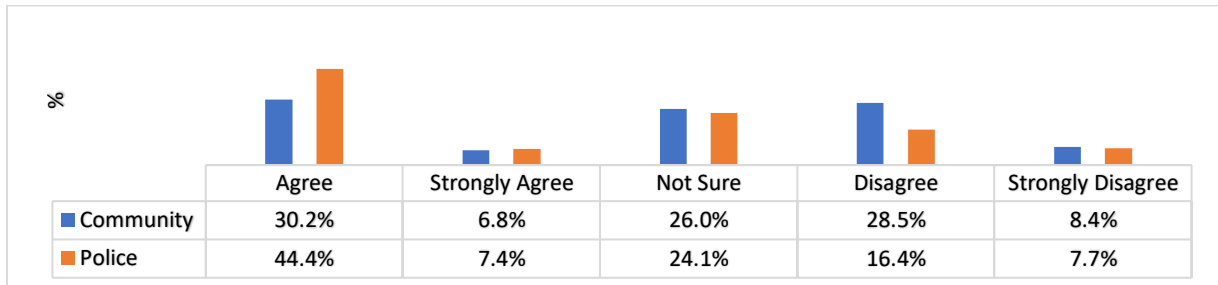


Figure 0.139: Views on whether broad community accepted most police actions

Figure 7.139 above shows that 51,8% PPs and 37% CPs were of the view that the broad community accepted most police actions but 24,1% PPs and 36,9% CPs disagreed.

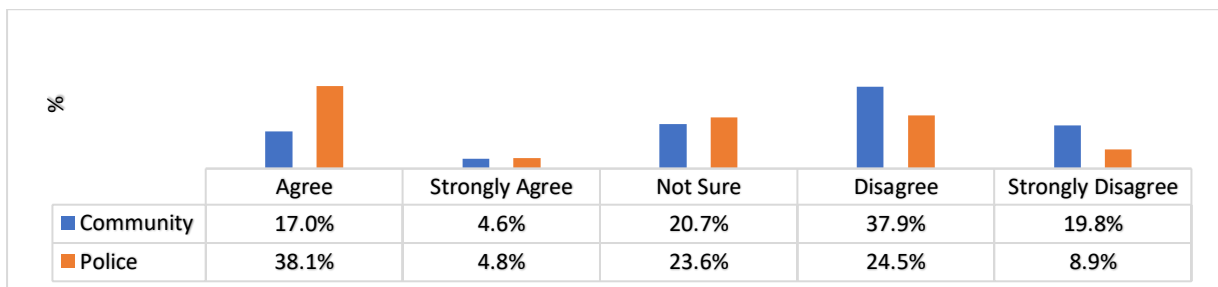


Figure 0.140: Views on levels of satisfaction with police services

Although 42,9% PPs and 21,6% CPs were of the view that there was a high level of satisfaction with police services, 33,4% PPs and 57,7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.140 above).

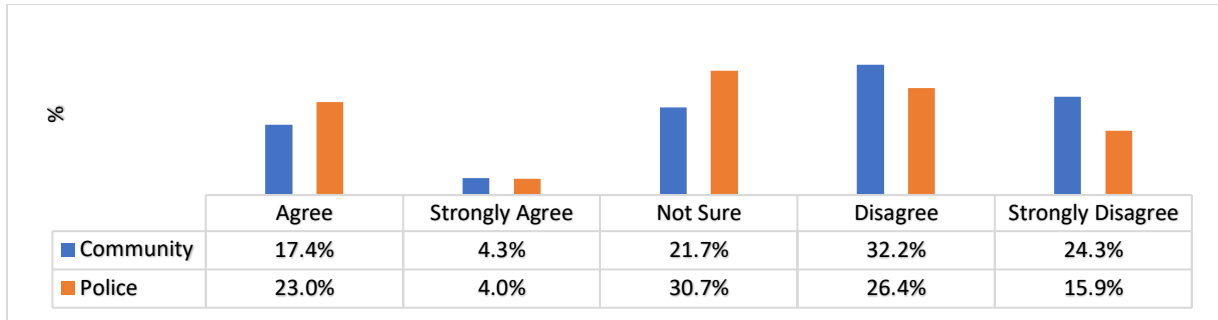


Figure 0.141: Views on corruption affecting service delivery in the community

Figure 7.141 above shows that 27% PPs and 21,7% CPs were of the view that there was no corruption among public servants affecting service delivery in the community. However, 42.3% PPs and 56,5% CPs disagreed.

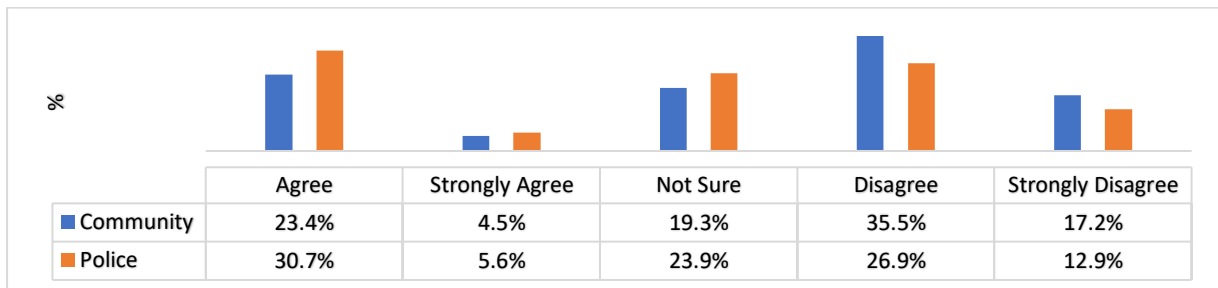


Figure 0.142: Views on whether government provided high levels of service delivery

Even though 36,3% PPs and 27,9% CPs were of the view that government provided high levels of service delivery to make the community feel safe, 39,8% PPs and 52,7% CPs disagreed (see Figure 7.142 above).

7.4 DATA SYNTHESIS AND DISCUSSION

The main question of this research was how the SAPS has translated, analysed, aligned and internalised the five priority areas of NDP's vision of building safer communities. The succeeding questions focused on what challenges the SAPS was experiencing in implementing the NDP's vision of building safer communities and what solutions there were to the identified challenges. The concluding question was what progress the SAPS had made in achieving the NDP vision towards building safer communities. The various themes generated in the questionnaire for both PPs and CPs demonstrate the nature of the SAPS implementation of the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities.

Table 0.3: Views on police proficiency

VIEWS ON POLICE PROFICIENCY						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Police behaviour supports positive image of SAPS	67,9	59,6	9,6	9,8	23	30,6
Police well-informed of policing role	73,5	62,1	9,7	16,6	16,9	23,3
Police understand and perform functions/obligations/ duties	64,2	52,9	12,0	18,5	23,7	28,7
Police respect victims	67,7	45,4	15,2	15,9	17,1	36,7
Police earn community respect and support	55,2	51,1	12,5	14,3	32,4	28,7

Policing as a profession has certain required or desired proficiencies which include knowledge, skills and expertise that are essential for delivering excellent service. The NDP affirms proficiency as integral part for the professional police service (Government of South Africa, 2012: 356). Police should display proficiency as they undertake their work to serve the public and when they communicate with victims, members of the community and colleagues. From findings in this study as presented in Table 7.3, police, to a certain extent, are well-informed of their policing role. Their behaviour supports the positive image of the SAPS. They understand and perform their functions and duties and respect victims and earn community respect and support. However, there are some community and police members who are not convinced of police proficiency.

The SAPS Code of Conduct obligates police officers to act with respect, dignity, integrity and courtesy and to treat people equally and without discrimination. According to the Public Service Coordinating Bargaining Council (PSCBC), it is “representing the SA government as employer and public servants affirms its commitment to upholding the values and principles of public administration enshrined in Section 195 of the Constitution and other laws, policies and frameworks” (PSCBC, 2013). The *Public Service Charter* obligates police officers as public servants to subscribe to the values espoused in the *Charter*, which *inter alia* aimed at “professionalising and encouraging excellence in the public service” (Government of South Africa, 2013). Police should uphold the principles of *Batho Pele* by ensuring that citizens are

“consulted about the level and quality of services”, are told of service standards, have “equal access to services, are treated with courtesy, openness and transparency and should be given value for money” (Government of South Africa, 2013). Where the promised standard of service is not delivered there should be redress.

Table 0.4: Views on police capacitation

VIEWS ON POLICE CAPACITATION						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Police have adequate resources to do the job	34,7	49,1	12,6	16,0	52,7	34,8
Police use state time appropriately to solve crime	63,3	39,9	14,4	21,1	22,3	39,0
Police use state vehicles appropriately to solve crime	63,6	36,5	14,6	19,6	21,8	43,9
Police do not use state resources for private benefit	52,0	33,8	19,6	29,2	28,4	37,0
Police well-trained	58,4	55,9	12,1	28,0	29,5	15,1
Police have required skills	46,7	46,9	20,5	25,9	33,8	27,2

The *RSA Public Service Charter* commits to “create an enabling environment within the provisions of available resources for public servants to perform their duties”. It further commits public servants “to accept the responsibility to undergo ongoing training and self-development”. The SAPS Code of Conduct commits police officers to “utilise all available resources responsibly, efficiently and cost-effectively and develop their skills and participate in the development of fellow colleagues to ensure equal opportunities for all”. Although the SAPS implement various policies, strategies and programmes to capacitate police officers, according to a significant number of police participants, police still lacked certain resources to do the job (see Table 7.4). However, a considerable number of community members were not convinced that police did not have adequate resources to do the job. They believed that police officers used state resources inappropriately for their private benefit and not to solve crime. More participants viewed police as well-informed of the policing role and that they understood and performed their functions and duties accordingly than those who viewed police well-trained and having required skills. This study confirms that there was still a need for ongoing training of police officers for them to acquire various skills.

Table 0.5: Views on police mandatory commitment

VIEWS ON POLICE MANDATORY COMMITMENT						
Police motivated to:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Create safe environments	62,0	50,8	10,3	15,7	27,8	33,4
Prevent and combat crime	62,9	56,6	10,2	14,1	27,0	29,3
Investigate crime without bias	61,0	46,0	17,0	20,0	22,0	33,0
Ensure offenders brought to justice	68,7	46,0	12,9	16,5	18,4	37,6
Participate in addressing root causes of crime	64,1	44,4	16,2	21,6	19,7	34,1
Protect human rights when human rights are violated	71,8	47,7	13,6	18,0	14,7	34,5

Table 7.5 above shows that PPs believed that they were committed to their policing mandate (from highest score to lowest score), of protecting human rights when human rights were violated, ensuring offenders were brought to justice, participating in addressing root causes of crime, preventing and combating crime, creating a safe environment and investigating crime without bias. However, on these items, CPs indicate lack of confidence that police are committed to their policing mandate (from lowest to highest confidence scores) of participating in addressing root causes of crime, ensuring offenders are brought to justice, investigating crime without bias, protecting human rights when human rights are violated, creating safe environment and preventing and combating crime. Table 7.5 shows that community members are less convinced than police that there was commitment to the policing mandate.

Table 0.6: Views on ethical standards

VIEWS ON ETHICAL STANDARDS						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Police treat communities with respect	72,2	48,3	10,8	12,1	16,9	39,7
Police use powers responsibly	65,6	42,5	17,4	21,9	17,0	35,6
Police accountable and reliable	62,0	42,5	16,0	21,0	17,0	35,6
Police transparency	65,0	52,0	18,0	26,0	17,0	21,0

Police act honestly in all situations	50,8	33,7	21,1	24,2	28,0	42,1
Police act responsibly in all situations	54,8	36,8	19,8	26,6	25,5	36,5
Police trustworthiness	42,3	30,7	25,7	22,3	32,0	47,0
Police do what is right in performing duties	61,2	44,0	17,8	21,8	21,1	34,1
Police provide progress on complaints	60,2	36,7	16,9	20,3	23,0	43,0
Police conduct in community exemplary	52,3	34,3	22,9	23,8	24,9	42,0

The *RSA Public Service Charter* commits public servants to “demonstrate integrity and to respect all rules, values and established codes of conduct in the performance of official duties”. To maintain public trust, police officers should display good character. The manner in which police “enforce the law and solve problems determines whether the public views the police as ethical or unethical” (Brown, 2013). Table 7. 6, reveals that the CPS did not rate police officers highly – they viewed them as not being trustworthy, not honest, not displaying exemplary conduct, not providing progress on complaints, and using powers responsibly, and not being accountable, reliable, doing what was right in performing duties and treating community members with respect.

Table 0.7: Views on respect for diversity

VIEWS ON RESPECT FOR DIVERSITY						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Police respect diverse cultures and diversity	67,2	52,5	14,8	28,1	18	19,5
Police respect males and females equally	68,1	40,0	9,5	22,5	22,3	37,5
Police respect gay and lesbian community	47,2	35,9	30,7	31,9	26,1	32,2
Police respect people with disabilities	86,2	51,3	11,3	25,0	12,5	15,7
Police able to help people in sign language	39,9	29,1	22,8	29,1	37,3	41,9
Police treat all with dignity	63,6	40,0	18,9	21,1	17,5	38,9
Police respect children’s rights	76,7	67,4	10,4	21,3	12,8	21,2

Police not unlawfully discriminating against anyone	65,3	42,1	18,0	27,6	16,7	30,3
Police attend complaints unbiased	60,1	59,2	18,9	23,4	21,0	17,7
Police respect all faiths, religious and spiritual groups	67,1	51,8	15,8	22,4	17,1	25,8

The SAPS Code of Ethics endorses respect for diversity. It acknowledges the diversity of the people that the SAPS have to police and promise, to treat with equal respect, not unlawfully discriminate against (SAPS, 2010). The NDP endorses the “professionalisation of the police by enforcing a professional police Code of Ethics”. It is noted in Table 7.7 above, that in the views of CPs and PPs, to a certain extent police unbiasedly attended to complaints, and respected right of children, people with disabilities, all faiths, religious, spiritual groups and diverse cultures. Much as that both police and community participants had less confidence in police helping people in sign languages and respecting the LGBTQI+ community, police participants themselves did have confidence that police respected diversity overall. However, community participants had less confidence that police (from lowest to highest confidence score) treated all with dignity, respected males and females equally and did not unlawfully discriminate against anyone.

Table 0.8: Views on service excellence

VIEWS ON SERVICE EXCELLENCE						
Most police:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Enforce law properly	69,4	55,7	12,5	19,0	17,1	25,3
Do not violate the Constitution	64,0	43,0	15,4	23,2	20,7	33,8
Protect communities against illegal/unlawful activities	75,6	52,2	8,9	18,6	15,5	29,3
Behave professionally	66,7	45,3	14,7	25,7	20,4	37,8
Commit to service excellence	68,1	47,9	15,7	26,5	20,2	35,0
Render high-quality service responsibly and accountably	61,9	42,6	18,0	29,1	22,2	38,4
Abide by the law when rendering service	70,2	51,9	14,3	18,1	15,6	30,0
Services accessible to communities	73,8	47,7	8,7	14,6	17,5	37,8

Work hard to prevent any form of corruption	60,2	41,1	15,9	16,0	24,0	42,9
Work hard to bring corrupt persons to justice	57,3	42,0	18,4	15,6	24,3	42,3

The *RSA Public Service Charter* reinforces “commitment to service delivery improvement for the benefit of all citizens” and professionalisation and service excellence in the public service. The NDP endorses service excellence in rendering police services. Table 7.8 indicates, in general, that PPs had high confidence that police were rendering excellent service with the lowest score of 57,3% and the highest 75,6%. However, CPs had relatively low confidence that police were rendering excellent service with the lowest score of 41,1%, i.e. police were working hard to prevent any form of corruption to the highest score 55.7%, i.e. police were enforcing law properly. The PPs’ lowest score (57,3%) on construct of service excellence was higher than the CPs’ highest score (55,7%) on construct of service excellence.

Table 0.9: Views on cooperation in policing

VIEWS ON COOPERATION IN POLICING						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Most police working with communities to create safe environments	69,7	49,6	13,6	18,3	16,7	32,1
Most police working with government departments to create safe environments for communities	70,2	53,6	13,9	16,4	15,8	30,0
Most police working with non-government organisations (NGOs) to create safe environments for communities	65,4	45,6	19,1	26,6	15,5	27,9
Most police working with various community leaders, without discrimination, to create a safe environment for communities	67,9	41,9	19,0	25,4	13,1	32,8
Most police working with private security companies to create safe environments for communities	63,2	42,9	19,8	26,1	17	31,3
Most police working with community policing forums to create safe environments for communities	72,9	52,8	11,9	22,0	15,3	25,3

Police interacting with community amicably	70,5	47,5	14,6	14,5	14,9	38,0
Police always being visible in the community	67,0	40,0	12,8	13,0	21,3	47,0
Communities providing much information related to criminal activities to police	48,8	48,2	15,4	24,1	35,8	27,7
Good relationships between the community and police	45,6	33,0	22,0	19,8	32,5	47,2

The SAPS Code of Conduct obligates police to “cooperate with the community, government at every level and all other related role-players”. The *RSA Public Service Charter*, “motivated by the proven value of collaboration in service delivery improvement”, suggests that government, and public servants and other stakeholders collaborate in building South Africa. Both PPs and CPs had little confidence that there was a good relationship between communities and police and that communities were providing much information related to criminal activities to police. Table 7.9 shows that while PPs police were not convinced that there was a good relationship between the police and communities, which contributed to communities not providing information related to criminal activities to police, overall, they were convinced that there was cooperation, especially with CPFs and government departments. However, the community had less confidence that cooperation existed to the extent required. Out of 10 constructs for cooperation in policing, CPs scored only two above the average of 50%, eight were below average, the three lowest being relationships between the community and police, police visibility and information-sharing related to criminal activities.

Table 0.10: Views on feeling safe

VIEWS ON FEELING SAFE						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Low levels of crime in community	23,4	16,6	12,5	10,7	64,1	72,7
High incidence of residents not fearing crime	30,1	26,1	20,1	13,4	49,8	60,6
High incidence of not becoming victims of crime in communities	24,9	19,5	16,5	13,8	58,6	66,6
High levels of media coverage related to the community safety	34,7	37,3	26,0	22,5	39,4	40,2

High numbers of houses with burglar alarm systems/guards	36,9	37,4	18,3	16,2	44,9	46,3
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The VOC surveys shows a steady decline in the feeling of safety (Statistics SA, 2018). The SAPS vision and “Code of Conduct commit to create a safe and secure environment for all the people in South Africa”. Table 7.10 reflects that there were balanced views (PPs and CPs) on the first three constructs of feeling of safety, confirming a steady decline in communities’ feeling of safety. Table 7.10 indicates that few households were investing in their safety and that media played minimum role in community safety awareness.

Table 0.11: Views on role-players in community safety

VIEWS ON ROLE-PLAYERS IN COMMUNITY SAFETY						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Government departments take responsibility for communities feeling safe, whether at home or on the street	41,3	35,7	22,9	17,7	35,8	46,6
Communities taking responsibility for feeling safe, whether at home or on the street	45,7	43,5	22,2	15,8	32,1	35,7
Various community leaders take responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street	47,8	52,5	23,0	14,9	29,3	32,6
Political leaders take responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street	30,3	25,8	22,9	23,8	46,7	50,3
Police take responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street	66,4	42,6	14,2	18,3	19,5	39,1
Community policing forums taking responsibility for communities to feel safe, whether at home or on the street	59,5	48,2	18,1	18,9	22,5	32,9

The NCPS affirms the establishment of a comprehensive police framework to empower government to tackle crime in a coordinated and focused way. It requires of all government agencies and civil society to draw on all their resources to prevent crime. The Community Safety Forum Policy promotes “integrated and coordinated multi-agency collaboration among

organs of state and various communities towards safer communities”. The White Paper on Safety and Security has “an integrated approach to crime and violence prevention” as well as acknowledges that “building safer communities is not only the work of the police”. The White Paper on Policing recognises that building safer community through crime prevention is a shared responsibility. Both PPs and CPs agreed, some strongly agreed that all role-players should take responsibility for communities feeling safe, whether at home or on the street. However, Table 7.11 reveals lack of role players taking responsibility for communities feeling safe and ranks them from lowest to highest –lowest being political leaders, government departments, communities, various community leaders and highest being Community Policing Forums and police.

Table 0.12: Views on basic living conditions

VIEWS ON BASIC LIVING CONDITIONS						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
High numbers of homes in communities with flushing toilets	60,3	61,4	20,8	14,7	18,9	23,9
High numbers of families with adequate housing in communities	62,5	59,1	18,8	14,5	18,7	26,3
High number of good roads for communities	45,3	50,2	12,5	9,3	44,1	40,5
High levels of running water in communities	38,1	42,6	14,5	9,8	47,4	47,6
High levels of electricity supply in communities	43,5	40,1	15,5	14,0	41,1	45,9
High-level accessibility of recreation facilities for communities	34,9	27,1	16,2	16,6	48,9	56,3
High level of cleanliness on streets in communities	25,5	22,8	15,1	13,0	59,3	64,2
grass was always cut to increase community safety	27,4	23,1	12,2	11,6	60,5	65,3
High community presence on the streets/ public places in the evenings	51,3	45,0	13,7	14,2	35,0	40,7
High incidence of informal settlements	58,5	59,4	9,5	11,2	31,4	29,4

Holtmann (2010) developed the Safe Community of Opportunity model, which is an “integrated community safety approach that addresses unsafety as a whole-government and whole-society problem”. This model promotes collaboration among local role-players and a shift from prevention of crime to an approach that intends to improve safety in communities. Conducive basic living conditions are fundamental for community safety (Zulu, 2001). Table 7.12 indicates that PPs and CPs mutually agreed that there was a significant increase in homes in communities with flushing toilets and other adequate requirements, while they also acknowledged a high incidence of informal settlements in communities. Table 7.12 illustrates that PPs and CPs equally lacked confidence regarding improvement in basic living conditions in terms of levels (from lowest to highest confidence score), i.e. cleanliness on streets in communities, cutting of grass to increase community safety, accessibility of recreation facilities for communities, running water in communities, electricity supply in communities and good roads for communities.

