



**A Resource-Based Model for Combating Rural and  
Urban Crime in Specific Areas of KwaZulu-Natal:  
The Initiatives of the South African Police Service**

by

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## DECLARATION

I, Sanele Errol Shabane, would like to declare that the thesis titled "**A Resource-Based Model for Combating Rural and Urban Crime in Specific Areas of KwaZulu-Natal: The Initiatives of The South African Police Service**" is my own work. I have been working on this thesis as part of the fulfilment of the Doctor of Philosophy Degree (Criminology and Forensic Studies) at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN), Criminology and Forensic Studies Discipline (CFSD). I have put in a great deal of effort into researching, writing, and reviewing this thesis to ensure that it meets the standard requirements for the degree.

I would like to make it clear that the work presented in this thesis is entirely my own and has not been submitted previously for any degree or examination in any other institution. I have taken great care to acknowledge all the sources that I have used, and all the references have been appropriately cited and listed in the bibliography.

In this thesis, the focus was on developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal. I have analysed the existing initiatives of the South African Police Service and identified the gaps that need to be addressed. Through my research, I have proposed a resource-based model that can help to combat crime effectively in these areas.

I am confident that my thesis will contribute to the existing body of knowledge on criminology and forensic studies, and I am grateful for the opportunity to present it as a partial fulfilment of my doctoral degree program.



**Sanele Errol Shabane**

10/07/2025

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## DECLARATION BY SUPERVISOR

This doctoral thesis titled "**A Resource-Based Model for Combating Rural and Urban Crime in Specific Areas of KwaZulu-Natal: The Initiatives of The South African Police Service**" has been supervised by me to my satisfaction and is submitted with my approval. I am confident that the student has fulfilled the requirements stated in the thesis guidelines and has made a significant contribution to the research field. I recommend that the thesis be accepted for the award of a PhD.

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## EDITOR'S DECLARATION



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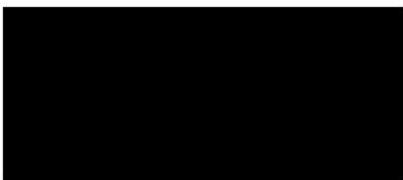
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## **DEDICATION**

The South African Police Service (SAPS) plays a key role in maintaining law and order within the country. Despite facing various challenges, such as a shortage of resources, the police officers on the ground level are working tirelessly to curb the rising level of crime in the country. They are doing their best to ensure that the citizens can live in a safer environment. It is important to recognise and appreciate their dedication and hard work towards securing the safety of the people.

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*“My son, keep your father’s commandment, and never forsake not your mother’s teaching, bind them on your heart always; tie them around your neck when you walk, they will lead you; when you lie down, they will watch over you; and when you are awake, they will talk with you. For the commandment is a lamp; and the law is the light; and reproofs of instruction are the way to life” – Proverbs 6:20-23*

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## ABSTRACT

Policing is undergoing a significant transformation, focusing on crime reduction, community safety, and increasing community trust. The South African Police Service (SAPS) works to ensure the safety and security of all South Africans. The SAPS has implemented a professional knowledge-based approach to policing in line with its constitutional objectives. This study focuses on combating rural and urban crimes in collaboration with other stakeholders in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) and explores the role of communities in reducing crime levels. Policing involves constant interaction with individuals, communities, and institutions, and collaboration with civil society is important for preventing and reducing crime and violence. Policing continues to evolve in response to new knowledge, technology, demographic change, and diversifying societal demands. For the data collection process, this study used the in-depth interview method. In-depth interviews are very effective in answering research questions focusing on human understanding. In-depth interviews are advantageous to both the participants and the interviewer as they allow the participants to express themselves in unstructured accounts of their understanding.

The target population was the SAPS personnel on the ground, including the Commanders of Crime Prevention Units and SAPS members attached to the Crime Prevention Unit because they are the ones who deal with the crimes highlighted in the study and have a clear understanding of what challenges they are facing in dealing with crimes in the areas where the study was conducted. The study was qualitative in nature; its aim was to explore the possibility of developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province looking at the initiatives of the SAPS. For the purpose of analysing the data, the steps of Thematic Content Analysis (TCA) were taken.

The findings show that SAPS officials in rural (Hibberdene; Inanda; and Pinetown) and urban (Berea; Durban Central; and Margate) policing precincts have similar problems, including a lack of adequate resources, a shortage of police officers, and inconsiderate planning for demographic change. Findings show that urban areas in KZN Province have a higher crime rate than rural areas. The study recommends that, in order to provide adequate resources and training for exchange methods suited to the selected geographical areas, more SAPS officials should be hired urgently. This would accommodate the current South African standard of living as well as social disorganisation and exchange strategies.