Table 0.13: Views on social health conditions

VIEWS ON SOCIAL HEALTH CONDITIONS						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Low incidence of alcohol abuse in communities	17,4	14,8	7,9	7,1	74,4	78,1
Low levels of accessibility to alcohol in communities	14,5	14,9	7,6	6,9	78,0	79,2
Low levels of usage of illegal drugs in communities	17,1	14,3	8,8	8,6	74,2	77,1
Low levels of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings	20,2	21,7	16,2	11,0	63,7	67,3
Low incidence of unlawful writing/scribbling/drawings on public walls	25,8	20,8	21,0	15,8	53,1	63,5
Low incidence of usage of illegal firearms in communities	16,1	15,4	12,9	14,4	70,9	70,2
Low number of people crime victims’ firearms were used	17,8	14,4	14,1	17,4	78,2	68,2
Low incidence of teenage pregnancy in communities	11,8	14,1	8,4	12,6	75,7	76,5
Many parent’s role models in communities	30,7	39,1	21,4	19,3	48,0	41,6

Few families headed by children or youth	29,2	34,0	26,0	28,2	44,9	37,9
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Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004: 173-176) point out the social issues that contribute to the culture of violence and are pointed out in Table.13. In line with Zulu, Urbani and van der Merwe (2004), analysis of the work of Spohr and Eryk (2015) on the “national perspective of the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy” on violence and crime prevention and approaches and “a local perspective on community safety” correlates with the constructs of social health conditions in Table 7.13. Both PPs and CPs were certain that there was high alcohol abuse, high levels of accessibility to alcohol, high levels of usage of illegal drugs, high levels of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings, high incidence of unlawful writing/scribbling/drawings on public walls, high incidence of usage of illegal firearms, high number of crime victims where firearms were used, high incidence of teenage pregnancies, few parental role models and many families headed by children or youth in communities.

Table 0.14: Views on community programmes

VIEWS ON COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Many programmes to address substance/drugs abuse in communities	31,8	29,5	19,0	14,6	49,3	55,9
Many programmes for childhood development in communities provided by social and health services	29,5	28,1	22,1	16,0	48,3	55,9
Many programmes to support responsible parenting in communities provided by social and health services	27,4	26,6	22,9	16,7	49,7	56,8
Many programmes for healthcare in communities provided by social and health services	29,0	24,7	23,0	16,3	48,0	58,9
Many programmes including community activities involving the youth	28,4	24,6	20,6	15,0	51,0	60,4
Many programmes to help young persons (under 18) who had habits of committing criminal acts or offences in communities	28,2	19,0	20,4	13,7	51,5	67,3

Many programmes provided for crime prevention within communities	33,3	23,2	18,1	15,0	48,6	60,7
High levels of awareness of services police provide	43,3	27,5	17,4	16,4	40,3	55,1
Programmes provided on gender-based violence	40,4	28,1	16,8	12,9	42,8	59,1
Programmes provided on sports, arts, culture and recreation	34,1	28,7	19,7	14,8	46,2	56,5

The aim of the National Integrated ECD Policy is to transform early childhood development service delivery in order to, in line with Zulu (2001), address critical gaps and make sure the delivery of all-inclusive, universally accessible and equitable early childhood development services. Both PPs and CPs believed that there was lack of community programmes supporting the interventions that promoted building safer communities. Table 7.14 demonstrates that a significant number of PPs and CPs correspondingly disagreed and strongly disagreed that there were many community programmes in communities supporting young persons (under 18) who had habits of committing criminal acts or offences, youth activities, crime prevention, responsible parenting, substance/drugs abusers, childhood development, healthcare, fight against gender-based violence, sports, arts, culture and recreation and awareness of services provided by police.

Table 0.15: Views on economic conditions

VIEWS ON ECONOMIC CONDITIONS						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Low levels of people losing jobs	19,2	16,7	17,4	7,0	63,4	76,3
Low levels of unemployment	15,2	14,7	10,2	4,7	74,6	80,7
High level of food-price decrease which made food affordable	15,1	16,0	11,6	7,1	73,4	76,9
Low levels of poverty in communities	15,1	17,1	11,3	4,4	74,6	77,6
High number of people opening small businesses	43,2	55,6	17,8	9,7	39,0	34,7
High levels of people loitering in the streets without purpose	62,6	68,3	12,9	9,6	24,5	22,1

South Africa is experiencing serious challenges of low growth and high rates of poverty, unemployment and inequality. These challenges have increased because of “low levels of investment and growth”. The South African economy faced the “impact of the COVID-19 crisis on the economy and the unemployment rate has remained persistently high”. In Table 7.15 PPs and CPs disagreed and strongly so, that there were low levels of unemployment, poverty in communities and people losing jobs. This was substantiated by both PPs and CPs when most agreed that there were high levels of people loitering in the streets without purpose. Furthermore, PPs and CPs agreed that unemployment, poverty and loss of jobs was coupled with low level of food-price decrease which made food unaffordable. Much as there was a high level of employment there was an indication that community members were trying their level best to be self- employed by opening small businesses.

Table 0.16: Views on social diversity

VIEWS ON SOCIAL DIVERSITY						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
There are individuals who work hard to ensure that the community is safe	67,0	63,2	17,4	20,2	15,6	16,5
There are known individuals who are gangsters	63,5	72,5	23,9	16,8	12,6	10,6
There are individuals known to be drug sellers in the community	73,2	77,8	16,5	14,0	10,3	8,3
There are children known to be school drop-outs	74,2	79,4	16,4	12,2	9,4	8,4
There are known homeless children on the streets	69,3	72,6	17,5	16,6	13,3	10,7
There are known immigrants in the community	60,9	67,8	24,0	20,1	15,1	12,1
There are known taverns and shebeens that are open 24 hours	67,0	75,6	18,4	12,0	14,6	12,4

South Africa is a diverse country numerous social challenges. Such challenges include predominance of gangsters, gang activities and drug and alcohol abuse. The findings as depicted in Table 7.16 show the correlation between the predominance of school drop-outs, drug sellers, taverns and shebeens, gangsterism in the communities and homeless children on the streets. Much as there are social challenges. There are also individuals who work hard to

ensure that communities are safe. Furthermore, Table 7.16 shows that immigrants are accommodated in the communities

Table 0.17: Views on juvenile delinquency

VIEWS ON JUVENILE DELINQUENCY						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community who drink alcohol	82,0	87,9	7,4	5,8	10,6	6,3
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) involved in petty crimes such as stealing, vandalism and bullying	81,5	86,7	8,9	6,4	9,6	6,9
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community who smoke	84,7	88,9	7,9	5,4	7,4	5,8
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community who absent themselves from school	79,2	80,7	12,4	12,4	8,4	7,0
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community who bully and fight	77,2	84,0	13,6	8,4	8,4	7,0
There are high levels of young persons (under 18) in the community involved in serious crime	75,3	74,3	12,6	17,2	12,0	8,5

Children who for various reasons “are orphans or unaccompanied and without the means of subsistence, housing and other basic necessities are at greatest risk of becoming juvenile delinquents” (Salagaev, 2003:191 and Zulu (2001). According to Zulu (2001), substance abuse includes alcohol and illicit drugs. Alcohol and illicit drugs usage can contribute to a vigorous desire to use these substances, problems in controlling its use, and continuing to use it regardless of hazardous consequences. Table 17.17 reveals the high levels of serious moral breakdown or degeneration communities’ experience. The PPs and CPs were convinced young persons (under 18) in the communities were smoking, drinking alcohol, involved in petty crimes such as stealing and vandalism and bullying, engaging in fighting and bullying, absenting themselves from school and involved in serious crime.

Table 0.18: Views on CJS

VIEWS ON CJS						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
Police are not friends with criminals	45,1	37,7	27,8	28,9	27,2	33,4
Prosecutors are not friends with criminals	36,4	32,4	37,6	37,9	25,9	29,7
Criminals are hardly released on bail	28,0	30,1	19,9	21,3	52,1	48,6
Suspected criminals are often arrested	59,0	35,0	17,6	16,0	23,4	49,0
Suspected criminals are often prosecuted	45,9	31,0	21,0	20,5	33,2	48,5
Prosecuted criminals are often convicted	45,2	30,9	24,7	23,3	30,1	45,8

According to Newham (2005), since 2000 government has “dedicated maximum energy and resources on enhancing the Criminal Justice System and law enforcement”. Government’s effort has been aimed at increasing prosecution and conviction rates and reducing recidivism. However, Table 7.18 indicates that both PPs and CPs were not total convinced that prosecutors and police were not friends with criminals and that suspected criminals were often arrested, prosecuted and convicted. Further, they were less convinced that criminals were hardly released on bail. The six constructs on the views on the CJS show that confidence in the CJS remained questionable irrespective of the effort that the government had put into strengthen it.

Table 0.19: Views on trust and confidence

VIEWS ON TRUST AND CONFIDENCE						
Views on:	%PPs Agree	%CPs Agree	%PPs Unsure	%CPs Unsure	%PPs Disagree	%CPs Disagree
High visibility of police at risk areas	59,5	39,7	17,0	10,7	23,5	49,6
Community reporting criminals to the police	49,1	65,4	15,4	13,4	35,4	21,1
Police following information community provides to address criminal activities	67,2	46,4	15,7	21,5	17,0	31,9

Residents having high level of understanding of community safety	50,7	40,4	24,0	21,7	53,2	37,9
High numbers of calls made by the community requesting police assistance	71,0	66,0	13,4	10,7	14,0	18,0
Low levels of criminal activity	29,0	29,7	15,0	16,0	57,6	59,5
Broad community accepts police action	71,0	66,0	24,1	26,0	14,0	18,0
High level of satisfaction with police service	42,9	21,6	23,6	20,7	33,4	57,7
There was no corruption among public servants affecting service delivery in the community	27,0	21,7	30,7	21,7	42,3	56,5
Government provides high levels of service delivery to make the community feel safe	36,3	27,9	23,9	19,3	39,8	52,7

The PPs were inclined to agree that there was high visibility of police at risk areas and that police did follow information provided by the community to address criminal activities. However, CPs had low confidence and trust in police visibility and following on information to tackle criminal activities. TCPs did have confidence and trust that communities were reporting criminals to the police, however, PPs had low confidence and trust. Both PPs and CPs had trust and confidence that the broad community accepted police actions when high volumes of calls were made by the community requesting police's assistance. Table 7.19 reveals that equally PPs and CPs had little confidence and trust that there was no corruption among public servants affecting service delivery, low levels of criminal activity, high levels of service delivery by government to make the community feel safe, high levels of satisfaction with police service, and high levels of understanding of community safety by residents.

7.5 CONCLUSION

The chapter is concerned with the SAPS implementation and internalisation of the NDP Vision of building safer communities. Various conclusions follow on the data analysis in this chapter. The general perceptions of police and community participants indicate that there were few community and police members who were not confident about police proficiency. The findings of this study confirm the importance of police demonstrating professionalism, competency and

excellence in the performance of their obligatory duties for them to earn community respect and support.

The findings conclude that even though the NDP endorses the professionalisation of the police through employing highly skilled and trained personnel, as well as establishing a body to regulate and set training standards, both police and community participants had little confidence that the police had the required skills. While the SAPS values emphasise the importance of making sure efficient, effective, and economic usage of resources as well as skills development of all members by offering equal opportunities, the public participants indicated less confidence in police, specifically on how effectively and efficiently they use various resources and whether they had the necessary skills and resources to do their mandatory work.

The CPs also indicated that they lacked confidence that police were committed to their mandate of policing of (from lowest to highest confidence score) participating in addressing root causes of crime, ensuring offenders brought to justice, investigating crime without bias, protecting human rights when human rights were violated, creating safe environment and preventing and combating crime. Such lack of commitment to the policing mandate would have a negative impact on the police's role towards building the safer communities.

Furthermore, while the NDP endorses police professionalisation through enforcing the SAPS Code of Conduct and SAPS Code of Ethics, adherence to ethical standards still remains a challenge. While the SAPS Code of Ethics endorses integrity of SAPS employees and directs that SAPS employees must continually endeavour to uphold and maintain the SAPS vision, mission and values as well as SAPS ethical principles and SAPS ethical standards by acting honestly and responsibly in all situations and setting an example in the communities they serve, devotion to the Code of Conduct and Ethics as well as SAPS ethical principles and standards remains a challenge in the SAPS. Although the values of the SAPS underscore proper utilisation of police powers in a responsible and an accountable way and giving an accountable, effective as well as rendering of service of high-quality with integrity and honesty, community participants had little confidence in police on the constructs of ethical standards.

Although SAPS values emphasise protection of everyone's rights and impartiality, respectfulness, openness and accountability to the community, community participants to a certain extent has little confidence in the police regarding certain constructs of respect for diversity. The CPs were not convinced that police were committed to service excellence, even though the SAPS Code of Ethics states that SAPS employees will undertake to work towards service excellence; SAPS employees' conduct will bring professionalism and commitment to service excellence; and the NDP directs the SAPS to recruit and select professional police for excellence and professionalism.

The values of the SAPS promote extensive cooperation amongst all spheres of government and communities, as well as with other relevant role-players in creating safe and secure environments, the findings concluded that this is happening to a certain extent. The SAPS Code of Ethics encourages police to work with public for the SAPS to gain public approval. It places emphasis on SAPS employees serving the best interests of the community and seek the approval of the broad community. The NDP underscores an integrated approach and coordinated efforts in building sustainable community safety. Though the PPs have comparatively high confidence that there is cooperation in policing, the CPs remain uncertain about this.

Together PPs and CPs were certain that there were high levels of crime in the community, a high incidence of becoming victims of crime in communities and of residents fearing crime. This feeling of unsafety nullifies the hypothesis of "the NDP Vision 2030 of people living in SA feeling safe and having no fear of crime". The study revealed that there are very few people who were investing in their safety by installing burglar alarm systems/guards in their houses. This indicated that people were still putting their safety in the hands of police and law enforcement. The role of media in community safety awareness still remained insignificant.

Police and community participants stated there was lack of role-players taking responsibility for communities feeling safe. This validated the arguments of the researchers, scholars and actors and implementers of policies that policy implementation had become unsuccessful *inter alia* owing to lack of public-private partnerships to assist government in doing so. The study revealed that for communities to feel safe, "state and non-state capabilities" should be mobilised. This necessitates shifting to an integrated approach of active citizen involvement

and co-responsibility which the findings confirmed. This chapter concluded that community safety is an entire society's problem and task and identified the significance of enhancing community mobilisation and safety awareness.

The study revealed that PPs and CPs also had low confidence regarding the improvement of basic living conditions. The constructs of basic living conditions (Table 7.12) in line with the CPTED concept contributed to certain crime patterns and specific crime hotspots. If basic living conditions are not addressed, they create opportunities for unsafety and nullified the hypotheses of the NDP of people living in SA feeling safe and enjoying active community life free of fear.

Social conditions, such as lack of education, unemployment and poverty, impact negatively on health conditions. The balance and correlated views of both the PPs and CPs on social-health conditions confirmed undesirable living conditions of some people in SA and pointed to the failure of implementing community programmes. Failure to execute community programmes steering communities to become safer has a high probability of creating South African crisis and South Africa becoming a failed state. In addition, the COVID 19 crisis which came with job loss and increase in unemployment, calls for the need for South Africa to search for better solutions of building safer communities using required capabilities and tools. Much as the NDP Vision 2030 aimed at “growing the economy at a rate of 5,4%, reducing the unemployment rate to 6%, increasing investment as a share of GDP to 30%, reducing inequality as measured by the Gini Coefficient to 0.60, and total eradication of poverty” (Government of SA, 2012), there is little likelihood of it being realised as its success is highly dependent on the economy of SA.

Police and community participants confirmed the prevalence of the moral degeneration in young persons under 18 years in the communities. While there were various ideas about the cause of juvenile delinquency, the general consensus was that it was primarily the outcome of multiple adverse social, economic and family conditions. Various community programmes could be used to fight against anti-social behaviour and social evils, such as crime, juvenile delinquency and drug and alcohol abuse. For future generation to be safe in their communities, it would be essential to invest in community programmes that promote moral regeneration.

The study revealed that there was lack of relationship of trust and confidence between the police and communities regarding reporting of crime and tackling criminal activities. Based on the views of participants there is a likelihood that the community has low confidence and trust in the police and government. This can have negative repercussions on the vision of achieving safer communities. It worth to note that, briefly, the study also exposed the policy crisis in SA as there are many policies that were not effective in relation to their objectives. These policy crises include failure to deliberate policies, failure to translate policies and laws into long-term plans, absence of policy and planning tools and deficiency of planning systems and competencies.

In Chapter 8 the policy crisis in relation to the translation of Chapter 12 NDP five priority areas are analysed further and discussed. Chapter 8 discusses issues, such as what happened after the NDP had been endorsed, with the aim of tracking the challenges contributing to the lack of safety of the community, what affects the achievement of the objectives of building safer communities, and makes deductions on building blocks towards achieving a model of safer communities for SA. It further discusses and analyses critical variables influencing and shaping the direction of the NDP implementation of safer communities. Participants' views about the progress made in achieving effectivity of NDP implementation are also explored and discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT

ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS IN RELATION TO TRANSLATION OF NDP CHAPTER 12 FIVE PRIORITY AREAS

8.1 BACKGROUND

This study focused on exploring how the SAPS had translated the five priority areas of NDP Vision 2030 Chapter 12: Building Safer Communities. The study further tried to determine how the SAPS had unpacked and analysed the NDP into a practical and easy-to-understand document. It examined how different business units of the SAPS were aligning themselves with the NDP's vision of safer communities. This study did not only seek to assess how the SAPS was implementing the NDP vision but also to discover the progress that the SAPS had made in achieving NDP's vision of building safer communities by 2030. The sections below analyse and discuss translation of Chapter 12 NDP five priority areas.

8.2 STRENGTHENING CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM

Some crime analysts argue that crime is becoming uncontrollable in SA as each year sees more victims of crime. This demands the reinforcement of interventions that would bring justice to victims of crime, and prevent and control crime. The data analysis and findings in Chapters 6 and 7 indicate there is an urgent need to strengthen the CJS in SA. The findings further indicate that the CJS needs to reclaim the public's respect by performing its duties with integrity. Measures the CJS could put in place to be esteemed are discussed below.

8.2.1 Addressing moral fibre degeneration as conundrum affecting CJS

The study revealed that strengthening the CJS would initially require the restoration of communities' moral fibre. Immorality in communities implies immoral community members, law enforcement agencies, prosecutors, judges, and justice and correctional officers. Community members are the primary beneficiaries of an efficient and effective CJS and they consequently would feel and be safe, as the NDP envisions. They are further the main source of information pertaining the commission of crime. Witnesses, victims, informers and whistle-

blowers come from the communities and mostly have knowledge pertaining to the commission of crime.

Much as the entire CJS has a role in the building safer communities, law enforcers such as the SAPS are at the CJS entry point. Participant 11 in the individual semi-structured interviews maintained that police could not prevent perpetrators from committing crime as it was linked to moral-fibre degeneration. Responsibility for regeneration in this regard is a conundrum in SA. Law enforcement agencies cannot detect an individual's intention to do something, e.g. rape, as the perpetrator solely mediates such crime – police cannot prevent such meditation.

8.2.2 Enhancing CJS performance

The study revealed that there was a need to capacitate the CJS in order to enhance its performance and address challenges to do with delays in prosecution, awaiting trials and finalisation of criminal cases. According to Participant 5 in the individual semi-structured interviews, getting rid of the silo mentality of planning, budgeting and working in the JCPS Cluster and developing and executing integrated CJS strategies to address government priorities could strengthen the cluster. This, in return, would address unprofessional performance and conduct of all the cluster departments.

The participants affirmed that shortage of capacity to provide investigation, forensic and prosecution services hindered CJS performance. They stated the areas that needed improvement to increase the effectiveness of the CJS. These included knowledge acquisition, understanding and effective application of the CJS regulatory frameworks by providing education, training and development of employees to enable them to fulfil their different mandates, implementation of purposeful planning and effective participation of all stakeholders in planning; institutionalisation of stakeholder management, fostering closer coordination and cooperation among CJS stakeholders and enhancement of effective governing boards to ensure the effective execution of all cluster activities. To enhance CJS performance, participants suggested the alignment of performance indicators for all the departments in the JCPS Cluster to ensure equal liability for the increase in lack of safety in the country. According to Participant 11 in the individual semi-structured interviews, the detection of serious crime

was a concern as the SAPS was not achieving its targets. This resulted in the perception that police were not taking crime seriously.

8.2.3 Enhancing criminal justice processes

The CJS constitutes six key parts with each constituent governed by its own internal processes. These processes need to be enhanced to make the CJS more efficient and effective. Police prevent, investigate crime and arrest suspected criminals. The prosecution service decides whether or not to prosecute someone who is suspected of having committed crime. The magistrates or judges hear the case and the courts decide whether the accused is innocent or guilty after having heard evidence and then decide what sentence should be given should someone be found guilty. The Department of Justice provides accessible and quality justice for all. The prison system ensures that sentences are served and also puts effort in rehabilitating convicted criminals in custody. Probation officers or social workers, as appointed by Minister of Social Development, as officers of every magistrate's court "provide social services for the poor and vulnerable. They work with victims of crime, families and communities". There should be synergy among the six key constituents of the CJS. Synergy should not be only regarding how they work and complement each other but also criminal justice processes. The participants raised numerous concerns linked to lack of synergy among the six constituents. Further, witnesses play a critical role in the CJS value chain. They are essential during prosecution and for successful conviction. As witnesses are also critical in solving problems that are associated with unsafe communities, improving legislation regulating access to witness protection service is essential.

Some participants felt that there was synergy between the DPCI and the NPA and that the same synergy should be embraced and elevated to other constituents of the CJS. The participants highlighted that some cases were lost in court due to gaps in investigation, but that this could be addressed if local prosecutors were involved. The participants advocated the prosecutorial guided investigations. They alluded to CJS processes that communities often perceived as police responsibilities while that was not the case. Hence, the findings of study confirmed the need for institutionalisation of public awareness campaigns nationwide to educate the public about the CJS functioning and roles and responsibilities of the six constituents. The participants

maintained that such campaigns would educate the communities on the critical roles and responsibilities of constituents in achieving safer communities.

The study findings supported strengthening integrated criminal justice processes. The participants cited matters of concern, such as handling of parole. They suggested that it should enhance restorative justice and ease recidivism. They also cited concerns about underprivileged communities' accessibility to the CJS and suggested improvement in services provided by the state for legal representations. The participants argued on issues related to consistency in the application of law. They felt that the CJS should assess how consistently the law and objectivity in the application of the law within the CJS was applied.

Integrated resource planning is a criminal justice process in which the six key constituents of the CJS join hands with other critical stakeholders to identify and prepare options that strengthen the CJS. The process *inter alia* includes establishing the CJS scope, i.e. whether or not the CJS should include some constituents of the JCPS Cluster, such as defence and intelligence, which were not in the existing CJS. Furthermore, participants stated that it should encompass investigating possibilities of strengthening the CJS and preparing and evaluating integrated plans as well as selecting desired plans and establishing mechanisms to monitor and evaluate and review plans as conditions change and evolve within the CJS.

Advocate Johnny de Lange in 2007 led the Commission that was tasked to review the CJS and recommended a seven-point plan to transform the CJS. It was adopted by Cabinet. The National Planning Commission which was appointed in May 2010 to draft the vision and NDP endorsed the seven-point plan. The seven-point plan displayed how to institute a new, "modernised, efficient, and transformed system, establishing a new coordinating and management structure from national to local and greater cooperation between the judiciary and magistracy, the police, the prosecutors, correctional services and the Legal Aid Board" (Government of SA, 2012). The participants believed that integrated resource planning would not only enhance what the CJS budget was initially planned for, but also improve accessibility to and allocation of human, physical, financial resources and ICT. This would also apply to civil organisations' relevant resources with mandates of implementing "justice and the protection of human rights". In line with this, the seven-point plan was supposed to address integrated criminal justice processes. However, it was not successfully implemented. Hence, there is a need for the JCPS Cluster to

interrogate the issue of non-implementation of the seven-point plan as it impacts negatively on effective CJS building of safer communities.

The participants highlighted the fundamentality of addressing the root causes of the ineffective CJS instead of addressing the symptoms. They viewed attendance to root causes of the ineffective CJS as a long-term investment. The participants emphasised the importance of building a good relationship among the departments within the CJS and JCPS Cluster. The good relationship should be premised on (i) conducting regular meetings; (ii) prosecutors providing proper feedback to the investigating officers; (iii) investigators conducting proper investigation for dockets to be ready to be presented at courts; and (iv) enforcing and monitoring successful implementation of the De Lange Commission's seven-point plan.

8.2.4 Creating collaboration and seamless value-chain within CJS

Improving collaboration within the CJS is key in creating a seamless value-chain. Arrests are meaningless if there is no value-chain within the CJS departments. Participant 11 said in the individual semi-structured interviews argued that it was “pointless to show arrest if police cannot show the community what happened to those who were arrested”. The findings of this study confirm the significance of the CJS departments working together to pursue the same objectives towards “safer communities at national and local levels”. The participants highlighted the disjuncture of the CJS and affirmed that jointly setting mutual priorities and processes could alleviate this. They further affirmed that accountability and formal communication strengthened collaboration and created a seamless value-chain within the CJS. The findings underscore the importance of strengthening the combined monitoring and evaluation mechanisms of both the CJS and JCPS Cluster. This will help to determine performance and service delivery challenges and to improve performance and service delivery and collaboration.

8.2.5 Improving the prison system

An effective prison system is important in solving problems that contribute to unsafe communities. Therefore, improvement of the prison system to effectively rehabilitate and prepare prisoners for integration is imperative. The sentences granted to the convicts should

inter alia be an investment in discouraging reoffending, and preventing future crime by removing offenders from society and by changing their behaviour.

The participants maintained that prisons should be institutes of “rehabilitation and successful reintegration of ex-offenders into the community”. However, participants felt that the prison system failed execute its mandate. They recommended improvement of rehabilitation centres and implementation of successful reintegration programmes for convicts. They based this on the challenges that the CJS and communities were facing related to reoffending. They stated that most GBVF, robberies and hijacking victims were victims of former offenders. This indicates that the existing prison system was not effectively rehabilitating and not successfully preparing them reintegration with communities. Neither did it succeed in discouraging them to reoffend.

Supporting the above recommendation, PP3 in the individual semi-structured interviews maintained that “correctional facilities are regarded as the meeting and breeding place of the criminals. Hence, these facilities are not feared nor thought of as a deterrent. For many, life inside prison is better than life outside”.

8.2.6 Integrating ICT system for CJS

The participants alluded to the development and implementation of an integrated ICT system for the CJS to address government priorities and strategies for the JCPS Custer. They advocated digitisation of the system for court processes and case management. They indicated that the CJS should strive for more efficiency through integrated ICT in order to better the usage of technology and information, streamlining and integrating services, and improving cooperation. They proposed that cases of dangerous and hardened criminals be handled using hi-tech. This would involve video-conferencing between prison facilities and courts to speed up the finalisation of cases, and prevent escapes and intimidation of witnesses.

8.3 PROFESSIONALISING SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The National Planning Commission endorsed “professionalising of the police by enforcing the code of conduct and the police code of ethics, and appointing highly trained and skilled

personnel” (Government of SA, 2012). Much as the Commission stated that professionalising and demilitarising the SAPS formed one of the foundation stones for building safer communities, Participant 11 in the semi-structured interviews indicated he could not see their relevance in building safer communities. According to him, professionalisation and demilitarisation were very close to each other. His questions were “Can professionalised and demilitarised police service create safe communities? and “Could professionalised and demilitarised police service prevent the fear of not being safe and induce feelings of being safe of safe in communities?”. Therefore, the relevance of police professionalising and demilitarising priorities in building safer communities remained a bone of contention for some of the participants. The question raised was whether professionalising would make communities safe. Participants maintained that professionalising applied to all government departments and not only to the police service. Therefore, all such departments should professionalise. They recommended that should professionalisation be critical in rendering service to the communities, it should be a standalone Chapter in the NDP where the focus would be on rendering professional service to communities.

The SAPS, in implementing the NDP, should commit to policing proficiency, capacitation of police, the SAPS mandate, for ethical standards and service excellence. All the above should be on the police professionalising agenda. Merging the findings of this chapter and Chapter 7 with those of Chapter 6, reveals that in professionalising the SAPS, revision of the recruitment strategy and employee value proposition coupled with the provision of adequate tools of trade for training and development to enhance skills are important. Furthermore, inculcating a culture of commitment to serve with integrity, eradicating corruption, treating victims and communities with dignity, including improving response time to community complaints and providing feedback also stood out as drivers towards professionalising the police service. The study further indicates that professional police service gains community trust and confidence. Chapter 6 underscores the significance of accountability of management and leadership at all levels. The participants confirmed that institutionalisation and internalisation of ethical, collaborative and committed leadership in professionalising the police service were key.

The participants mentioned the following required interventions at the four tiers of policing to provide excellent service to the communities: (1) Engaging regularly with the local authorities, communities and community structures and developing inclusive strategies, communities and

providing feedback about the impact of such strategies. (2) Capacitating the police stations with resources in line with new developments and conducting research studies to record and share the best practices at police station level. (3) Participating with INTERPOL to share resources to address transnational crime and benchmarking internationally with countries doing well in policing and that have similar demographics. (4) Establishing stability in leadership at top level, getting rid of the deadwood in the organisation and enhancing quality of management at all levels. (5) Creating proper, clear and impactful communication that reaches the frontline. (6) Enhancing ICT to advance the 4IR at police stations. (7) Providing victim-friendly services and facilities to victims; and consequential management of non-compliance. (8) Participative and integrated planning towards prevention of social ills. (9) Encouraging whistle-blowing. (10) Mobilising different stakeholders at all levels to form part of policing. (11) Developing and providing strategic direction and interventions at national level to enable provincial level to implement strategies effective and efficiently. (12) Reviewing recruitment and selection standards of police officials in order to transform and professionalise policing. (13) Investing in customer care which includes giving regular feedback to victims and improving on response time to complaints. (14) Developing community assessment tools for citizens “to be able to assess the performance of police service” (15) Promoting “individuals on the basis of capability and experience” and avoiding mixing politics with policing and cadre deployment. (16) Dealing with corruption. (17) Establishing good relationships with communities. (18) With clear parameters, ensuring continuous provision of information, engagement and communication with communities and interest groups to understand their needs, perceptions about police and ensuring that the SAPS responds with actions to that. (19) Improving coordination with other law enforcement agencies and “government at local, provincial and national levels”. (20) Boosting the morale of the police. (21) Implementing and monitoring of the Service Delivery Improvement Programme. (22) Correctly developing the organisational structures through correct scientific processes to address crime and a serious shortage of all resources at police stations. (23) Providing a clean policy direction for implementation by SAPS Headquarters. (24) Strengthening the CJS. (25) Implementing interventions that promote professionalisation of the police service.

8.4 DEMILITARISING SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

This section discusses the observations and findings related to the demilitarisation of the police service. The NDP confirmed “the need for a police service that forms part of an integrated CJS and that is demilitarised, professional, and community-centric”. Establishing “an accountable, professional, competent, and highly skilled police service, as defined in the NDP, is key in the White Paper on Policing”. The White Paper on Policing (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016b) emphasises that South Africans are eligible “to a police service that delivers high-quality services while maintaining high standards of professional conduct and discipline, and exhibits exemplary leadership and management”.

Ten of 13 participants in the individual semi-structured interviews viewed militarisation as linked to discipline and command and control. They argued that militarisation or demilitarisation cannot be only about ranks or forms of address. They criticised the NDP in that what makes out a military culture and what is required by demilitarisation are not clear formulated it. They mentioned that although the SAPS used military ranks, it did not mean that the SAPS was militaristic. They maintained that the NDP did not propose that SAPS should be disarmed. They believed that the SAPS should be more concerned about professionalism, discipline and accountability than whether it was militarised or demilitarised. They argued that the ranks and characteristics of the military in policing were not important but the code of conduct of the organisation, how it was entrenched, internalised and managed were.

The participants maintained that demilitarisation of the police took place when the police force transformed to police service. According to them, demilitarisation had already taken place during the review of “Section 49 of the Criminal Procedure Act that introduced minimum use of force when police effected an arrest”. This had transformed the SAPS and changed the image of the SAPS – as seen by the community and the SAPS – to no longer adopting a military stance in effecting arrest. According to Participant 7 the demilitarisation and transformation of the SAPS had positive spinoffs, but at the same time, it had a negative impact. This was because the amendment regarding the use of force had created a situation where police officials were no longer sure how and when to apply a force that was adequate to the circumstances as required by Section 49 of the Criminal Procedure Act. This had led to an increase in police killings and the community saw the police as ineffective compared with criminals. It had

created positive spinoffs in the sense that human rights and civic organisations applauded the amendment as it is centred on the protection of human rights as enshrined in the Constitution.

Four of the 13 participants in the individual semi-structured interviews viewed demilitarising and civilizing the police as changing the approach from a police force that used to enforce policies of the apartheid regime to a police service that protected and served its community. They maintained that demilitarising and civilianising the police contributed to eliminating a militaristic approach, doctrine and apparatuses, and adopting a more civilian approach. Participant 2 indicated that it was a myth that ranks, weapons and regalia instilled fear in criminals. According to seven of the 13 participants, effectiveness, competency and professionalism deterred would-be criminals as they would be aware of the fact that they would be arrested should they commit crime. Criminals should not fear police, but fear committing a crime because of police competency and professionalisation. According to Participant 5, undesirable behaviour and organisational and operational deficiencies of the police, which were due to *inter alia* weak organisational and institutional structures, poor decision-making and command structures, and poor resourcing did not necessarily equate to militarisation of the police. This participant maintained that the incidents of brutality conducted by SAPS members over the years, demonstrated unprofessional behaviour and was a result of lack of accountability and poor management as well as lack of tolerance in delivering service to all communities.

In general, community policing was associated with civilisation of the police. However, participants were concerned about the lack of understanding of community policing among the participants as the community was struggling with its implementation. Some participants had the perception that the implementation of the policing model that enforced community policing and capacitation of police had a huge role in demilitarisation of the police. Others argued that the use of force and the abuse of power was still very rife within the SAPS. They indicated that this was evident with the “number of civil claims lodged against the SAPS for unlawful arrest, assault and *crimen injuria*”. Through media and public domain information, the SAPS was still heavily criticised about the use of force during protest actions.

Participants argued that demilitarisation of police meant adoption of competency- and principle-based policing and subtle changes in the organisational management of the

organisation from commanding to managing, adopting participative planning and effective consultation, implementing two-way communication and not only a top-down approach and proportional utilisation of force by the SAPS. They agreed that demilitarisation aimed to create a positive image of the SAPS as being a friendly, client-centred organisation. One participant's view was that it did not really matter whether the SAPS was perceived to be a military or civil organisation as long as it was committed to service delivery and adhered to human rights as spelt out by the RSA Constitution. The participants agreed that the police were required "to ensure that the use of force complied with human rights principles and there was great accountability in the governance of police". They maintained that re-affirming the commitment to quality service delivery and human rights principles automatically balanced the concerns about militarisation and demilitarisation.

The participants proposed further research into the demilitarisation of the police and the review of the legislation governing the use of force. One of the participants argued that the concept of what constituted a community when the NDP referred to building safer communities was still not clear; hence he proposed further research into it. In concluding the discussion on demilitarisation of police and civilianising the police. Participant 11 questioned the relevance of the demilitarisation priority area in building safer communities. He asked whether demilitarising and civilianising the police would make communities safe and argued that people did not feel unsafe because of militarisation. Hence he felt that demilitarisation was misplaced in the NDP Chapter 12's five priorities areas for building safer communities. He said that demilitarisation was not even included in the RSA Medium Term Strategic Framework 2014-2019 because there was a perception that it did not contribute to feeling safer in communities.

The findings of the study underscored the importance of the recruitment of experienced, competent and credible officials within the CJS. They further confirmed the need for the improvement in salary packages of officials within the CJS as they performed essential service in putting their lives in danger and at risk. In enhancing the CJS, the participants maintained that the recruitment, retention of experienced prosecutors and detectives and the capacitation of courts should be prioritised. The participants emphasised the importance of rooting out corruption, adhering to the Bill of Rights relating to equal accessibility to justice. All the departments within the CJS should improve their measures to, *inter alia*, address corruption,

instil self-discipline and advance performance. The study revealed that non-attendance to corruption, discipline and poor performance affected the public confidence and trust in the CJS and JSPS.

8.5 BUILDING SAFETY USING AN INTEGRATED APPROACH

The NDP prioritises the strengthening of the CJS and applying an integrated approach in building safer communities. From the observations and findings in this chapter, cooperation in policing and an effective CJS is important in building safer communities. It is evident that police alone cannot bring about safer communities – it requires the entire CJS and various stakeholders and role-players. Community participation is also paramount in building safer communities. Strategic imperatives towards building safety and addressing the root causes of crime include community mobilisation and cooperation through inclusive interaction. Linking the findings of this chapter and those of Chapters 6 and 7, participants confirmed that addressing root causes of crime such as substance abuse were critical in building community safety. The Department of Social Development (2010) states that “substance abusers in SA are likely to be youth and, increasingly, female”. Schoolchildren “in both rural and urban areas were increasingly becoming drug-users as substances such cannabis (dagga) and cocaine were becoming widely available”. Addressing accessibility of firearms, drugs and alcohol and enforcement of relevant bylaws and laws could reduce crime rooted in their accessibility. In turn, this could assist in creating a safer environment for women and children who were confirmed by the participants as the common victims of GBVF. According to the 2013 White Paper on Families in SA, women who “experienced sexual or physical abuse in relationships were more likely to be diagnosed with a sexually transmitted infection, test positive for HIV, suffer from depression or consider suicide” (Department of Social Development, 2013).

The participants concurred that there was an increasing number of young people who were parents and responsible for households. Collapse of family structures, social instabilities and lack of proper role models were substantiated as contributing to juvenile delinquency. The participants supported the view that responsible role-models were lacking in most societies, rich or poor. This had the general consequence of children learning to mirror their disrespect for the law through their observation of strong personalities in their communities, such as

bullies, gangsters, criminals, or even ordinary people who did not abide by the rule of law, stole electricity and failed to pay for services, and prominent public figures who were corrupt.

The participants agreed that the school dropout rate was increasing. This had potential for children learning to survive by forming social groups and even gangs to look out for each other. Children should be nurtured to follow rules and respect the law. Young people are generally not emotionally intelligent and do not know how to deal with their frustration, disagreements and setbacks, the participants stated. Lack of early intervention by parents resulted in juvenile delinquency which, in turn, had to be dealt with by the CJS. The country needed to invest adequately in quality education and social services to support ECD, parental responsibilities and healthcare to contribute to community safety. The participants urged for adequate investment in programmes to address social and health-related factors, such as substance abuse which contributed to crime.

Investing in ECD, public values to generate moral fibre and community-based healthcare includes both formal and informal interventions that improve the quality of life. Schools should enhance dignity and promote learning, and not put children at risk. The interventions should have long-term and short-term objectives. The study revealed that investing in ECD in the long term contributes to development and learning and in the short term contributes to providing children with safe spaces where they can be nurtured. The participants underscored the importance of developing and implementing parenting skills programmes and support systems. They emphasised the importance of investing in ECD to develop social responsibilities such as ethical, legal, economic and philanthropic responsibilities. Such responsibilities are social drivers of responsible society, service delivery and good governance. Participants underlined the importance of childhood development programmes to include appreciation of social diversity, inculcating a culture of patriotism and moral regeneration, obedience to rules and the law, strengthening emotional-intelligence, inculcating tolerance, instilling a culture of respect for others, the law, human rights, humanity, and the authority of the state, and a culture of zero-tolerance for crime and violence. If the childhood development agenda in SA could include the above, the county would realise its dream of building safer communities, uprooting the causes of violent and unsafe societies and promoting active citizenry.

Through joint intervention all stakeholders should engage with communities and respond to crime and violence. There should be social crime prevention interventions grounded in known and accepted practices. It is essential to disseminate required information publicly and promote “citizens’ participation in crime prevention. Joint community and government participation in the prevention of crime” through different forms of awareness campaigns and community outreaches can contribute to creation of safer communities.

Through public education, “attitudes towards crime and the willingness of communities to take responsibility” could be inculcated. In turn, public education could reduce tolerance towards crime, hence reducing crime levels. The study revealed that community mobilisation and social interventions assist in fighting crime and addressing the social ills in the community. The study further indicated that social cohesion was essential in addressing the rifts in South African society. Social cohesion results in public tolerance, and trust and confidence in the government. Community development programmes on safety and implementation of a policing model tailor-made for South African challenges could assist in rooting-out the main root causes of unsafe communities and violent crime. Reducing the “number of firearms in circulation was highlighted as one of the critical issues” that needed to be addressed as they used in the commission of the most violent crime.

Corruption erodes the confidence and trust of communities in government. It further leads to non-reporting of crime, vigilantism and a culture of lawlessness. Owing to corruption, the communities end-up not respecting government institutions and law: as a result the country becomes lawless. Participants maintained that imposing harsher sentences on the corrupted and the corrupter should serve as deterrents. They referred to countries such as Botswana, which gives heavy penalties, hence experiencing less crimes than SA.

The participants maintained that there was corruption among public servants that hindered proper service delivery in the community. They confirmed moral fibre decay in society. Respect for human dignity is the foundation of moral regeneration. The participants maintained that moral decay was contributing to unsafe communities. They alluded to the target market for stolen properties. They maintained that the communities were buying stolen property. Therefore, they were the beneficiaries of proceeds of crime and were contributing to the unsafe

communities. Therefore, lack of moral fibre contributed to a culture of violence and of general lawlessness.

The media reports highlight greediness is an excessive desire for wealth. It is one the causes of corruption. Dominance of immorality contributes to lack of service delivery and crime. The participants confirmed that corruption led to poor service delivery. They believed that violent protest actions return spills over in looting, vandalism and other forms of thefts, including injuries and even loss of lives. Some of these community protests, which are due to poor service delivery and corruption, contribute to community unsafety. Even though “the right to protest is enshrined in the RSA Constitution, it is common knowledge that some of those end up being violent”, where, for example, shops are looted and government properties burnt. Private property is also sometimes damaged or burnt. Participants confirmed that corruption blocked implementation of programmes and effective functioning of municipalities, government departments and other entities.

Participants added the importance of “cooperation and coordination in local, provincial and national government departments”. “Lack of integration among the three spheres of government” regarding safety aspects is indicative of lack of social cohesion and malfunctioning relationships within government departments. The findings revealed that there was a need to enhance cooperation and coordination within government departments in dealing with the root causes of unsafe communities. According to participants, government departments and levels of government should stop working in silos to avoid implementation of initiatives piecemeal or delayed. The root problems of lack of cooperation and coordination with other government departments should be addressed.