**Keywords:** *Kwazulu-Natal (specific areas); South African Police Service initiatives: Resource Based Model; Rural and Urban Crimes.*

## LIST OF ACRONYMS & ABBREVIATIONS

#4IR	Fourth Industrial Revolution
AU	African Union
AFRIPOL	African Union Mechanism for Police Cooperation
CBD	Close Business District
CCTV	Closed Circuit Television
CJS	Criminal Justice System
COVID	Coronavirus disease
COP	Community-Oriented Policing
CPF	Community Police Forum
CP	Community Policing
CPTED	Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design
CRIMINT	Criminal Intelligence
CSC	Community Service Centre or Client Service Centre
CSPs	Community Safety Partnerships
CSP	Community Safety Patrollers
CSPS	Civilian Secretariat for Police Service
CSVR	Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation
CTA	Crime Threat Analysis
DDACTS	Data Driven Approaches to Crime and Traffic Safety

DMI	Directorate of Military Intelligence
DOJ	Department of Justice
DSD	Department of Social Development
EFCC	Economic and Financial Crimes Commission
EMI	Environmental Management Inspectorate
FBI	Federal Bureau of Investigation
FE	Fixed Establishment
GBH	Grievous Bodily Harm
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
GPSJS	Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey
GPS	Global Positioning System
HSSREC	Human and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
IACP	International Association of Chiefs of Police
ICPC	International Centre for the Prevention of Crime
IDVA	Independent Domestic Violence Advisor
IDI	In-Depth Interviews
ILP	Intelligence Led Policing
IMO	Initial Mobile Office
IRB	Institutional Review Board
IRS	Internal Revenue Service

KII	Key Informant Interviews
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
MASH	Multi Agency Safeguarding Hub
MARAC	Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conference
MCTs	Mobile Computer Terminals
MDT	Mobile Data Terminals
MIC	Management Information Centre
MOPOL	The Nigerian Mobile Police
M12Ps	Police Stun Gun - Pink
MTEF	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MVA	Motor Vehicle Administration
NCIS	National Criminal Intelligence Service
NDLEA	National Drug Law Enforcement Agency
NPF	National Police Force
NIM	National Intelligence Model
NIU	National Intervention Unit
NGOs	Non-Government Organisations
OCGs	Organised Crime Groups
PCCs	Police and Crime Commissioners
PNI	Police Federation of Northern Ireland

PoP	Problem Orientated Policing
PRP	Probation Reform Programme
PSCs	Private Security Companies
RAG	Resource Allocation Guide
RBM	Resource-Based Model
REP	Resource Establishment Plan
REP	Resource Estimation Programme
RSA	Republic of South Africa
RTI	Road Traffic Inspectors
SAP	South African Police
SAPS	South African Police Service
SARS	South African Revenue Service
SCP	Situational Crime Prevention
SDIP	The Service Delivery Improvement Programme
SIMC	Station Information Management Centre
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SSSL	Social Structure and Social Learning
SSS	State Security Service
SOPs	Standard Operating Procedure
SP	Sector Policing

SPI	Smart Policing Initiative
TCA	Thematic Content Analysis
THRR	Theoretical Human Resource Requirement
TRT	Tactical Response Team
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UNODC	United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime
UNOWAS	The United Nations Office for West Africa and the Sahel
USA	United States of America
U.S.	United States
UAV	Unmanned Aerial Vehicles
VCPs	Vehicle Check Points
VISPOL	Visible Policing
VSWs	Victim Support Workers
WHO	World Health Organization

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>DECLARATION</b> .....	i
<b>DECLARATION BY SUPERVISOR</b> .....	ii
<b>EDITOR’S DECLARATION</b> .....	iii
<b>DEDICATION</b> .....	iv
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	v
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	i
<b>LIST OF ACRONYMS &amp; ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....	viii
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....	xi
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	xx
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	xxi
<b>GENERAL ORIENTATION</b> .....	1
<b>CHAPTER ONE</b> .....	1
<b>1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND</b> .....	1
<b>1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT</b> .....	2
<b>1.3. STUDY SIGNIFICANCE</b> .....	3
<b>1.4. STUDY AIM</b> .....	4