Participants complained about the lack of effectivity of municipalities. They confirmed the need for improvement in enforcement of bylaws, adding that the lack of bylaws was contributing to unsafe communities. Their view was that municipalities neglected their roles regarding the prevention of crime and implementation of safety programmes. Furthermore, undesirable and spatial environmental designs created challenges that compromised the safety of the communities. The findings demonstrated the need for spatial planning systems to consider and circumvent infrastructural contributors to crime and for town planners to plan for public spaces with safety in mind. They further stated that the mushrooming of informal

settlements occurred without infrastructure, such as provision of roads, water, electricity, lights and recreation facilities being considered. Thus, communities exposed to unsafe conditions. Therefore, they suggested the establishment of a consultative board of police officers to advise town planners and developers.

It is vital that “all three spheres of government work together to provide basic needs to the communities through service delivery”. The participants underscored collaboration within the spheres of government to develop safer communities. Collaboration should entail planning and executing plans in a coordinated way, ensuring efficient use of resources, providing coordinated and seamless services and better accounting to the community to communities. They stressed that municipalities should prevent crime through environmental maintenance, such as fixing street lights, cutting grass, tree-felling and demolition of old unused structures.

Law enforcement agencies at local, provincial, national and international levels should work together according to regulations and treaties governing countries and agencies. The findings underscored and confirmed the significance of law enforcement agencies planning together. However, planning together and mutually and optimally utilising resources within the different mandates to effectively implement safety programmes was not always the case. Participants emphasised the importance of the departments in the CJS and JCPS Clusters working together for realisation of safer communities. However, they felt this was very difficult to achieve. They stated that in theory this was happening; in reality not so everywhere.

The findings in this section introduced and underlined collaboration among the special interest groups to ensure that communities with special needs were served, e.g. working with sign-language organisations was alluded to as this could assist officials at service points in meeting specific requirements of a specific interest group. They confirmed that the police, government departments, civil societies, communities, business communities, politicians, traditional leaders, NGOs, churches and religious organisations should collaborate in building safer communities through joint programmes, collaboration, safety meetings, forums and street committees, *izimbizo* and community outreach.

Participants introduced development of curriculum in basic education to instil a culture of respect for the law. Participants proposed that the Department of Higher Education, Science

and Technology and research institutions assist with research capacity to enable police to design intervention programmes aimed at building safe communities. They further proposed that the Department of Social Development (DSD) develop a culture of tolerance for diversity in communities. The Department of Employment and Labour (DEL) should enhance its efforts to create jobs and to review legislation that deterred potential investors from starting businesses. Public and private sectors should collaborate to promote economic growth.

The study confirmed that the SAPS through SARPPCO and INTERPOL should liaise with other countries to collectively deal with the problem of transnational organised crime. The study indicated that international governments and partners should engage with SA on issues of transnational crimes, terrorism, cybercrime, the increase in illegal migrants and emerging modus operandi of international criminals. It further suggested that both the local private sector and international stakeholders should assist with the mobilisation of support initiatives aimed at achieving safer communities.

Chapters 6 and 7 indicated that basic living conditions in SA, which include social, psychological, health and economic conditions, contribute to community unsafety. Therefore, building safer communities “cannot be achieved if not all government departments, communities and stakeholders integrate their approaches and resources and work together” towards achieving the vision of the NDP Chapter 12. Community programmes to build safer communities should be strengthened to deal with issues such as accessibility to basic human needs. This includes applying integrated approaches to addressing social, psychological, health and economic conditions as a vehicle to drive towards building safer communities. Participants confirmed that increasing levels of employment and advancing economic development with the creation and implementation of an inclusive economy development strategy were fundamental in building safer communities.

8.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY SAFETY

The community has a critical role to play in crime control. Its role includes compliance with the law, prevention of crime, and assistance with apprehension of criminals. Citizens are expected to take responsibility for what is happening within their communities by reporting crime and discouraging criminality. Research participants, however, mentioned critical issues

in getting the communities to work with the CJS, such as some police acts that resulted in lack of trust and confidence in the CJS. Participants urged the government to provide continuous support for initiatives addressing quality of life issues. They indicated the significance of government departments working with communities to identify challenges that contributed to lack of community safety and providing a responsive service to address them.

Comprehension of criminal activities, their structures and dynamics are essential for designing models for crime prevention and prediction. Participants maintained that communities knew how crime was committed and by whom, therefore they did understand how to prevent it. The findings indicated the existence of crime hotspots and uncovered the dynamic nature of criminal activities. This begs for crime preventative and predictive models that both integrate demographic uniqueness of a community and its crime patterns and rates. Participants referred to communities' understanding of crime dynamics in their communities and the significance of safety strategies to incorporate such dynamics. Therefore, the study confirmed the importance of mobilising various community structures to form part of the strategy in building safer communities.

The findings further revealed that collaboration with communities to understand the true nature of their problems and develop, understand and – implement shared strategies was fundamental in best dealing with community problems that negatively affect social well-being of society. When different stakeholders are effectively working together in communities and involving them, shared values are advanced. Communities' shared values shape and allow them to assist in the development of real-time policies that are comprehensive and acceptable to citizens. Participants mentioned that shared values could contribute towards building safer communities, such as reacting to criminal behaviour in a way that emphasises prevention and law enforcement of law being committed to maintaining the highest level of integrity and professionalism in all operations, adhering to the fundamental values of delivering services in a way that maintains and advances democratic values, and committing to deliver services in a manner that best support communities.

Participants stated that government should be more responsive to and less defensive of criticism in its pursuit of service excellence, while the community should be more engaged, support service delivery programmes and protect community resources. The communities should

understand that the burden of safety and security is not the sole responsibility of the police but the responsibility of everybody. As a result, there is a need to restructure the current approach to policing. The safety structures and formations should, among others, include traffic and metropolitan authorities, community safety structures such as CPFs, neighbourhood watches and street safety committees. The study indicated that it was critical to establish public safety officer structure. Such officers' duties would include patrolling public spaces and reporting criminal and safety-related matters.

8.7 VARIABLES SHAPING DIRECTION OF NDP IMPLEMENTATION

Implementation of public policy remains not “an easy exercise due to the high expectations it generates” (Mokhaba, 2005). Public policy implementation is “a process that can carry on for a long time”. According to Mokhaba (2005:128), there are five critical variables that influence and shape the direction of public policy implementation. These variables include “context, content, commitment, capacity, clients, and coalitions”. In addition, there are two other variables, namely leadership and management and monitoring and evaluation. This section analyses and discusses the critical variables that shape the direction for building safer communities.

8.7.1 Content

Content has the capability to shape public policy implementation. Cloete and Wissink (2000:177) suggest “that policy is distributive, regulatory or redistributive”. Distributive “policies create public good for general welfare and are non-zero-sum in character”. Regulatory policies state “rules that should be followed or obeyed and that those who do not comply are punished”. Redistributive policies “are developed to change the allocation of wealth or power of some groups at the expense of others” (Cloete, Wissink & De Coning, 2006:197).

According to the participants, the SAPS had not made sufficient effort to implement the NDP, hence there was lack of understanding of the NDP purpose and participation by other primary stakeholders. The BOC for SAPS was never workshopped on the NDP and on a definite implementation plan driven by all levels in the organisation. They stated that the NDP was fragmented and not driven in unison by the SAPS. The outcomes, purpose and principles of

the NDP should be “known at all levels of the organisation”. The study revealed that there was a lack of understanding and unpacking of the NDP. However, the NDP was a well-known concept in the SAPS, whether is used in or out of context, it remained challenging at various levels.

To measure progress with the NDP Chapter 12 implementation, it is important to establish, document and measure the level of commitment of stakeholders. During document analysis it was evident that there were various initiatives that were linked to a socially cohesive and safe SA. However, participants recommended that the number of programmes and projects that were initiated to address the NDP Chapter 12 be clearly stated to track subsequent implementation. Although SAPS Annual Reports from 2014 to 2015 to 2019 to 2020 financial years were analysed to do so, there is lack of evidence of programmes and projects still being active after a specified period of time, and of progress reports submitted and successfully completed as there was no evidence of short-term, medium-term and long-term plans put in place to monitor NDP implementation other than the Strategic Plan 2014–2019 and the Strategic Plan 2020–2025.

Although these high-level strategic plans were implemented and monitored, their alignment with the realisation of the vision for safer communities is not clear as the Annual Operational Plan (AOP), Annual Performance Plan (APP) and Strategic Plans had not been aligned. The contributory factor to this challenge was the gap that had been created with the inception of the NDP as the SAPS had not done full justice to unpacking, translating and analysing the five priority areas stated in the NDP Chapter 12. The SAPS business units further had not aligned themselves with the five priority areas. This is evident with the Annual Reports’ compilation where, although SAPS employed and trained a number of people, there was lack of linkages with the NDP priorities and lack of direct projections, set “targets and time frames for the realisation of the NDP recommendations”. The specific Annual Reports further did not clearly describe and articulate stakeholders actively participating in the NDP implementation. There was no mention of the strategic meetings held in the financial year to manage the Plan and percentages of stakeholders attending such meetings.

8.7.2 Context

Policies are developed in the context of environments in which they will be implemented. Implementers of NDP should consider “challenges emanating from contextual influence that impact on effective implementation processes of the NDP”, not only in the SAPS but also country-wide. Mokhaba (2005:129) emphasises that “public policy implementation does not take place in a vacuum, but under specific political, social, economic and legal contexts”, as a result they address specific areas. This study confirmed that effective NDP implementation was negatively affected by “the unique historical, economic, social and political situational factors” of the country. The study further revealed that NDP implementation was facing some unique limitations which had the potential to impede successful NDP implementation. These limitations include political interference that hinders effective implementation of necessary initiatives that support the vision of NDP, and the current state of the economic development in the country that poses a serious threat towards the attainment of Vision 2030. The participants indicated that RSA demographics influenced NDP implementation. The community was too diverse and could not effectively be policed with the actual presence of human resources alone. One of the participants felt that there was a need for policing strategies to go beyond relying on the ‘bobby on the beat’ concept. In other words, the police did not necessarily need to be physically present to prevent crime, but crime should be prevented by the mere knowledge that ‘if this is reported to the police, I am in trouble’.

At times implementers need to accommodate various perceptions “in order to build effective working relations that would allow successful policy implementation processes”. Therefore, in-depth engagement in the NDP is essential. The national government departments should become more involved in communities and local governments. The NDP Vision 2030 is for the long term. However, there is no clear strategy or implementation plan for achieving the objectives. Now in 2021, nine years after the adoption of the NDP, there does not appear to be a clear strategy or implementation plan for achieving the objectives, both at national and local levels. Participants maintained that primary prevention investments were recognised as long-term investments that show significant results in 12 to 15 years. They felt that there had not been significant investment in social crime prevention.

8.7.3 Commitment

Mokhaba (2005:129) endorses that even if public policy fulfils every single one of the requirements of satisfactory policy content and cost-benefit analysis, in addition available resources, it will not be executed if its actors and implementers remain not committed. Commitment is a positive catalyst for effective and responsive NDP implementation. Therefore, commitment remains a pillar guaranteeing NDP implementation.

Generally, government develops public policies with commitment to improve the well-being of its citizens. Therefore, implementing government public policies is integral to and an act of good governance. Realisation of good governance is important in developing communities “in a sustainable manner and being responsive to their needs, while remaining accountable to voters”. In achieving the five priorities of the NDP Chapter 12, “those who are responsible should be willing to implement the NDP”. The willingness to do so goes with commitment. It further demands ethical, competent and visionary management and leadership. This points to the fact that the skills of NDP implementers need to be enhanced through training and development in order to ensure effective implementation.

Skilled public servants with the correct attitude and qualities for service delivery are required implement the NDP. They should be committed and act in the interests of the community. Participants felt that the instability in the SAPS, and lack of motivation and deficiency in management and leadership added to the challenges that impeded successful NDP implementation. According to Cloete and Wissink (2000:181), there are factors that reinforce key policy implementation variables. Such factors include commitment at all levels through which the NDP passes. Commitment is influenced by content, capacity, context, clients and coalitions. For effective implementation of NDP, implementers cannot overlook these linkages. The CJS implementers of NDP have to determine the most appropriate ones for the implementation process.

Crime analysts argue that the community has lost trust in the police, hence, the community is not cooperating with police initiatives to curb crime. Police need to work on building trust and winning the community. Participants indicated commitment to serve goes with striving for professionalism and attitudes and winning the trust and confidence of the community. They

indicated that police should be totally committed to uphold the highest level of professionalism and integrity. Participants maintained that corruption had a negative impact on community safety. They stated that in the midst of corruption police threatened community safety and relationships. The study confirmed the importance of effectively monitoring and evaluating the institutionalisation and internalisation of integrity and the ethics management strategy in the SAPS. It further validated effectively monitoring and evaluating the institutionalisation and internalisation of the code of conduct and ethics as organisational norms, values and culture.

The findings revealed the significance of designating a high-ranking police member to serve as value compliance manager to ensure that values were effectively institutionalised and internalised in the SAPS. The findings further indicated that the designated compliance manager should ensure that values were effectively incorporated into all aspects of policing, used in the development of all police policies, regulations and procedures, incorporated into training and development programmes, be well-publicised in the community and integrated in the performance evaluation system, be used as part of the disciplinary process and during inspections and auditing the performance of units.

Participants confirmed that professional police services went with commitment to lawfulness and determination to policing. They maintained that although police received their power from the government and the regulations, they also received it from the community in each and every interaction. They viewed commitment to lawfulness and policing as symbolised by *inter alia* upholding the 1996 Constitution of RSA, complying with human rights principles, ensuring equal services to all communities, striving to satisfy all clients with service delivery, building the confidence and trust of the community, enhancing community policing and involving the community in crime prevention can contribute toward the police service being the service of excellent and high-quality. Constant engagement with relevant role-players and stakeholders promotes informed decision-making and directives in the NDP implementation. Participants indicated that constant engagement and improvement of internal and external communication channels, not only show determination to policing but also to professionalising police services.

Participants viewed lack of accountability in the public sector as a contributory factor in the lack of trust, confidence and respect for the government and public servants. There is a dire need to restore a culture of accountability in the public sector in order to address the needs and

concerns of communities. Participants referred to commitment to accountability as part of professionalising the SAPS. Police were obligated to “account for their actions, not only in their chain of command within SAPS units but also to citizen”, communities, government, oversight bodies and court of law. They added that obligation went beyond government bodies to community-based organisations and citizens. Participants stressed the interconnectedness of accountability with performance management, consequence management and discipline management pertaining to professionalisation of the police service. Interconnectedness inculcates healthier organisational culture, and a sense of belonging and pride in members. The failure of any interconnectedness may lead to unprofessional service delivery. They underscored that true commitment to accountability can be realised through *inter alia* depoliticising policing, consultative, integrated and participative planning and appointment of ethical and competent police leadership.

The study validated that commitment to innovation and active investment to resources were key in professionalising the police service. It advanced the fact that human and physical resources were important in this regard. Participants affirmed that decentralisation of resources to station level where they were mostly needed was a great investment in service delivery coupled with upliftment of police morale. The findings further demonstrated the importance of advancing policing in the direction of the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) for the police to provide real-time service to communities. The study cited the importance of improving ICT resources by investing in hi-tech and sophisticated resources as part of bringing innovation to policing. Investment in technology could improve the systems and processes utilised in servicing communities. Commitment to innovation would capacitate the operatives with effective, adequate and purposeful tools of trade. The SAPS should adopt technology as a strategic resource other than a supporting tool and frequently review regulatory frameworks to keep abreast with evolution in the field of ICT and advances in the 4IR.

The findings of this study confirmed the need for researchers and academics to commit to participating in conversations about professional policing nationally. Researchers and academics should lead in benchmarking against international standards of policing. This would guide police service professionalisation, alignment and enhancement. The policing approach should be similar to that of developed corresponding countries in respect of training of police

officers, commanders, managers, leaders and executives in practices and theories that underlay policing practice.

8.7.4 Capacity

Barret (2004:255) highlights the importance of the ability of decision-makers to guide the policy implementation stage. Pulz and Treib (2010:91) maintain that “community institutions should have sufficient resources, an established implementation system, and clear responsibilities and hierarchical control to supervise implementers’ actions”. Capacity, as viewed by Brynard (2005:181), generally could generally be seen as “structural, functional and cultural abilities to deliver the necessary service”. Capacity refers to the “structural, functional and cultural abilities to implement public policy objectives” (Brynard, 2005:660). Capacity consequently “taps into the availability of and access to tangible resources such as human, financial, material, technological and logical resources”. Brynard and De Coning (2006:199) augment “that capacity also includes intangible resources in the form of leadership, motivation, commitment, willingness, courage, endurance and other attributes needed to translate public policy into action”. Brynard (2005:192) states “that intangible capacity to implement involves the political, administrative, economic, technological, ethical and social environment within which action is taken”.

In implementing the NDP, availability and accessibility of the right capacity is essential. The study confirmed that success in building safer communities was dependent on both “tangible and intangible resources”. The participants mentioned “human, financial, material, technological and logistical resources”. These resources should be available and accessible to CJS actors and implementers of the NDP. The successful implementation of the NDP and achieving its Chapter 12 five priorities are highly dependent on intangible resources. The participants indicated that intangible capacity to implement the NDP involved the political, administrative, economic, technological, ethical and social environments within which action is taken. The environments should be conducive to successful implementation of the NDP (see Figure 8.1).

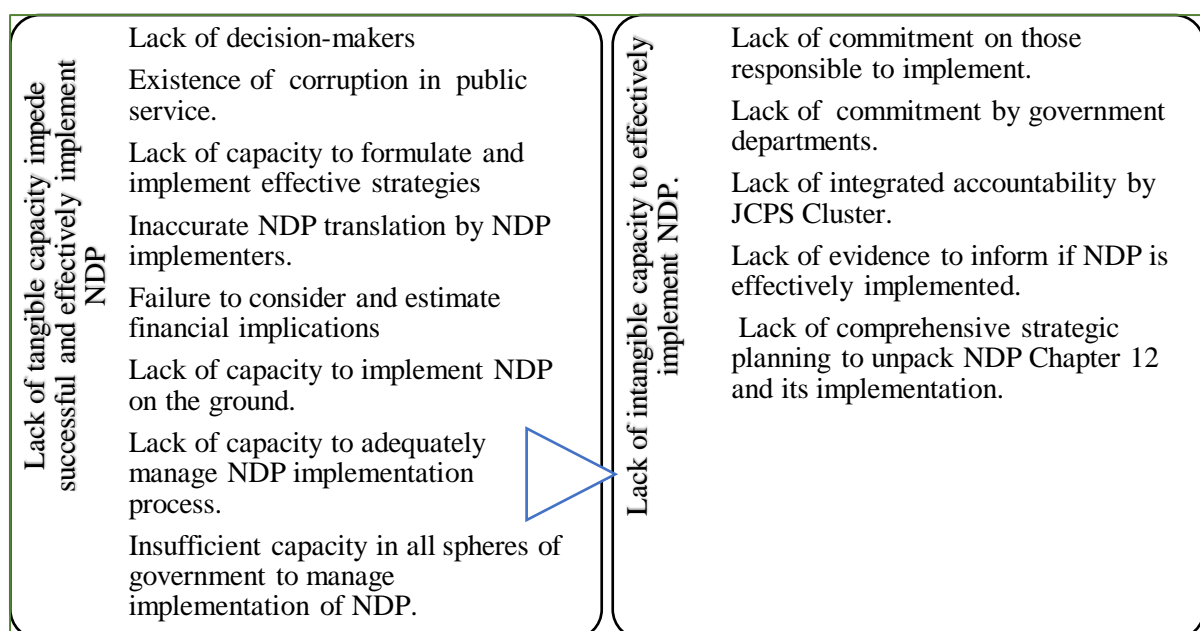


Figure 0.1: Views on government providing high levels of service

There are critical role-players and stakeholders in achieving the vision of safer communities. Their involvement and influence in the NDP implementation towards safer communities is paramount. It is evident from this study that government was viewed as the heartbeat of the NDP implementation process. The participants confirmed that government should support a progressive agenda towards safer communities. They indicated that elected political executives were not effectively using their constituency mandate through debates and campaigns to advance matters that enhanced successful NDP implementation. Furthermore, academic institutions, the sources of view-makers who could contribute to effective NDP implementation, were criticised in this study for lack of commitment to actively hold debates, and publish and register opinions that could assist in achieving safer communities.

All government department executives by virtue of being public servants are responsible for assessing the status of NDP implementation regarding urgency of issues to be addressed in building safer communities and budgetary implications of the NDP agenda, priorities and capacity to implement. However, this study showed lack of both tangible and intangible capacity to effectively implement the NDP. As many other good policies, the NDP needs to be funded for it to have impact. The participants were concerned about how policing could be enhanced while National Treasury SA was severely cutting the police budget. They further

indicated that resource deployment and allocation did not respond to the policing demand and as a result NDP objectives would not be easily met. Policing demands and implementation of legislation call for recruitment and training of more new recruits. However, the funding of such needs remained a challenge because of a significant reduction in the police budget. The Minister of Finance's pronouncement of early retirement without penalties also had a negative impact on the SAPS capacity.

The interconnectedness of public policy implementation could be used to advance the objective of seeking to determine what public policy involves and what challenges exist in implementing those policies (Cloete *et al.* 2006). Before the roll-out of programmes associated with NDP implementation, prioritisation of allocation of resources, including budgeting and selection of resources needed for implementation, were essential. This study found that there was lack of prioritisation of such allocation. The study further revealed that there was lack of roll-out of actual programmes directly linked to NDP implementation. The participants indicated that they were not aware of administrative and legal procedures used to enforce NDP implementation. They were aware of accountability at the PCOP, but not for NDP implementation inclusively.