<b>1.5. STUDY OBJECTIVES.....</b>	<b>4</b>
<b>1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1.7. SCOPE OF THE STUDY.....</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>1.8. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.8.1 Research design.....</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>1.8.2 Methodology .....</b>	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
<b>1.8.2.1 Study location .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.8.2.2 Study population .....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.8.2.3 Sampling method.....</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>1.8.2.4 Method of data collection .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>1.8.2.5 Method of data analysis.....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.8.2.5.1 The six steps are as follows: .....</b>	<b>9</b>
<b>1.9. METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS .....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.9.1 Method to ensure reliability .....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.9.2 Method to ensure validity.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.9.3 Informed consent.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>1.9.4 Anonymity .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.9.5 Confidentiality .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.9.6 Voluntary participation.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.9.7 Data reduction strategy:.....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1.9.8 Protecting researcher and the participants from Corona Virus Disease (COVID – 19)</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>1.10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....</b>	<b>12</b>

<b>1.11. STUDY LIMITATIONS .....</b>	<b>12</b>
<b>1.12. CHAPTERS PROGRESSION.....</b>	<b>14</b>
<b>CHAPTER TWO .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK .....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.1. INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>15</b>
<b>2.2. THE NATURE OF CRIMES WITHIN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS .....</b>	<b>16</b>
<b>2.2.1 The most prevalent crimes in urban and rural areas .....</b>	<b>19</b>
<b>2.3. THE NEEDED RESOURCES IN THE RURAL AND URBAN POLICE STA- TIONS .....</b>	<b>23</b>
<b>2.3.1 The most required resources for combating rural and urban crimes.....</b>	<b>24</b>
<b>2.3.1.1 The use of technology as a means to curb the level of crime.....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>2.3.2 The challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources.....</b>	<b>33</b>
<b>2.3.3 The facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes</b>	<b>35</b>
<b>2.3.4 The value of providing adequate resources in combating rural and urban crimes..</b>	<b>37</b>
<b>2.3.4.1 Overview of the SAPS resource allocation models.....</b>	<b>39</b>
<b>2.3.4.1.1 Models of resource allocation for the South African Police Service.....</b>	<b>39</b>
<b>2.3.4.1.2 Resource Allocation Guide .....</b>	<b>40</b>
<b>2.3.5 The role of police in crime prevention.....</b>	<b>43</b>
<b>2.3.6 South African Police Service is part of the community .....</b>	<b>46</b>
<b>2.3.7 Partnerships play an important role in achieving success.....</b>	<b>53</b>

2.3.8	Resource base model for combating rural and urban crime in KwaZulu-Natal compared to international countries .....	61
2.3.8.1	International countries - models of combating crimes.....	62
2.3.8.2	Models of combating crimes in United Kingdom.....	63
2.3.8.3	Models of combating crimes in United States of America.....	66
2.3.8.3.1	Police-Corrections Partnerships.....	75
2.3.8.4	Models of combating crimes in Nigeria.....	76
2.4.	<b>THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS TO BEST COMBAT RURAL AND URBAN CRIMES .....</b>	<b>77</b>
2.4.1	The developed conceptual framework to the new body of knowledge .....	79
2.5.	<b>THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK.....</b>	<b>79</b>
2.5.1	Social Structure Theory.....	83
2.5.1.1	The criticism of Social Structure Theory.....	87
2.5.2	Social Learning Theory .....	87
2.5.2.1	The criticism of Social Learning Theory .....	92
2.5.3	The linkage between Social Structure and Social Learning.....	93
2.6.	<b>SUMMARY .....</b>	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
<b>CHAPTER THREE.....</b>		<b>98</b>
<b>RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY .....</b>		<b>98</b>
3.1.	<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>98</b>
3.2.	<b>RESEARCH DESIGN.....</b>	<b>99</b>
3.2.1	Quantitative research design .....	101