Because of lack of monitoring, which is linked to NDP implementation, evaluation and assessment, the impact and value of implementation could not be measured effectively. A feedback report could not be compiled and issued to relevant decision-makers on the impact of the implementation of NDP. The observations and findings of this study failed to indicate the level of implementation maturity of NDP implementation. The findings pointed to limited evidence that the NDP implementation process was well-managed and supervised. The participants highlighted that SAPS Strategic Management and Planning Office at national level was familiar with the NDP which was not the case at the provincial and local levels. They indicated a need to unpack and enhance the significance of the NDP in advancing safer communities. The long-term planning for its implementation and alignment of activities should be co-ordinated and documented. All police members should understand and know the concept of building the communities in SA.

Some participants indicated that some police members were in the police because of economic challenges, not because they were police at heart. This suggests that while the communities require an accountable, responsive and resourceful SAPS with competent, and skilled and

disciplined police members, this may not be so in the case with those who join the police simply for employment. This demands the review of the recruitment and selection policy in the SAPS to ensure that the suitable applicants are employed.

The study affirmed the qualities required for professional and excellent police members. The participants and Brown (2013) identify the following fundamental pointers for police of such calibre: High commitment to community policing, a drive to achieve the objectives, personal interest in the needs of communities, commitment to work together with a team to achieve goals, understanding the value of educating communities as a tool to lead change, desire to build positive relationships community members, dealing effectively with situations and negative comments directed to them, care for those they serve and are devotion to making life better for others, alert and observant and 'street-smart' or 'streetwise', desire to protect people and dislike of criminal behaviour, Strength to do what needs to be done, even in the face of resistance, ability to enforce the law, give orders to people, and be tough when necessary, the ability to be in charge' when situations call for it, ability to be flexible and meet challenging conditions in the SAPS, ethical, honest and trustworthy behaviour, obeying laws, high standard of integrity, understanding democratic principles and policing in a democratic society, consistency regardless of different settings, and visibility, both in the organisation and the community. Participants underscored that commitment to investment in personnel went with recruitment, selection, employment and retention. They emphasised that actual and perceived corruption during recruitment, selection and employment in the police should be addressed.

The findings of this study confirmed that the highest standards of training should not only focus on knowledge and understanding, but also on assessing practical skills. Learning programmes and training should advance quality service delivery. Participants emphasised the significance of police officials' comprehension and application of the basic human rights and legal aspects. They highlighted the necessity of the acquisition of knowledge, practical skills, positive attitudes and confidence in doing the job as these attributes and skills could ultimately lead to service excellence. They affirmed the importance of the establishment of a professional body for police to regulate professional policing standards, the development of police and professional conduct of police. Such professional body should establish a body of knowledge (BOK) for policing. This BOK should focus on the core teaching and skills required to work in a field of policing.

Participants stressed the significance of in-service training and on-the-job training in the workplace and bursary allocation to inculcate the culture of learning in the SAPS. They maintained that commitment to human capital could address the police tendency of resorting to abuse of power and brutality when faced with difficult situations or circumstances during execution of duties. In addition, it could also contribute to a change in mindset and understanding that as police they were ‘servants’ of citizens.

Participants in line with Brown (2013) highlighted the following competencies as necessary for policing in the 21st century: communication to interact with people in communities; interpersonal skills to interact tactfully and convincingly with the public; public speaking to connect with the community and participate in problem-solving activities; crime analysis to identify crime patterns; ability link events to crime and examine incidents to determine their cause in order to solve problems; strategic and tactical analytical skills to effectively engage in problem-solving, and community organisational skills to understand the dynamics of communities and groups; and understanding of what constitutes a community, the reasons that communities form and stay together, and cultural, religious, and political differences and how they influence the structure of communities.

Participants indicated the importance of the SAPS enhancing its Employer Value Proposition by institutionalising credible, principled and compulsory employee wellness and reviewing employees’ conditions of service. These conditions included promotions, career-pathing, succession and retention strategy to advance professional police service and improve the impact on investment on human capital. Participants stated the significance and urgency of the review of the promotional policy and development of skills retention and succession strategy. These were viewed as cause-drivers for the challenges associated with the movement of members of the various units in seeking promotion and growth. Challenges with the lack of implementation of tailor-made promotional policy and succession plan strategy that contribute to difficulties in measuring the return-on-investment and impact on SAPS investment in recruiting and training and developing members and the impact it has on building the safer communities required assessment.

Participants alluded to reconsideration of payment of frontline police officers to reduce risk of engaging in criminal acts or unbecoming conduct. However, this suggestion received heavy criticism, including the issue of the senior police officers being paid high salaries but still being involved in corruption – implying that high salary would never transform unethical conduct. They added that the recruitment strategy should assess commitment to lawfulness, legitimacy, determination to policing and crime reduction. This, in turn, would include commitment to reduction of crime and not contributing to crime. Participants maintained that the recruitment strategy should profile recruits committed to law enforcement and policing. Further, it should bring about development of strategies to deal with different crimes and reduce the occurrence of such crimes, to implement the vision of building safer communities.

8.7.5 Clients and coalitions

As stated by Cloete, Wissink and De Coning (2008:203) “for effective policy implementation and in the interest of efficiency and efficacy, government should join coalitions of interest groups, opinion leaders, actors and parties who support a particular implementation process”. According to Mokhaba (2005:133) “identifying clients and coalitions should be done in a way that seeks to identify whether the influence will be favourable or unfavourable”. As stated by Gumede (2008:07) “the nature of the public policy implementation process in SA is encapsulated in the seeking of partnerships and involvement of actors in the public policy implementation and in other stages of the public policy is evident in various strategies”. John (2003:485) supports “the ability to examine strategies of actors within institutions”. The involvement of such actors brings awareness regarding “the weakness of being self-centred rather than seeking consultation, collaboration” to the benefit of all. All actors and their strategies are vital to public policy implementation, as the effectiveness and success of any public policy remains dependent on what way implementation strategies are employed to achieve the intended objectives.

Therefore, the successful implementation of the NDP is based on clients and coalitions. It requires collaboration, consultation, and communication with them. This creates a platform for sharing ideas and predicting viable alternatives through which optimum results could be achieved. On the other hand, the identification of clients and coalitions could tend to limit the scope and promote bias and subjectivity as it could exclude significant role-players and

stakeholders. Therefore, the SAPS should be sensitive of the limitations of identification of clients and coalitions to maintain partiality.

Participants confirmed that there was need for a more integrated approach to building safer communities. The issue of safety is the responsibility of every committed citizenry. Most of the generators of crime are not within the scope of policing. Therefore, government will not realise Vision 2030 on its own. The achievement of the goals of the NDP is dependent on cooperation among various government departments and the community.

Participants revealed the gaps in the integrated approach and governance towards building safer communities. These gaps included ineffective stakeholder engagement and communication, loopholes in the development and formulation of the NDP, specifically NDP Chapter 12, lack of participation by stakeholders, lack of co-ordination between the levels of government and departments, lack of synchronisation of implementation activities between levels of government, lack of partnerships and coalitions between public and private agencies that possess the capabilities, resources and motivation to actively help implement the NDP and political interferences in the CJS .

According to Participant 3 of individual semi-structured interviews, “the community does not feel safe, few people trust the police or think that the CJS works. They march over lack of basic services such as water, electricity, housing, etc. The level of service of all departments has deteriorated over the last few years, which makes me to wonder if the 2030 timeline is not too ambitious”. Participants maintained that the responsibilities in the NDP relate to different departments and it was not clear to what extent the departments had jointly engaged in what needed to be done and how they were managing progress towards achieving these objectives.

8.7.6 Monitoring and evaluation

Frequent evaluation at an early stage of NDP implementation is essential to conduct a formal assessment of the achievability of different priorities of building safer communities. This suggests that the evaluation of NDP implementation not only takes place during the post-implementation phase – but also during the implementation phase. Mokhaba (2005:142) affirms this by stating that “public policy evaluation should not take place suddenly, abruptly

or haphazardly, but should be a continuous function”. Continuous implementation of NDP evaluation advocates focusing on short-term, medium-term, and long-term impact. This, in turn, assists in maximising the NDP improvement strategy. While the NDP implementation phase is a crucial indicator of how the plan process is developing, continuous plan monitoring and evaluation is an essential tool for identifying problems at all stages of the implementation.

For effective NDP implementation, constant monitoring and evaluation of the process is essential to provide opportunities for stakeholders and role-players to learn from its difficulties and failures. From the lessons learned, they can predict and advance improved means to achieve objectives. Ongoing monitoring promotes the accountability of expected NDP implementers. Monitoring is further capable of establishing human resource capacity challenges faced by organisations in implementing plans (Jones, 2011). Establishing NDP implementation challenges stimulates solutions and improves accountability.

The study revealed that there was lack of accurate monitoring and evaluation conducted in the implementation of not only of Chapter 12, but also all other NDP chapters. Furthermore, feedback on the implementation was not structured. Lack of feedback could hamper the process of *inter alia* consultation, information-sharing, openness, transparency, assessment and development in implementation. Lack of NDP evaluation and implementation feedback impacts on the future review of the NDP as its planners and implementers will struggle to ascertain NDP programmes that yield positive results and assess value for money. This further poses challenges in detecting the impellers of successful implementation and circumventing the NDP programmes that have prospects to produce undesired outcomes.

The study revealed that the benefits of NDP implementation in building safer communities were still to be achieved as most participants still did not feel safe. The lack of constant evaluation of NDP implementation in building safer communities stifled the forecasting of when the impact and vision of NDP implementation would possibly be realised. The lack of constant evaluation could result in inefficiency in establishing whether the actual vision of safer communities would be achieved within the given time, 2030. It has also resulted in ineffectiveness in determining the extent of costs in terms of tangible resources. Constant evaluation not only will contribute to the establishment of the NDP suitability to respond to the challenges that contribute to unsafe communities, but also on how effectively NDP

implementation would meet stakeholder and role-player expectations, namely building safer communities. The impact-driven evaluation would assess whether effective NDP implementation would meet the expectations of communities to being and feeling safe.

Monitoring and exploration of the effective execution of the NDP Chapter 12 should be of benefit. The lack of monitoring and evaluation of effective implementation affects the tracking of whether the NDP is moving towards meeting its objectives and whether its aims and objectives are realistic and achievable. It further affects the verification of whether execution of the plan is resulting in a noticeable improvement in the lives of communities. Effective NDP implementation depends on resources; therefore, its cost and sustainability need to be frequently monitored and assessed. This would not only check the change in public perceptions, but also determine challenges and uncertainties that hinder progress and delay implementation. It would further assess possible negative results or unintended consequences in implementation and how to adjust the strategies and programmes as implementation continues.

Building safer communities is not the sole responsibility of the SAPS, therefore monitoring and evaluation of effective NDP implementation would also check whether clients and coalitions are effective and successful as well as to what extent such clients and coalitions impacted on previously existing crime prevention initiatives. Those who were and are involved in NDP planning and implementation, through monitoring and evaluation could identify the benefits.

8.8 CONCLUSION

It is evident that there is a need for the identification and mandating of the national driver of public safety. It should not be the role of the Minister of Police alone to solve the problems that contribute to unsafe communities. One of the challenges that was experienced in implementing the NCPS was the role the Department of Safety and Security played in driving it. The NCPS was a cross-cutting developmental strategy for preventing crime. The reliance on only one department, which had no line function authority over other departments, led to the collapse of the NCPS. Therefore, community safety should be driven by the Presidency. It should make all ministers, premiers and mayors realise that safety is a collective problem that requires a ‘whole-of-government’ approach for joint problem-solving.

Crime prevention is linked to the NCPS, which clearly states who should participate and be included in the prevention of crime. If it is the critical element in building safer communities, all role-players mentioned in the NCPS should work to solve problems that contribute to people feeling unsafe. The tasking of crime prevention to the SAPS in Section 205 (3) of the Constitution is questionable as it is not only the task of the police to prevent crime. It is the researcher's view that Section 205 (3) of the Constitution should have referred to and tasked other role-players who are critical in crime prevention. The responsibility assigned to SAPS Public Order Police should be shared by others who are also responsible for order in the communities.

All government departments are obliged to be service-oriented. They should provide service in a professional manner and be responsive to community needs and accountable for addressing them. Collaboration is fundamental in developing safer communities. It plays a vital role in problem-solving involving communities. Collaboration, as driving force for safer communities, promotes *inter alia* sharing of information and research about crime and how to reduce it, jointly planning and coordination of crime prevention activities and resources, identification of information gaps, agreeing on and jointly setting priorities and lobbying stakeholders to be involved in preventing crime and violence. This could include putting pressure on partners who are not fulfilling their potential to reduce crime. Collaborative approaches could as well contribute to safety and crime reduction and strengthening the CJS.

Learning about the communities one serves and establishing relationships with community members play a significant role in enhancing quality of life. In learning about communities, a joint venture in problem-solving could be realised. This venture could also realise strong cooperation in identifying and analysing the causes of crime and developing innovative measures to deliver police services in the community. Strong cooperation with communities drives community empowerment. Once communities are empowered, they find it easy to participate in issues that affect quality of life. This would lead to joint responsibility among law-abiding community members. They would then participate in the decisions that impact their lives.

Chapter 9 presents participants' beliefs about the progress made in effectively achieving NDP implementation – in the context of their respective perspectives. It further focuses on recommendations and conclusions in the light of discussions of the findings presented in previous chapters. Chapter 9 pulls together the conclusions of the preceding chapters and derives from them suggestions and recommendations for building safer communities in SA. This chapter further proposes the *Safer Community Model for South Africa* and a *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities*.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The study examined the NDP vision for building safer communities. The discussion of the findings highlights the progress the SAPS has made in achieving this vision. However, the study also brings forth the challenges to the SAPS in this regard.

The study findings indicated the divergent views of the community and police member participants. These views could augment NDP Chapter 12 implementation to build safer communities – not only by the SAPS but also by the entire country, led by all government departments. Further, the findings pointed to areas of concerns, thereby facilitating the unpacking, understanding, translation, internalisation and implementation of the NDP.

The study findings confirmed the deep-rooted crises and factors influencing policy implementation in SA, as presented in Chapter 2. These crises include failure to deliberate and translate policies into long-term plans. Furthermore, the study revealed lack of planning tools, systems and competencies to implement policies. The NDP was not immune to these crises. As a result, the findings of this study uncovered that the NDP Chapter 12 lacked clear SMART targets and good indicators that are specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-related. The lack of SMART targets, indicators and framework of putting things together contributed to deficiencies in effectively measuring the progress made to achieve the vision of safer communities. Hence, the researcher found the NDP lacking the qualities of being a plan.

The researcher concluded that the current NDP Vision 2030 was a plan, but factually it was a strategy. It remained a strategy that requires to be translated into an implementation plan with SMART targets and well-crafted indicators explaining in more details how the strategy should be implemented. This conundrum affects the shaping and direction of the implementation of NDP by actors and implementers.

The findings revealed that there were numerous legislative, policy and strategic response trajectories in place for building safer communities in SA in place, as presented in Chapter 3.

There was, however, lack of institutionalisation, internalisation, monitoring and evaluation taking place and of assessment of their impact on community safety. This also applies to the SAPS Values, Code of Conduct and Code of Ethics and to measuring their impact on professionalisation of police services, strengthening the CJS, the implementation of an integrated approach to tackle the root causes of crime and to steering community participation in building safer communities. Lack of institutionalisation of a conceptual framework for building safer communities, as presented in Chapter 4, automatically delays the process of improving community safety as espoused in the NDP Chapter 12.

Chapters 6, 7 and 8 acknowledge that some community and police members to a certain extent lacked confidence in police proficiency and capitation. They raised concerns regarding police members' effective and efficient resource utilisation and their skills to perform their mandatory work. Areas of concern included police and CJS adherence to ethical standards, respecting diversity, commitment to service excellence, cooperation in policing and taking responsibility for communities' feelings of safety. Confirmation of the steady decline in communities' feelings of safety invalidated the proposition of the NDP Vision 2030 Chapter 12 of people living in SA feeling safe and having no fear of crime. The study confirmed the undesirable basic living, social, health and economic conditions for many people in SA as well as ineffective and inefficiency execution of community programmes to improve these conditions were confirmed by the study. The study validated the predominance of juvenile delinquency in SA and lack of trust and confidence between the police and communities.

The conclusion and recommendations presented in this chapter are anticipated to achieve mutual willingness and commitment among NDP implementers and actors to ensure its successful implementation.

9.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

Taking into consideration the theoretical and empirical evidence presented, analysed and discussed in the research under review, the researcher is of the view that government, other relevant stakeholders, and all NDP implementers and actors should seriously consider the recommendations made. This is key in ensuring that the NDP implementation impacts positively on yielding national development but also greater community safety in SA.

9.2.1 Commitment of implementers and actors

Ensuring national development and building safer communities is a shared responsibility. Implementers' and actors' commitment and responsibility to shape and direct NDP implementation are vital. Government, which is at the heartbeat of NDP implementation, monitoring and evaluation, should not only focus on NDP validation, acceptability and legitimacy, but also initiate community strategies and policies that support the NDP developmental agenda. This will ensure that the NDP impacts on national development and achieving safer communities.

Elected political leaders are ethically bound to address the issues that shape the direction of effective NDP implementation. Government officials appointed as NDP actors and implementers should be accountable for monitoring and evaluating the status of NDP implementation. This should include paying attention to the priority and urgency of problems to be addressed, the level and budgetary implications of the NDP, and the capacity, both tangible and intangible, to deal with the NDP agenda.

Community, religious and traditional leaders and family structures should be accountable and responsible for inculcating the beliefs, values, conducts and opinions that will shape and advance NDP accomplishment. They should lead in the initiatives that seek to address issues such as gender-based violence and femicide, juvenile delinquency, basic human living conditions, social and health conditions, economic conditions, social diversity and community programmes that seek to address psycho-social economic problems. The study findings confirmed that such issues, in addition to crime, contributed to unsafe communities.

Relevant leaders and structures need to be actively involved in forming pressure groups to influence and shape the direction of the NDP Chapter 12 implementation process to attain safer communities.

Academic and research institutions and NGOs, which accommodate authoritative opinion-makers, mostly contribute to the enhancement of policy implementation through various platforms, such as roundtable discussions, seminars, debates, colloquiums, conferences and publications. These initiatives help shape the NDP implementation agenda. Occupational,

business and civil-based organisations should form coalitions with government departments, according to their mandates, to inform, influence and give direction to NDP implementation. The media community should, with its resources and influential position, use its powers to shape public opinion of NDP implementation.

9.2.2 Commitment to monitoring and evaluation

Commitment to monitoring and evaluation plays a critical role in shaping the direction of NDP implementation. Implementers' and actors' culture of accountability, which is evident in the ongoing monitoring of NDP implementation, should be inculcated and internalised. Internalisation will help assess the values, standards and good practices that the implementers and actors apply in building safer communities. The challenges to the successful implementation of NDP objectives could be established through monitoring and feedback. This could result in finding solutions to challenges and lead to heightened accountability.

The findings of this study confirmed that NDP implementation was in many respects a 'ticking a box' exercise with lack of tangible measurement, standards and targets, owing to the lack of fully unpacking, aligning and internalising it. Therefore, it is recommended that government now, after almost 10 years of NDP implementation, scrutinise and evaluate it thoroughly to determine its efficiency. It is necessary to assess whether the country is effectively progressing towards achieving the set goals within the predetermined time for the NDP roll-out; inclusive of safer communities. Further, its effectiveness, pertaining to both tangible and intangible aspects, requires in-depth evaluation.

The findings further revealed that there was a dire need for police capacitation, professionalisation of the police service and institutionalisation and internalisation of accountability by management and leadership at all levels. This is key in making people safe, in addition to them feeling safe. It further confirmed the need to eradicate illegals firearms in communities, address the root causes and impacts of substance abuse, provide support programmes to empower parents and family structures, create a safe and supportive environment for women and children, institutionalise accountability of political leaders at all levels, advance economic development, collaborate with and mobilise communities, strengthen the CJS, institute an integrated approach to building safer communities, intensify police

visibility, and ensure access to basic living needs. Therefore, it is imperative to determine the appropriateness of NDP implementation in responding to the challenges that threaten the safety of communities.

It is essential to determine the extent to which NDP implementation meets the expectations of all actors and implementers involved. Subsequently, evaluation over time will measure the impact of meeting such expectations and the needs of the community to feel safe at home, on the streets, at school, at work and in public spaces. Evaluation of NDP implementation will provide an opportunity for actors and implementers to learn from resultant problems, encounters and failures in order to better predict and anticipate whenever it would be required to embark on an NDP review.

9.2.3 Ethical, competent and visionary management and leadership

Realisation of the NDP Vision 2030 for safer communities and national development is founded on ethical, competent and visionary management and leadership. As change agents, the leadership for building safer communities, should drive and lead understanding of the NDP and its effectivity or, conversely, its lack of effectivity. Implementers and actors should expeditiously identify where in the chain measures to realise safer communities have not been achieved as envisioned. This could improve NDP execution.

Using an intervention geared towards safer communities, leadership as agent of change should motivate individuals, actors and implementers involved through developing and executing strategies that change attitudes, perceptions, behaviours and motivation. Leadership should design and develop programmes that focus on enhancing and changing relationships and introduce new networks, coalitions, alliances and other cooperative relationships to participate in building safer communities. Sustainable community safety demands institutionalisation and internalisation of accountability management and leadership at all levels. Leadership should command and direct responses regarding community safety and instil confidence in the community.

Leadership should champion structural, institutional and systemic changes to advance the creation of safer communities. Therefore, is recommended that the management and leadership

that drive the vision of building safer communities have a clear and compelling purpose and a concrete and inspiring vision of the desired change, namely, safer communities for all. They should take ownership of the desired change and put capacity and skills for implementation and sustainability of safer communities in place. They should provide both tangible organisational support and intangible intellectual support for making communities safer. Figure 9.1 below depicts the proposed integrated implementation model for safer communities.

9.2.4 Synergy creation for safer community concept development

The study findings mentioned factors the SAPS and other government departments should consider during the development and the implementation phases of the safer community concept. Such factors included lack of stakeholder engagement and lack of inclusive and consulted strategic planning with clear input and output indicators towards achieving safer communities. Without the creation of synergy between the development and implementation of the safer community concept to direct the way to achieve safer communities, the NDP Vision 2030 is unattainable.

The failure to reflect on and estimate the financial implications of building safer communities hamper the effectiveness of NDP implementation. The lack of capacity to implement policy because of lack of coordination and collaboration between the spheres of government departments are major challenges that actors and implementers of the safer community vision face.

Synergy is essential to realise the purposes of the safer community concept and its implementation. The issue of capacity to lead, manage and implement the safer community vision and bring about adequate coordination of safer community theory implementation also has to be addressed. Synergy will ensure capacity in all domains of government to manage execution and synchronisation of implementation of activities. This, in turn, will bring about stakeholder participation and accountability of NDP implementers and actors.

9.2.5 Investing in public values to generate moral fibre within communities

The study findings revealed that lack of moral fibre contributed directly and indirectly to ineffectiveness of NDP implementation. The study cited a corrupt CJS, and corrupt political leaders and other public servants in government. Therefore, the study recommends investing in teaching and learning of public values to generate moral fibre within communities. The findings further revealed that the government was not doing enough to deal with corruption. Lack of accountability and consequences for corruption contributed to ongoing corruption and communities falling prey to it as it compromised the quality-of-service delivery. Government should reinforce ethics and integrity management as lack of integrity and unethical conduct hampered the achievement of safer communities.

9.2.6 Identification and mandating of the SA national driver of public safety

The creation of an environment conducive for safety is vital for safer communities. Government should identify and mandate the national driver of public safety. This should be extended to local government. The Presidency should drive community safety and give direction to all ministers, premiers, members of executive council (MECs) and mayors.

Community safety is a collective issue that requires a ‘whole of government’ approach for joint problem-solving. The Presidency should also drive accountability. The DPME should monitor how all government departments were implementing the safer community concept. The national driver of public safety should, inter alia, reinforce an integrated approach at the three spheres of government and at transnational level to develop safer communities, reinforce accountability in the implementation of the NCPS, intensify well-organised community participation in building safer communities, advocate the strengthening of the CJS and JCPS clusters; and improve the environments to implement the NDP pertaining to safer communities.

9.2.7 Professionalisation of government services

In professionalising government services, there should be improvement of recruitment strategy and employee value proposition, coupled with the provision of adequate tools of trade and training and development to enhance the skills of employees. Further, there is a need to

inculcate a culture of commitment to serve with integrity and eradicate corruption, and treat victims and communities with dignity – including improving response time to community complaints and providing feedback. Institutionalisation and internalisation of ethical, collaborative and committed leadership in professionalising the police service are key.

The institutionalisation and internalisation of commitment to integrity and ethics; management of compliance based on values, lawfulness, determination to achieve accountability, innovation for and active investment in personnel and resources, national coherence, communities' shared values, and reduction of community fears and vulnerability serve as integral parts in professionalisation of government services.

9.2.8 Working together using integrated approaches to build safer communities

There are various ways of working together to build safer communities in SA. To enhance cooperation to achieve this, it is critical to identify and mandate the national drivers of public safety in government departments; reinforce an integrated approach at the three spheres of government and at transnational level to develop safer communities, reinforce accountability in NCPS implementation, intensify well-organised community participation in community safety, and strengthen the CJS.

Government departments should focus their strengths on educating and developing parents regarding the public core values of integrity, honesty, tolerance of diversity, gender equality and patriotism. Parents should equip their children for a purposeful adult life to become responsible citizens. There is a need to create safe, well-founded and valuing relationships among children and their parents. This should be achieved through, inter alia, implementing parenting programmes, investing in moral regeneration programmes; empowering communities with skills and knowledge to deal with the parenting and family-related challenges; and investing in the revival of effective family structures in building responsible citizenry.

Building safer communities is not only based on solving crime but also providing access to suitable basic living conditions. Therefore, the implementation of an integrated approach to address social and health conditions and infrastructure challenges is important. Government

should improve and build community infrastructures in order to attain the vision of safer communities. Actors and implementers should promote an integrated and integrated approach to community safety through the enhancement of stakeholder engagement and relationships, strengthening of collaboration with community safety forums and structures, reinforcing control management borders through the Border Management Agent and implementing an integrated approach to address socio-psychological economic issues that could lead to opportunistic xenophobia. Government should strengthen cooperation with SARPCO, AFRPOL and INTERPOL to address transnational crime and border management.

9.2.9 Strengthening the criminal justice system

In strengthening the CJS in South Africa, moral degeneration affecting it should be dealt with. By so doing, the performance of the CJS will improve, and challenges regarding delays in prosecution, trials and finalisation of criminal cases will be addressed. This will enhance criminal justice processes, making the CJS more efficient and effective, improving legislation regulating access to witness protection service, creating collaboration and a seamless value-chain within, improving the prison system to effectively rehabilitate and prepare the prisoners for re-integration, developing an integrated ICT system for the CJS, strengthening coordination and better communication between the various departments within the JCPS Cluster, professionalising it, and addressing its root causes of ineffectiveness.

9.2.10 Strategy development for safer communities

In advancing safety of communities in South Africa, government should focus on the factors that could contribute to the realisation of the vision of safer communities. Such factors include ensuring commitment to policing proficiency, capacitating the police, ensuring commitment to the police mandate, service excellence and ethical standards, respecting diversity, improving cooperation in policing, creating a feeling of safety, involving different credible role-players in community safety, improving basic living conditions, improving social and health conditions, investing in community programmes to address psycho-social economic challenges, improving economic conditions, ensuring commitment to social diversity, addressing factors contributing to juvenile delinquency, strengthening the CJS, and building community trust and confidence in the police.

Further, for communities to feel safe, there should be interventions and plans to capacitate police, professionalise the police service, institutionalise and internalise accountability of management and leadership at all levels, eradicate illegal firearms in communities, address root causes and the impact of substance abuse, provide support programmes to empower parents and family structures, create a safe and supportive environment for women and children, institutionalise accountability of political leaders at all levels, advance economic development, collaborate with and mobilise communities, strengthen the CJS, institute an integrated approach to build safer communities, intensify police visibility, and provide access to suitable basic living conditions.

Therefore, the plan for safer communities in SA should be based on the key deliverable of creating a solid foundation for a capable and developmental state. Other deliverables should include creating a shared responsibility between community and government, investing in early childhood development, quality education and social and healthcare systems, providing access to suitable basic living conditions, creating inclusive and integrated settings for economic growth and employment, reducing crime through investing in environmental design, investing in teaching of public values to generate moral fibre within communities, investing in addressing corruption in the country, capacitating government departments to be able to contribute to building safer societies, enhancing policing partnerships and controlling crime.

9.3 SAPS PROGRESS: ACHIEVING VISION OF SAFER COMMUNITIES

The participants highlighted the significant improvement in accessibility to police stations and victim-friendly facilities. The increased number of police stations had brought services closer to the communities, they observed. However, they felt that there was a need to move towards 100% accessibility to police services. They added that although the number of police stations were increasing there still was a need to deter attacks and violent conduct against vulnerable groups. Despite school safety programmes, safety of schoolchildren remained a challenge. Most schools were teaching learners behind locked gates for fear of external attacks. Internal attacks still continued with learners bullying and attacking each other and educators.

According to the participants, the SAPS had the tendency of setting easily-achievable targets, but the realisation of safer communities would hardly be achieved by 2030. Some participants were of the view that nothing different had taken place regarding the progress in achieving the NDP vision for safer communities as crime kept on escalating. Participant 1 in the semi-structured interviews argued that “changing structures, coining slogans and posturing will not take police closer to realising the 2030 vision of building safer communities but it is the involvement of communities that will bring about building safer communities”. He elaborated that “It was the communities that brought down the pillars of apartheid. It was the *letsema or ilima* (community working together) that worked in the olden days. It was *Amabangalala* (neighbourhood watches) that protected communities against criminals. It was the self-defence unit that protected the communities during the political killings in the early 90s. The participants added that the community policing and sector policing approaches were intended to involve community members in policing. However, distrust in the police hampered cooperation (*letsema or ilima*). It is clear that though formalisation, resourcing and training of community structures building safer communities is possible.

The SAPS has institutionalised community policing, however, there are challenges regarding the philosophy and practice. It has created platforms for engagement and accountability in community policing, which is a key tenet of building safer communities. However, there is still scope for improvement in implementing community policing in the country. There is engagement with communities to involve them in preventative measures to reduce crime. However, since the communities, especially the youth, do not trust the police, the engagement has not made substantial impact.

The SAPS need to put measures in place to improve accountability. It has the enabling policy and regulatory frameworks but its high level of non-compliance remains. Oversight bodies are facing challenges in ensuring that there is satisfactory accountability, governance and compliance in the SAPS. The participants implied that should crime be one of the causes of fear in the communities, the SAPS lacked sufficient human and other resources to deal with the fear because of the fast-growing population, crime and crime trends. The participants felt that the police: community ratio needed to be reviewed. Further research with the aim of international benchmarking needed to be conducted.

According to Participant 3 in the semi-structured interviews “by a mere glance at the annual crime statistics as well as the victims of crime survey, there is an indication that the country is still far behind in realising Vision 2030”. Participant 4 in the semi-structured interviews argued that the SAPS had not done much to implement the NDP “as the NDP was not well unpacked, introduced and workshopped to the SAPS at all levels as the guiding plan towards safer communities. Therefore, there is different understanding of the NDP and only those who work with strategic planning, particularly at Head Office, have better knowledge of what the expectations of the NDP are and how to achieve them. To be precise, not enough effort is made by the SAPS to implement, monitor and evaluate NDP implementation.” Compiling strategies could be mere paper exercises; policing is pragmatic and proof of impact is determined by client satisfaction with the police service.

The participants argued that the NDP Chapter 12 referred to building safer communities and strengthening the CJS. However, this was not the mandate of only the SAPS and the CJS. The building safer community concept should be unpacked not only by the CJS but also by all government departments. The SAPS had not yet fully unpacked the NDP fully to align itself with its various chapters and there was minimal understanding among police members.

Participant 1 in the semi-structured interviews indicated that “what the SAPS is doing is to scratch everywhere and to do a tick-a-box exercise just for oversight bodies to see that something is happening. But in actual fact nothing has been done to unpack and align the whole NDP chapters with the policing mandate. Hence, I maintain that more slogans have been archived than moving towards safer communities”.

Although the SAPS was implementing and enforcing the SAPS Code of Conduct, there were incidences indicating breaches of the code. Participant 7 in the semi-structured interviews stated that “achieving the results is not about ‘ticking the box’, but is the outcome and impact after achieving the results”. The participants confirmed that the progress and impact had not gained any momentum. They maintained that the SAPS needed to do more to re-establish ethical leadership and culture, uproot unethical behaviour and implement all-inclusive ethics management programmes to re-professionalise the SAPS.

9.4 ANTICIPATED BENEFITS OF RESEARCH UNDER REVIEW

It is anticipated that this research will have some benefits as a monitoring tool shaping the direction of the NDP implementation. The participants pleaded with the SAPS to be open to criticism and embrace reform from within in order to professionalise services, otherwise no study findings would ever be implemented in the organisation. They added that SAPS could not solve all problems caused by psychosocial-economic conditions. It should strive to regain the trust of communities and learn how to involve them in meaningful ways to make their environments safer. Depending on whether the SAPS considered the findings and recommendations, there could be benefits.

While it was not only the role of the SAPS to build safer communities, but also that of the entire government and the community, the participants highlighted the possible benefits emanating from the research under review, as indicated below. The outcome of monitoring implementation of NDP through this study findings and recommendations can be used as a barometer to *inter alia*:

- a. Assess progress regarding the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.
- b. Align strategic direction and policy.
- c. Reconfigure the strategic response on the gaps identified by the research.
- d. Re-direct the policies of the SAPS.
- e. Assess the police's level of understanding of the complexity of the concept of safer communities.
- f. Assess coordination and cooperation among role-players towards safer communities.
- g. Understand and map the real status of SAPS regarding the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.
- h. Measure factual status regarding the progress and failure in the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.
- i. Provide broader understanding of the requirements of the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.

- j. Understand the roles and responsibility of different stakeholders in realisation of safer communities.
- k. Prepare adequately and avoid mistakes in process of the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.
- l. Provide better understanding of the roles and responsibilities of SAPS in achieving safer communities.
- m. Guide stakeholders on how to do things differently to build safer communities.
- n. Improve the morale of the police, service delivery and working environment.
- o. Bring new understanding of NDP implementation.
- p. Bring about alternative views of the SAPS regarding the NDP Chapter 12 implementation.

According to the participants, the outcome of monitoring NDP implementation using this study's findings and recommendations could be used as a barometer to assess and shape the direction of NDP implementation.

Participants listed the research benefits. They nonetheless cautioned the researcher that there was no dearth of research studies conducted on policing in the SAPS and the CSPS, but that the SAPS failed to consult them. One participant stated that *"a sizeable amount of related research ended up gathering dust and had not been funded to their full implementation"*. This was supported by a comment stating that SAPS management was aware of some of the challenges that had been raised in research studies.

The study confirms this participant's view and therefore strongly recommends that the SAPS consider the findings and recommendations of the study before it is too late to restore law and order in SA.

9.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

In concluding the discussion on demilitarisation of police and civilianising the police, the participants questioned the relevance of demilitarisation in building safer communities. They asked whether demilitarisation of police and civilianising the police would make communities

safe and argued that people did not feel unsafe because of militarisation or professionalisation. They suggested that demilitarisation had been misplaced in the NDP Chapter 12 five priorities for building safer communities. They suggested that the matter of a professional policing service should be a separate chapter in the NDP to be addressed by all government departments. The findings of this study indicate the need to conduct an examination of policing culture and its impact on police behaviour in SA.

9.6 CONCLUSION

According to NDP (Government of SA, 2012), safety is a core human right. It is a necessary condition for human development, improving quality of life and enhancing productivity. The NDP aims to eliminate poverty and unemployment and reduce inequality by 2030 – which, according to the findings of this study, were the main contributors to unsafe communities. South Africa could achieve elimination of poverty, unemployment and inequality by drawing on the energies of its people, growing an inclusive economy, building capabilities, enhancing the capacity of the state, and promoting leadership and collaborations throughout society.

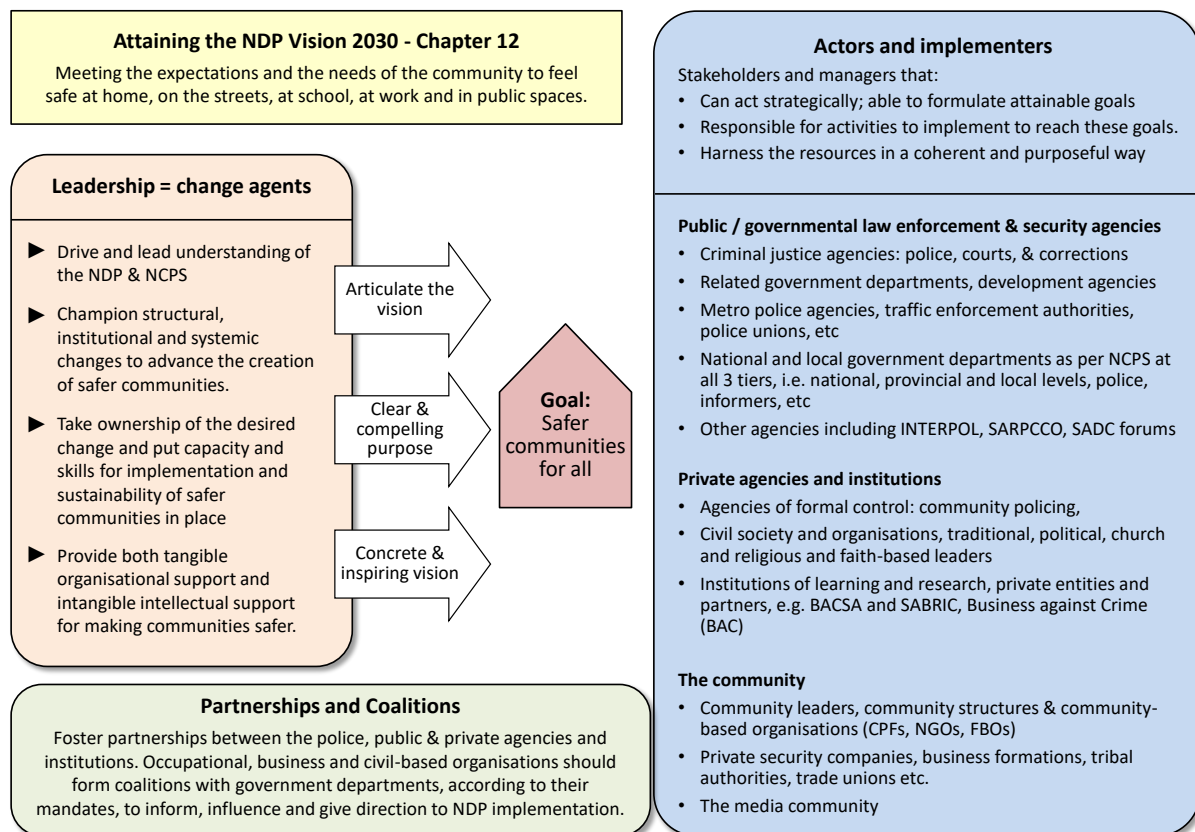


Figure 0.1: Proposed integrated implementation model for safer communities

9.6.1 Execution of theoretical approach of study under review

Figure 9.2 below draws a conclusion on how the theoretical approach of this study has been executed to drive the objectives of the research. This theoretical framework indicates the tripartite relationship between three critical variables in achieving safer communities. As indicated in the diagram, all these variables are interdependent. Therefore, to realise the NDP Vision 2030 for safer communities, there is a need for proper NDP implementation. NDP implementation will succeed through adopting a *Safer Community Model for South Africa* (see Figure 9.3) and a *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities* (see Figure 9.4).

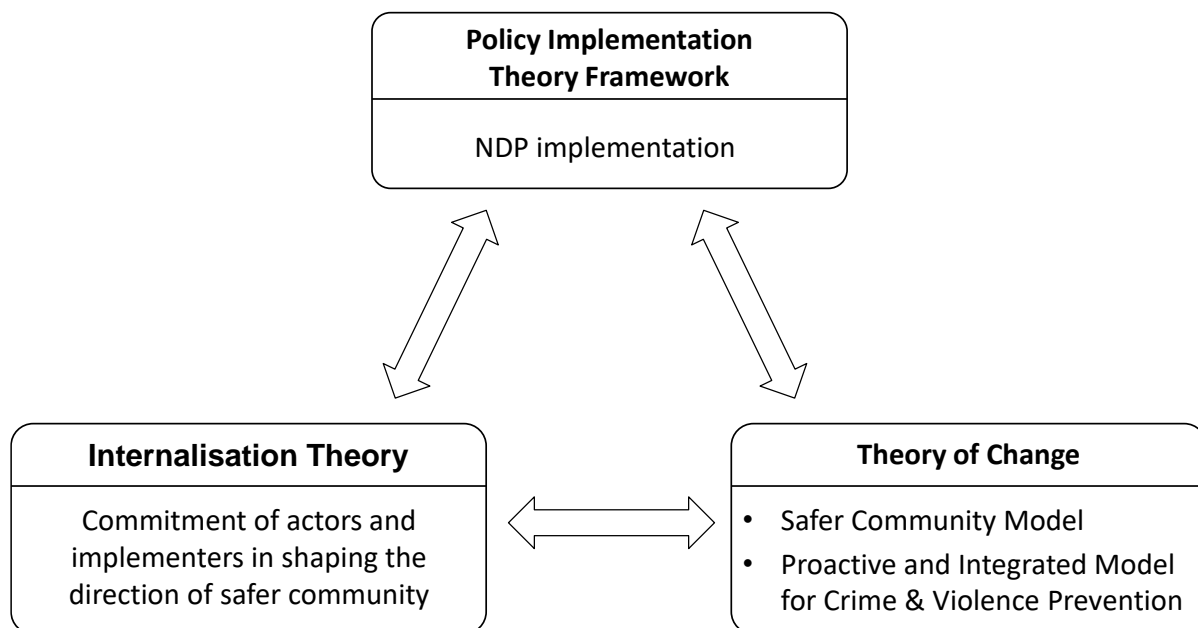


Figure 0.2: Execution of the theoretical approach of the study

9.6.2 Proposed safer community model for South Africa

Chapter 12 of the NDP emphasises the significance of ensuring that by 2030 “people must be and feel safe in the country and this includes while at home, work, school, and everywhere where they might be able to live freely without fear of some sort” (Government of SA, 2012:350). The subsequent Safer Community Model for South Africa (Figure 9.3) is recommended.

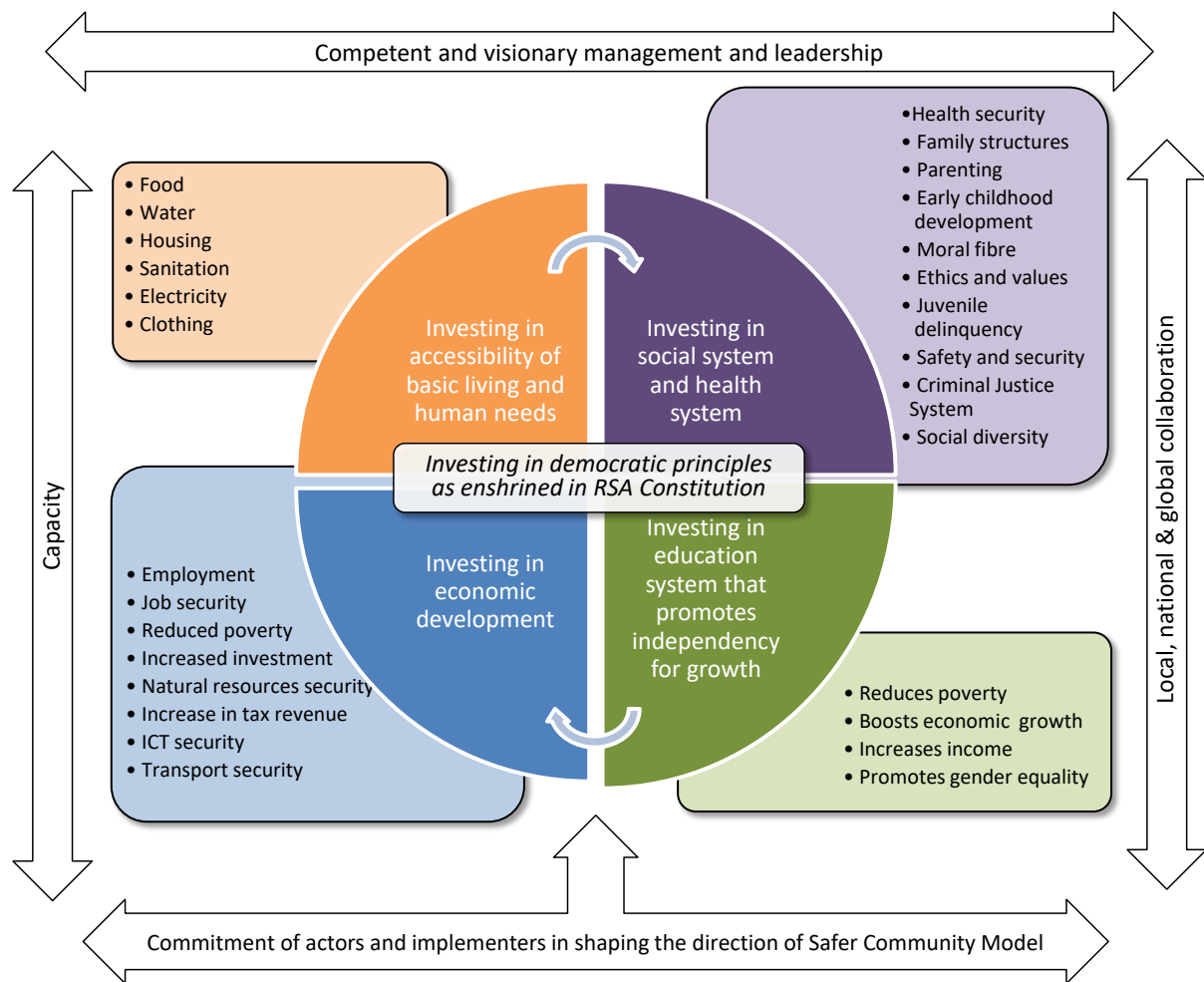


Figure 0.3: Proposed safer community model for South Africa

9.7 PROPOSED PROACTIVE AND INTEGRATED MODEL FOR BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES

Social crime and violence prevention play an important role in addressing root causes of crime and violence. Such causes include unemployment, gaps in the education and social systems, corruption and prevailing unequal opportunities, as well as a high proportion of the population that cannot satisfy its basic needs. Crime and violence and prevention as ‘whole-government and whole-society’ approach is an important national reference frame for violence prevention and safety initiatives. This provides opportunities for real change.

Further, in terms of criminology, a *Proactive and Integrated Model for Crime and Violence Prevention in Building Safer Communities* (Figure 9.4) is recommended.

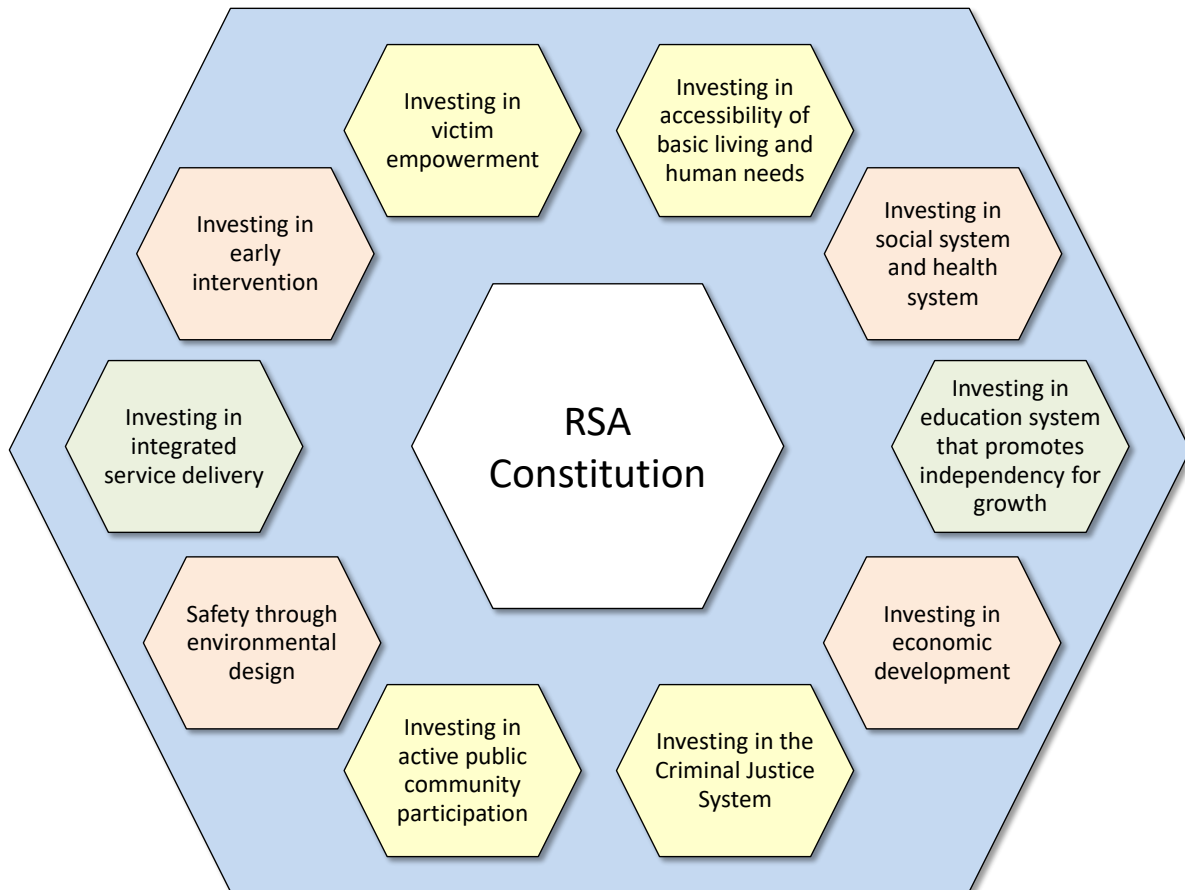


Figure 0.4: Proposed proactive and integrated model for crime and violence prevention

The two models above support the NCPS of 1996 with its focus on the involvement of the community and government departments in crime prevention rather than relying exclusively on the criminal justice processes to arrest and convict offenders (Department of Safety and Security, 1996). This is critical in making communities safer. Local governments are identified as the key partners to drive development and safety. This is because crime occurs in specific places and is often related to the conditions experienced in a local context. A range of agencies should play a role in crime and violence prevention interventions. A multi-pronged proactive and integrated approach is key. The police alone could certainly not be responsible for reducing all crime and violence and creating a safe environment for all.

The NDP Chapter 12 implementation is unsuccessful owing to its incomplete and inaccurate translation and unpacking by developers and implementing agents. This demands the creation of a capacity to shape and direct translation and implementation. The government should sanitise the political, administrative, economic, technological, cultural and social environments

to create conducive and facilitative ones for successful NDP implementation and building safer communities. Such environments should promote commitment by those responsible for implementing the NDP in building safer communities, gaining accessibility of both tangible capacity, such as human, financial, and logistical resources, and intangible capacity, such as leadership, motivation, commitment, and willingness and endurance to build safer communities, as well as partnerships and coalitions with agencies that have the competencies, resources and motivation to actively participate in building safer communities.

In conclusion of this study, the main question of this research was how the SAPS has translated, analysed, aligned and internalised the five priority areas of NDP's vision of building safer communities. The findings of the study pointed to areas of concerns, thereby facilitating the unpacking, understanding, translation, internalisation and implementation of the NDP. The study confirmed a steady decline in communities' feeling safe and having no fear of crime. The following main factors in the NDP and policy implementation in SA were found include:

- Failure to translate policies into long-term plans and lack of planning systems and competencies to implement policies.
- Although multiple legislative, policy and strategic response trajectories towards building safer communities were in place, there was lack of institutionalisation, monitoring and evaluation of their impact on community safety.
- Adverse basic living, social, health and economic conditions for the people of SA and ineffective execution of programmes to improve these conditions impacted negatively on community safety.
- The prevalence of juvenile delinquency and lack of trust and confidence between the police and communities.

This calls for all South Africans to work together. They should translate the five NDP priority areas in building safer communities. Everyone needs to understand and internalise the safer community vision. South Africans should align themselves with the model for building safer communities and collaboratively address the challenges that impact negatively on it. Together, this could be achieved.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: THE SINGLE PUBLIC OPINION QUESTION INSTRUMENT

Public opinion
What do you think SA needs to do for the community to feel safe at home, street, school, at work and in public spaces? And Why?

APPENDIX 2: AN INDIVIDUAL SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW INSTRUMENT

Building Safer Communities Study

Interview schedules for individual semi-structured interview

Dear (Title and Surname of the Participant)

You are invited to participate in *Building Safer Communities Study* in which the researcher is attempting to evaluate process of building safer communities in South Africa.

The purpose of the study is to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities in South Africa and its impact.

I kindly request you take a few minutes of your to share your experience by engaging in this group discussion.

Your response will assist the researcher to understand what needs to be done to enhance initiatives directed in building safer communities in South Africa.

Participation in the study is voluntary and your contribution will be kept confidential.

You will remain anonymous throughout the study.

You may withdraw your participation at any time, should you so wish.

You do not have to write your name on the questionnaire. The information will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your time and valuable contribution.

Researcher

Bongiwe Zulu

1. What do you think are the main problems in South Africa that contribute to the unsafety of the community?

2. Whom do think the police should work with to solve these problems to build safer community?

3. In what ways do you think the police shall work with them to build safe community?

4. What do you think will help the SAPS to provide excellence service to the communities at the four tiers of policing?

5. What do you think the SAPS need to do professionalise police service?

6. What do you think needs to be done to strengthen the criminal justice system?
7. What do you think South Africa needs to do to create safer communities?
8. What progress do you think the SAPS has made on achieving NDP's vision towards building safer communities?
9. NDP speaks about demilitarisation of police and civilizing the police. What is your understanding of this and what are your comments in this regard?
10. What progress do you think the SAPS has made on achieving NDP's vision towards building safer communities?
11. How do you think the SAPS will benefit in this research?
12. What are your concerns, comments and inputs regarding the implementation the NDP Vision 2030 Chapter 12 Building safer communities?

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO RESPOND TO THE
QUESTIONS

APPENDIX 3: THE FIVE-POINT LIKERT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

PART I: COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Building Safer Communities Study COMMUNITY MEMBERS

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in *Building Safer Communities Study* in which the researcher is attempting to evaluate process of building safer communities in South Africa.

The purpose of the study is to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities in South Africa and its impact.

I kindly request you to take a few minutes of your time to share your experience by completing the survey.

Your response will assist the researcher to understand what needs to be done to enhance initiatives directed in building safer communities in South Africa.

Participation in the study is voluntary and your contribution will be kept confidential.

You will remain anonymous throughout the study.

You may withdraw your participation at any time, should you so wish.

You do not have to write your name on the questionnaire.

The information will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your time and valuable contribution.

Researcher
Bongiwe Zulu

How to complete the study?

1. You are requested to kindly complete the questionnaire as indicated in the example below.
2. Please mark the block that best describes you with a cross (X).

Example: What is your gender?

A2.	What is your gender?	Female	X	Male	
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SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

A1.	What is your gender?	Female		Male	
A2.	What racial group do you belong to?	African		Indian/Asian	
		Coloured		White	Other
A3.	How old are you?	18-29 years		30-39 years	40-55 years
		55-60 years		More than 60 years	
A4.	Have you ever been the victim of a crime?	Yes		No	
A5.	In which province (s) were you the victim?				

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.

SECTION B: POLICING PROFICIENCY

Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
B1.	Most of the police behave in way that supports the positive SAPS image.					
B2.	Most of the police are well-informed of the part they should play in policing.					
B3.	Most of the police understand and perform accordingly their functions / obligations / duties.					
B4.	Most of the police respect the victims.					
B5.	Most of the police support the victims.					
B6.	Most of the police earn the respect and has support of the community.					

SECTION C: CAPACITATION OF THE POLICE

Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
C1.	Most of the police have adequate resources to do the job.					
C2.	Most of the police are using the state time appropriately to solve crime.					
C3.	Most of the police utilise state vehicles appropriately to solve crime.					
C4.	Most of the police do not utilise state resources for their private benefit.					
C5.	Most of the police are well trained.					
C6.	Most of the police have all necessary skills needed from the police officers.					

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.

SECTION D: POLICE MANDATORY COMMITMENT

Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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D1.	Most of the police are motivated to create safe and secure environment for the people of South Africa.					
D2.	Most of the police are motivated to prevent and combat crime.					
D3.	Most of the police are motivated to investigate crime without bias.					
D4.	Most of the police are motivated to ensure that offenders are brought to justice.					
D5.	Most of the police are motivated to participate in efforts to address the root causes of crime.					
D6.	Most of the police protect community when their human rights are violated.					

SECTION E: ETHICAL STANDARDS

Mark the appropriate box with an 'X'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
E1.	Most of the police treat the community with respect.					
E2.	Most of the police use the powers given to them in a responsible way.					
E3.	Most of the police are accountable and reliable to the community.					
E4.	Most of the police are transparent to the community.					
E5.	Most of the police act honestly in all situations.					
E6.	Most of the police act responsibly in all situations.					
E7.	Most of the police are trustworthy.					
E8.	Most of the police do what is right when perform their duties.					
E9.	Most of the police provide progress on complaints.					
E10.	Most of the police are exemplary in the community.					

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.

SECTION F: RESPECT FOR DIVERSITY

	Mark the appropriate box with an 'X'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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F1.	Most of the police respect different cultures in the community diversity when performing their duties.					
F2.	Most of the police treat with equally respect both females and males when performing their duties.					
F3.	Most of the police treat with respect the gays and lesbians (LGBTQIA+) community when performing their duties.					
F4.	Most of the police treat with respect the people with disability when performing their duties.					
F5.	Most of the police are able to help the community who need to be assisted in sign language.					
F6.	Most of the police treat every person with dignity.					
F7.	Most of the police respect children's rights.					
F8.	Most of the police are not unlawfully discriminating against any person.					
F9.	Most of the police are not bias when attending to complaints.					
F10.	Most of the police respect different faiths / religious / spiritual groups.					
SECTION G: SERVICE EXCELLENCE						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
G1.	Most of the police are enforcing the law properly (according to the law).					
G2.	Most of the police's behaviours do not violate the Constitution of the country.					
G3.	Most of the police protect the communities against illegal /unlawful actions.					
G4.	Most of the police behave in a professional manner.					
G5.	Most of the police are committed to provide excellent service to the best of their abilities.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
G6.	Most of the police render service of high quality in a responsible and accountable manner.					
G7.	Most of the police follow the law when rendering the police services.					
G8.	Most of the police services are accessible to the community.					
G9.	Most of the police work hard to prevent any form of corruption.					
G10.	Most of the police work hard to bring the corrupt people to justice.					
SECTION H: COOPERATION IN POLICING						

	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
H1.	Most of the police work together with the community to create a safe environment for the community.					
H2.	Most of the police work together with the government departments to create a safe environment for the community.					
H3.	Most of the police work together with the non-government organisations (NGOs) to create a safe environment for the community.					
H4.	Most of the police work together with various community leaders , without discrimination, to create a safe environment for the community.					
H5.	Most of the police work together with private security companies to create a safe environment for the community.					
H6.	Most of the police work together with Community Policing Forums to create a safe environment for the community.					
H7.	The police interact with the community in an approachable (welcoming) and a helpful manner.					
H8.	The police are always visible in the community.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
H9.	There is high level of information related to criminal activities provided by the community to police.					
H10.	There is a good relationship between the community and police.					
SECTION I: FEELING SAFE						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I1.	There are low levels of crime rates in the community.					
I2.	There are high levels of not fearing crime among residents.					
I3.	There are high levels of feeling safe among residents.					
I4.	There are high levels of not becoming the victim in the community.					
I5.	There are high levels of media coverage related to community safety.					
I6.	There are high numbers of houses with burglar alarm systems/ burglar guards.					
SECTION J: ROLE-PLAYERS IN COMMUNITY SAFETY						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

J1.	Government departments take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J2.	Communities take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J3.	Various community leaders take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J4.	Political leaders take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J5.	Police take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J6.	Community Policing Forums take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						
SECTION K: BASIC LIVING CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
K1.	There are high levels of people having the flushing toilets in the community.					
K2.	There are high numbers of families with adequate (proper) housing in the community.					
K3.	There is high level of good roads for the community.					
K4.	There is high level of healthy running water for the community.					
K5.	There is high level of supply of electricity for the community.					
K6.	There is high level accessibility of recreation facilities for the community.					
K7.	There is high level of cleanliness of the community streets.					
K8.	The grass is always cut to increase community safety.					
K9.	There is high level of community on the streets / public places in the evening.					
K10.	There is high level of informal settlements.					
SECTION L: SOCIAL AND HEALTH CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
L1.	There are low levels of alcohol abuse in the community.					
L2.	There is low level accessibility of alcohol in the community.					
L3.	There is low level of usage of illegal drugs in the community.					
L4.	There is low level of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings					

L5.	There is low level of unlawful writings / scribbles /drawings on public walls.					
L6.	There is low level of usage illegal firearms in the community.					
L7.	There is low number of people who are victim of crimes where the firearm was used.					
L8.	There are low levels of teenage pregnancy in the community.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
L9.	There are high number of parents that are role models in the community.					
L10	There are few families headed by children/youth.					
SECTION M: COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES						
M1.	There are high levels of programmes to address substance/drugs abuse in the community.					
M2.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for childhood development in the community.					
M3.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services that support responsible parenting in the community.					
M4.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for healthcare in the community.					
M5.	There are high numbers of community activities involving the youth.					
M6.	There are high levels of programmes to help young persons (under 18) who have habits of committing criminal acts or offences in the community.					
M7.	There are high numbers of programmes provided for crime prevention within the community.					
M8	There is high level of awareness of services provided by the police.					
M9.	There are programmes provided on gender-based violence.					
M10	There are programmes provided on sports, arts, culture and recreation.					
SECTION N: ECONOMIC CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
N1.	There are low levels of people losing the jobs.					
N2.	There is low level of unemployment.					
N3.	There is high level of food-price decrease which makes it affordable.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						

Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
N4.	There is low level of poverty in the community.					
N5.	There is high number of people opening the small businesses.					
N6.	There is high level of people loitering around without purpose in the streets.					
SECTION O: SOCIAL DIVERSITY						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
O1.	There are individuals who are working hard to ensure that the community is safe.					
O2.	There are known individuals who are gangsters.					
O3.	There are individuals who are known as drug sellers in the community.					
O4.	There are known children who are school drop-outs.					
O5.	There are known homeless/street kids in the community.					
O6.	There are known individuals who are immigrants in the community.					
O7.	There are known taverns and sheebens that are opened 24 hours.					
SECTION P: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
P1.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) drinking alcohol in the community.					
P2.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) involve in small crimes such as stealing, vandalism and bullying.					
P3.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) smoking in the community.					
P4.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) who absence themselves from school in the community.					
P5.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) who are bullying and engaging in fighting in the community.					
P6.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) involve in serious crimes.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the community member.						
SECTION Q: CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q1.	The police are not friends with criminals.					
Q2.	The prosecutors are not friends with criminals.					

Q3.	The criminals are hardly released on bail.					
Q4.	The suspected criminals are often arrested.					
Q5.	The suspected criminals are often prosecuted.					
Q6.	The prosecuted criminals are often convicted to serve their sentences.					
SECTION R: TRUST AND CONFIDENCE						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
R1.	There is high visibility of police at risk areas in the community.					
R2.	The community is reporting those who are committing crime to the police.					
R3.	The police are following information provided by the community to address criminal activities.					
R4.	There is high level of understanding of community safety among residents.					
R5.	There are low levels of criminal activities in the community.					
R6.	There are high numbers of calls made by the community requesting police services / assistance.					
R7.	Most of the police's actions are accepted by the broad community.					
R8.	There is high level of satisfaction with police services.					
R9.	There is no corruption among the public servants which affects service delivery in the community.					
R10	There are high levels of service delivery provided by the government departments to make the community feel safe.					

THANK YOU FOR TAKING THE TIME TO RESPOND TO THE QUESTIONS

PART II: POLICE MEMBERS

Building Safer Communities Study

POLICE MEMBERS

Dear Participant

You are invited to participate in *Building Safer Communities Study* in which the researcher is attempting to evaluate process of building safer communities in South Africa.

The purpose of the study is to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities in South Africa and its impact.

I kindly request you to take a few minutes of your time to share your experience by completing the survey.

Your response will assist the researcher to understand what needs to be done to enhance initiatives directed in building safer communities in South Africa.

Participation in the study is voluntary and your contribution will be kept confidential.

You will remain anonymous throughout the study.

You may withdraw your participation at any time, should you so wish.

You do not have to write your name on the questionnaire.

The information will be used for research purposes only.

Thank you for your time and valuable contribution.

Researcher

Bongiwe Zulu

How to complete the study?

1. You are requested to kindly complete the questionnaire as indicated in the example below.
2. Please mark the block that best describes you with a cross (X).

Example: What is your gender?

A2.	What is your gender?	Female	X	Male	
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SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

A1.	What is your rank?	Const		Sgt		WO					
		Capt		Lt Col		Col					
		Brig		Maj Gen		Other					
A2.	What is your gender?	Female		Male							
A3.	Which racial group do you belong to?	African		Indian/Asian							
		Coloured		White		Other					
A4.	How old are you?	18-29 years		30-39 years		40-55 years					
		55-60 years		More than 60 years							
A5.	How many years have you been working in the SAPS?	Less than a year			1-3 years						
		4-5 years		6-10 years							
		11-15 years		16-20 years		20-25 years					
		20-25 years		26-30 years		30-40 years					
		More than 40 years									
A6.	How many years have you been in the same rank?	Less than a year			1-3 years						
		4-5 years		6-10 years							
		11-15 years		16-20 years		More than 20 years					
A7.	What is your current position?										
A8.	In which Province do you work?	O T H E R		EC		GP		KZN		WC	
A9.	What is your highest qualification?	Matric			Degree						
		National Diploma			Honours						
		B-Tech			Masters						
		M-Tech			Doctorate						
		Other (Specify)									
A11.	Who paid for most of your studies after Matric /Grade 12 / High School education?	The SAPS			Myself						
		Myself & SAPS			Parents, relatives, friends						
		Bursary			Other						

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.

SECTION B: POLICING PROFICIENCY

Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
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B1.	Most of the police behave in way that supports the positive SAPS image.					
B2.	Most of the police are well-informed of the part they should play in policing.					
B3.	Most of the police understand and perform accordingly their functions / obligations / duties.					
B4.	Most of the police respect the victims.					
B5.	Most of the police support the victims.					
B6.	Most of the police earn the respect and has support of the community.					
SECTION C: CAPACITATION OF THE POLICE						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
C1.	Most of the police have adequate resources to do the job.					
C2.	Most of the police are using the state time appropriately to solve crime.					
C3.	Most of the police utilise state vehicles appropriately to solve crime.					
C4.	Most of the police do not utilise state resources for their private benefit.					
C5.	Most of the police are well trained.					
C6.	Most of the police have all necessary skills needed from the police officers.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
SECTION D: POLICE MANDATORY COMMITMENT						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
D1.	Most of the police are motivated to create safe and secure environment for the people of South Africa.					
D2.	Most of the police are motivated to prevent and combat crime.					
D3.	Most of the police are motivated to investigate crime without bias.					
D4.	Most of the police are motivated to ensure that offenders are brought to justice.					
D5.	Most of the police are motivated to participate in efforts to address the root causes of crime.					
D6.	Most of the police protect community when their human rights are violated.					
SECTION E: ETHICAL STANDARDS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

E1.	Most of the police treat the community with respect.					
E2.	Most of the police use the powers given to them in a responsible way.					
E3.	Most of the police are accountable and reliable to the community.					
E4.	Most of the police are transparent to the community.					
E5.	Most of the police act honestly in all situations.					
E6.	Most of the police act responsibly in all situations.					
E7.	Most of the police are trustworthy.					
E8.	Most of the police do what is right when perform their duties.					
E9.	Most of the police provide progress on complaints.					
E10.	Most of the police are exemplary in the community.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
SECTION F: RESPECT FOR DIVERSITY						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
F1.	Most of the police respect different cultures in the community diversity when performing their duties.					
F2.	Most of the police treat with equally respect both females and males when performing their duties.					
F3.	Most of the police treat with respect the gays and lesbians (LGBTQIA+) community when performing their duties.					
F4.	Most of the police treat with respect the people with disability when performing their duties.					
F5.	Most of the police are able to help the community who need to be assisted in sign language.					
F6.	Most of the police treat every person with dignity.					
F7.	Most of the police respect children's rights.					
F8.	Most of the police are not unlawfully discriminating against any person.					
F9.	Most of the police are not bias when attending to complaints.					
F10.	Most of the police respect different faiths / religious / spiritual groups.					
SECTION G: SERVICE EXCELLENCE						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

G1.	Most of the police are enforcing the law properly (according to the law).					
G2.	Most of the police's behaviours do not violate the Constitution of the country.					
G3.	Most of the police protect the communities against illegal /unlawful actions.					
G4.	Most of the police behave in a professional manner.					
G5.	Most of the police are committed to provide excellent service to the best of their abilities.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
G6.	Most of the police render service of high quality in a responsible and accountable manner.					
G7.	Most of the police follow the law when rendering the police services.					
G8.	Most of the police services are accessible to the community.					
G9.	Most of the police work hard to prevent any form of corruption.					
G10.	Most of the police work hard to bring the corrupt people to justice.					
SECTION H: COOPERATION IN POLICING						
	Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
H1.	Most of the police work together with the community to create a safe environment for the community.					
H2.	Most of the police work together with the government departments to create a safe environment for the community.					
H3.	Most of the police work together with the non-government organisations (NGOs) to create a safe environment for the community.					
H4.	Most of the police work together with various community leaders , without discrimination, to create a safe environment for the community.					
H5.	Most of the police work together with private security companies to create a safe environment for the community.					
H6.	Most of the police work together with Community Policing Forums to create a safe environment for the community.					
H7.	The police interact with the community in an approachable (welcoming) and a helpful manner.					
H8.	The police are always visible in the community.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

H9.	There is high level of information related to criminal activities provided by the community to police.					
H10.	There is a good relationship between the community and police.					
SECTION I: FEELING SAFE						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I1.	There are low levels of crime rates in the community.					
I2.	There are high levels of not fearing crime among residents.					
I3.	There are high levels of feeling safe among residents.					
I4.	There are high levels of not becoming the victim in the community.					
I5.	There are high levels of media coverage related to community safety.					
I6.	There are high numbers of houses with burglar alarm systems/ burglar guards.					
SECTION J: ROLE-PLAYERS IN COMMUNITY SAFETY						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
J1.	Government departments take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J2.	Communities take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J3.	Various community leaders take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J4.	Political leaders take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J5.	Police take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
J6.	Community Policing Forums take responsibility for community to feel safe, whether at home or in the street.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
SECTION K: BASIC LIVING CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
K1.	There are high levels of people having the flushing toilets in the community.					
K2.	There are high numbers of families with adequate (proper) housing in the community.					
K3.	There is high level of good roads for the community.					

K4.	There is high level of healthy running water for the community.					
K5.	There is high level of supply of electricity for the community.					
K6.	There is high level accessibility of recreation facilities for the community.					
K7.	There is high level of cleanliness of the community streets.					
K8.	The grass is always cut to increase community safety.					
K9.	There is high level of community on the streets / public places in the evening.					
K10	There is high level of informal settlements.					
SECTION L: SOCIAL AND HEALTH CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
L1.	There are low levels of alcohol abuse in the community.					
L2.	There is low level accessibility of alcohol in the community.					
L3.	There is low level of usage of illegal drugs in the community.					
L4.	There is low level of vandalism linked to copper and cable theft and buildings					
L5.	There is low level of unlawful writings / scribbles / drawings on public walls.					
L6.	There is low level of usage illegal firearms in the community.					
L7.	There is low number of people who are victim of crimes where the firearm was used.					
L8.	There are low levels of teenage pregnancy in the community.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
L9.	There are high number of parents that are role models in the community.					
L10	There are few families headed by children/youth.					
SECTION M: COMMUNITY PROGRAMMES						
M1.	There are high levels of programmes to address substance/drugs abuse in the community.					
M2.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for childhood development in the community.					
M3.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services that support responsible parenting in the community.					
M4.	There are high levels of programmes provided by social and health services for healthcare in the community.					

M5.	There are high numbers of community activities involving the youth.					
M6.	There are high levels of programmes to help young persons (under 18) who have habits of committing criminal acts or offences in the community.					
M7.	There are high numbers of programmes provided for crime prevention within the community.					
M8	There is high level of awareness of services provided by the police.					
M9.	There are programmes provided on gender-based violence.					
M10	There are programmes provided on sports, arts, culture and recreation.					
SECTION N: ECONOMIC CONDITIONS						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
N1.	There are low levels of people losing the jobs.					
N2.	There is low level of unemployment.					
N3.	There is high level of food-price decrease which makes it affordable.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
N4.	There is low level of poverty in the community.					
N5.	There is high number of people opening the small businesses.					
N6.	There is high level of people loitering around without purpose in the streets.					
SECTION O: SOCIAL DIVERSITY						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
O1.	There are individuals who are working hard to ensure that the community is safe.					
O2.	There are known individuals who are gangsters.					
O3.	There are individuals who are known as drug sellers in the community.					
O4.	There are known children who are school drop-outs.					
O5.	There are known homeless/street kids in the community.					
O6.	There are known individuals who are immigrants in the community.					
O7.	There are known taverns and sheebens that are opened 24 hours.					
SECTION P: JUVENILE DELINQUENCY						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

P1.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) drinking alcohol in the community.					
P2.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) involve in small crimes such as stealing, vandalism and bullying.					
P3.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) smoking in the community.					
P4.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) who absence themselves from school in the community.					
P5.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) who are bullying and engaging in fighting in the community.					
P6.	There are high levels of young persons (under 18) involve in serious crimes.					
Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the statements as the Police Officer.						
SECTION Q: CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Q1.	The police are not friends with criminals.					
Q2.	The prosecutors are not friends with criminals.					
Q3.	The criminals are hardly released on bail.					
Q4.	The suspected criminals are often arrested.					
Q5.	The suspected criminals are often prosecuted.					
Q6.	The prosecuted criminals are often convicted to serve their sentences.					
SECTION R: TRUST AND CONFIDENCE						
Mark the appropriate box with an 'x'.		Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
R1.	There is high visibility of police at risk areas in the community.					
R2.	The community is reporting those who are committing crime to the police.					
R3.	The police are following information provided by the community to address criminal activities.					
R4.	There is high level of understanding of community safety among residents.					
R5.	There are low levels of criminal activities in the community.					
R6.	There are high numbers of calls made by the community requesting police services / assistance.					
R7.	Most of the police's actions are accepted by the broad community.					
R8.	There is high level of satisfaction with police services.					
R9.	There is no corruption among the public servants which affects service delivery in the community.					

R10.	There are high levels of service delivery provided by the government departments to make the community feel safe.					
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THANK YOU FOR TAKING YOUR TIME TO RESPOND TO THE QUESTIONS

APPENDIX 4: THE LETTER TO THE SAPS TO REQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

P.O BOX 10785
CENTURION
0046

The National Commissioner
South African Police Service
PRETORIA

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS): EXPLORATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION (NDP) 2030 BY SAPS IN BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES

I am student in the University of KwaZulu-Natal doing PhD under School of Applied Human Sciences in the College of Criminology and Forensic Studies conducting research "exploring the implementation of National Development Plan Vision (NDP) 2030 by SAPS in building safer communities".

The purpose of this study is to determine how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities. Based on the purpose of the study, below are the objectives of the study:

1. To analyse the translation of the NDP's five priority areas in building safer communities by SAPS.
2. To determine SAPS's understanding and internalisation of the NDP's vision of building safer communities.
3. To analyse how the SAPS's business units are aligning themselves to NDP's vision of building safer communities.
4. To analyse the progress that has the SAPS made on achieving the NDP's vision of building safer communities.
5. To analyse the challenges experienced by the SAPS in implementing the NDP's five priority areas in building safer communities.

The Criminology and Forensic Studies Discipline Colloquium and the Supervisor Prof SB Singh have approved the research proposal, attached with is the letter of approval by Supervisor Prof Singh. Therefore, I am requesting permission to administer the questionnaire to 1000 police officers in the SAPS from the Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Western Cape. I am requesting to distribute the questionnaire to 25 police officers per sampled police station. The police stations are sampled as follows:

Provinces			
Gauteng	KwaZulu Natal	Eastern Cape	Western Cape
1. Jeepe	1. Umhlati	1. Mthatha	1. Nyanga
2. Ivory Park	2. Inanda	2. Bethelsdorp	2. Philip East
3. Kagiso	3. KwaMashu E	3. Gelvandale	3. Delft
4. Hillbrow	4. Pietermaritzburg	4. Libode	4. Khayelitsha
5. Moroka	5. Marikanihill	5. Ngqobo	5. Gugulethu
6. JHB Central	6. Ntuzuma	6. KwaZakhele	6. Michael's Plain
7. Alexandra	7. Mountain Rise	7. New Brighton	7. Bishop Lavis
8. Mamelodi East	8. Durban Central	8. Centsane	8. Philip
9. Ooservhoutbosch	9. Venulam	9. Mbizana	9. Langa

10. Roodepoort	10. Pietermaritzburg	10. Idutywa	10. Muizenberg
10 x 25 = 250	10 x 25 = 250	10 x 25 = 250	10 x 25 = 250
TOTAL: 40 Police Stations and 1000 Participants			

I am also requesting permission to have a two-hour focus group discussion with the participants at the level of Brigadier and above from the following environments. The session will be at my cost.


Participant	No. participants
Deputy Provincial Commissioner: Policing : Gauteng	1
Deputy Provincial Commissioners: Detection : Gauteng	1
Cluster Commander: Gauteng	1
Station Commander: Gauteng	1
Representative from Division: Visible Policing	1
Representative from Division: Detective Services	1
Representative from Division: Crime Intelligence	1
Representative from Division: Forensic Services	1
Representative from Division: HRD	1
Representative from Division: Personnel Management	1
Representative from Division: Finance	1
Representative from Division: TMS	1
Representative from Division: SCM	1
TOTAL	13

I am also requesting permission to have individual interview with the representative of SAPS and DPCI Strategic Management.

If approval granted by your office, I am prepared to sign undertaking prior to the commencement of the research and approval granted I will ensure that:

1. The information at all times be treated as strictly confidential.
2. The participants remain anonymous all the time.
3. The participation in the study is on a voluntary basis.
4. The research is conducted without the disruption of the normal duties of policing.
5. Prior arrangements will be made with the participants and their supervisors.
6. The research is conducted at my cost.
7. The copy of the research report be provided to the SAPS after finalisation.
8. The research report and publication comply with all conditions for the approval of research.

I will highly appreciate if permission to conduct this study in the SAPS is granted.


RESEARCHER
DEPARTMENT OF CRIMINOLOGY AND FORENSIC STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
DR BM ZULU

APPENDIX 5: COVER LETTER TO THE RESPONDENTS ACCOMPANYING EACH QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Participant

I am currently researching on how the SAPS is implementing the NDP Vision 2030 in building safer communities and analysing the progress that has been made on achieving NDP's vision. I will be conducting research in 10 police stations in your province and 40 countrywide that will include 1000 police officers and 1000 community members.

This study is part of my graduate studies at University of KwaZulu-Natal. The study has been reviewed by the Research Review Committee at UKZN and has been successfully approved.

The benefits that may result from the research include adding value to the Policing Body of Knowledge; assisting the SAPS, policy makers, government and other departments to take lessons from it. This study will further contribute to SAPS's strategic planning process and add knowledge, understanding and ideas of building safer communities in South Africa. The ideas and philosophies about building safer communities that were never documented before will now be documented as explicit knowledge.

The procedures will be as follows:


- The research project will not affect the normal working times and work.
- SAPS has already granted the permission for you to participate in an interview.
- Data will be collected from the responses of the structured interviews based on the responses on the questionnaire.
- You will be provided with a questionnaire about your perception of building safer communities.
- Your right to remain anonymous will be protecting, hence don't put your name in questionnaire.
- Your right for your data to be kept confidential will be protected through safe keeping of the information and presenting the information the way that will not expose your identity.
- You have right to withdraw in participating in the study.
- There will be no names used in the research report or any publication of the results.
- There will be no risk involved for your work over the duration of the study as the questionnaire will be completed at whatever time is most convenient for you.
- Completing the questionnaire will take 20 to 30 minutes.
- Your participation in this project is completely voluntary.
- You will be asked if you want to participate in this research before completing the questionnaire.
- The choice to participate or not will not negatively impact to your work.
- All information that is obtained during this research project will be kept strictly secure and will not become a part of your personal record.
- There will be no names on the questionnaire, however, there will be questions on rank, race, age, gender, level of education and experience in the police.

Please keep a copy of this letter for your records. The SAPS will be provided with the research report as soon as possible after completion of the study.

Thank you for participation in this research.

Sincerely
Bongiwe M Zulu
University of KwaZulu-Natal

APPENDIX 6: APPROVAL TO CONDUCT THE RESEARCH BY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE OF THE UKZN



**UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL**
**INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI**

11 June 2019

Dr Bongile Matilda Zulu (8829980)
School of Applied Human Sciences – Criminology & Forensic Sci
Howard College Campus

Dear Dr Zulu,

Protocol reference number: **HSS/2174/018D**
Project title: Exploration of the Implementation of National Development Plan Vision 2030 by South African Police Service in building safer communities

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

In response to your application received on 04 December 2018, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. **PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 1 year from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.



I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.






.....
(Chair)

/ms


Cc Supervisor: Professor Shanta Balgobind Singh
cc Academic Leader Research: Professor Ruth Teer-Tomaselli
cc School Administrator: Ms Ayanda Nutli

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)
Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Telephones: +27 (0) 31 260 3567/8360/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: rosibanda@ukzn.ac.za / ethics@ukzn.ac.za / ethics@ukzn.ac.za
Website: www.ukzn.ac.za

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APPENDIX 7: PERMISSION GRANTED TO CONDUCT RESEARCH BY THE SAPS THROUGH SAPS DIVISION

<i>South African Police Service</i>			<i>Suid-Afrikaanse Polisie</i>	
Privaatsak Private Bag X94	Pretoria 0001	Faks No, Fax No.	(012) 334 3518	
Your reference/U verwysing:		THE HEAD: RESEARCH SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE PRETORIA 0001		
My reference/My verwysing: 3/34/2				
Enquiries/Navrae:	Lt Col Joubert AC Thenga (012) 393 3118 JoubertG@saps.gov.za			
Tel:				
Email:				
 Dr BM Zulu UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL				
 RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: EXPLORATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION (NDP) 2030 BY SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) IN BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: DOCTORATE: RESEARCHER: BM ZULU				
 The above subject matter refers.				
 You are hereby granted approval for your research study on the above mentioned topic in terms of National Instruction 1 of 2006.				
 Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following offices:				
 The Provincial Commissioner: Eastern Cape:				
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Contact Person: Colonel SN Ginya▪ Contact Details: 040 608 7215▪ Email Address: GinyaS@saps.gov.za				
 The Provincial Commissioner: Gauteng:				
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Contact Person: Lt Col Etsebeth▪ Contact Details: (011) 547 9131▪ Email Address: EtsebethJ@saps.gov.za▪ Contact Person: Capt Nevumbani▪ Contact Details: (011) 547 9131▪ Email Address: nevumbanej@saps.gov.za				
 The Provincial Commissioner: KwaZulu-Natal:				
<ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Contact Person: Col Van der Linde▪ Contact Details: (013) 325 4841 <input type="text"/>▪ Email Address: vanderLinde@saps.gov.za				

Research

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: EXPLORATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION (NDP) 2030 BY SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) IN BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: DOCTORATE: RESEARCHER: BM ZULU

The Provincial Commissioner: Western Cape:

- **Contact Person:** Col Ngobeni /Lt Col SM Jeebodh
- **Contact Details:** (021) 417 7105
- **Email Address:** wc.od.stratcomm@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Crime Intelligence:

- **Contact Person:** Lt Col Y Niemann
- **Contact Details:** (012) 360 1346
- **Email Address:** niemannny@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Detective Service:

- **Contact Person:** Col Chauke
- **Contact Details:** (012) 393 1835/079
- **Email address:** divcomm.det.so@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Financial Management and Administration:

- **Contact Person:** Brig A Ziegelmeier
- **Contact Details:** (012) 393 1290
- **Email Address:** anine@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Forensic Services:

- **Contact Person:** Col NM Rababalela
- **Contact Details:** (012) 421 0413/
- **Email Address:** RababalelaM@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Human Resource Development:

- **Contact Person:** Lt Col C Ryan
- **Contact Details:** (012) 334 3581/
- **Email Address:** RyanC@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Personnel Management:

- **Contact Person:** Col ES Mashilo
- **Contact Details:** (012) 393 1010/
- **Email Address:** mashilos@saps.gov.za

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: EXPLORATION OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN VISION (NDP) 2030 BY SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) IN BUILDING SAFER COMMUNITIES: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: DOCTORATE: RESEARCHER: BM ZULU

The Divisional Commissioner: Supply Chain Management:

- **Contact Person:** Colonel V Maharai
- **Contact Details:** (012) 841 7224/
- **Email Address:** MaharajVishyal@saps.gov.za

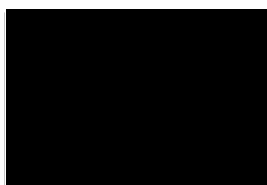
The Divisional Commissioner: Technology Management Service:

- **Contact Person:** Brig B Gouws
- **Contact Details:** (012) 432 7119
- **Email Address:** gouwsb@saps.gov.za

The Divisional Commissioner: Visible Policing:

- **Contact Person:** Col CP Knoetze
- **Contact Details:** (012) 421 8362/
- **Email Address:** knoetzec@saps.gov.za

Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our attached letter signed on the **2018-12-10** with the same above reference number.



MAJOR GENERAL

**/THE HEAD, RESEARCH
DR PR VUMA**

DATE: 2019-03-08

APPENDIX 8: INFORMED CONSENT OBTAINED FROM PARTICIPANTS AND RESPONDENTS

I _____ (Participant's Name and Surname) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this letter and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in this study.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the study at any time, should I so desire. I understand the intention of the research. I hereby agree to participate.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

APPENDIX 9: THE STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The statistical analysis is provided in the CD.