<b>3.2.2</b>	<b>Mixed methods research design</b> .....	103
<b>3.2.3</b>	<b>Qualitative research design</b> .....	106
<b>3.2.2.1</b>	<b>Research methods: quantitative and qualitative 'battle'</b> .....	110
<b>3.2.2.2</b>	<b>Qualitative and quantitative research: what are the key differences?</b> .....	111
<b>3.3.</b>	<b>RESEARCH PARADIGM</b> .....	114
<b>3.4.</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY</b> .....	118
<b>3.4.1</b>	<b>Study location</b> .....	119
<b>3.4.2</b>	<b>Research approach</b> .....	119
<b>3.4.3</b>	<b>Study population</b> .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
<b>3.4.4</b>	<b>Sampling procedures</b> .....	122
<b>3.4.5</b>	<b>Research instruments</b> .....	126
<b>3.3.5.1</b>	<b>Interviews</b> .....	126
<b>3.3.5.1.1</b>	<b>Key Informants Interviews</b> .....	130
<b>3.3.5.2</b>	<b>Focus groups discussion</b> .....	131
<b>3.4.6</b>	<b>Data collection methods</b> .....	132
<b>3.4.7</b>	<b>Data analysis methods</b> .....	132
<b>3.5.</b>	<b>METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS</b> .....	137
<b>3.5.1</b>	<b>Method to ensure reliability</b> .....	138
<b>3.5.2</b>	<b>Method to ensure validity</b> .....	139
<b>3.5.3</b>	<b>Informed consent</b> .....	140
<b>3.5.4</b>	<b>Anonymity</b> .....	141
<b>3.5.5</b>	<b>Confidentiality</b> .....	142
<b>3.5.6</b>	<b>Voluntary participation</b> .....	142

3.5.7	Data reduction strategy .....	142
3.5.8	Protecting researcher and the participants from Corona Virus Disease (COVID-19) 143	
3.6.	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	143
3.7.	SUMMARY .....	<b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b>
CHAPTER FOUR.....		147
DATA PRESENTATIONS, INTERPRETATIONS AND DISCUSSIONS .....		147
4.1.	INTRODUCTION.....	147
4.2.	BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.....	147
4.3.	FINDINGS RELATING TO THE STUDY AIM.....	150
4.3.1	To explore the possibility of developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province, looking at the initiatives of the South African Police Services .....	148
4.4.	EMERGING STUDY THEME FROM THE STUDY AIM.....	160
4.4.1	Relevant stakeholders' monthly meetings .....	160
4.5.	FINDINGS BASED ON STUDY OBJECTIVES.....	162
4.5.1	Evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal. ....	162
4.5.2	Establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.....	167
4.5.3	Assess the challenges faced by the rural and urban police official in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.....	172
4.5.4	Identify facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.....	176

4.5.5	To develop a conceptual and theoretical framework to best combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.....	178
4.6.	<b>EMERGING STUDY THEMES FROM THE STUDY OBJECTIVES.....</b>	<b>179</b>
4.6.1	Identified study themes from objective 1.....	179
4.6.1.1	Robbery as the nature of crime.....	180
4.6.1.2	Theft of motor vehicles.....	180
4.6.2	Identified study themes from objective 2.....	181
4.6.2.1	Strengthening manpower at SAPS ground level.....	181
4.6.2.2	Shortage of vehicles.....	181
4.6.3	Identified study themes from objective 3.....	182
4.6.3.1	Poor road infrastructure.....	182
4.6.3.2	Prompt response to the cases reported.....	182
4.7.	<b>SUMMARY.....</b>	<b>182</b>
	<b>CHAPTER FIVE.....</b>	<b>184</b>
	<b>SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>184</b>
5.1.	<b>INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>184</b>
5.2.	<b>OVERALL STUDY SUMMARY.....</b>	<b>184</b>
5.3.	<b>CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>187</b>
5.4.	<b>STUDY RECOMMENDATIONS.....</b>	<b>188</b>
5.4.1	Recommendations to improve the study aim and related study themes.....	188
5.4.2	Recommendations to enhance study objectives and identified study themes.....	189

5.4.2.1	Evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal	189
5.4.2.2	Establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal	189
5.4.2.3	Assess the challenges faced by the rural and urban police official in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal	190
5.4.2.4	Identify facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal	192
<b>5.5.</b>	<b>THE DEVELOPED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK TO COMBAT RURAL AND URBAN CRIMES IN THE SELECTED AREAS OF KWAZULU-NATAL PROVINCE</b>	<b>193</b>
5.5.1	A five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	193
5.5.2	Discussion of a five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes	194
5.5.2.1	Point 1: Responding to the nature of rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	197
5.5.2.2	Point 2: Resources to enhance initiatives of the local South African Police Service in combating rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	197
5.5.2.3	Point 3: Identifying the challenges faced by rural and urban police officials in combating crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	199
5.5.2.4	Point 4: Using a specific theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	199
5.5.2.5	Point 5: Enhancing strategies for facilitating resources to combat rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province	199
5.5.3	Understanding the Resource-Based Model	200
<b>5.6.</b>	<b>FUTURE RESEARCH STUDIES</b>	<b>202</b>
	<b>LIST OF REFERENCES</b>	<b>203</b>
	<b>LIST OF REFERENCES <i>ADDITIONAL READINGS</i></b>	<b>211</b>

<b>APPENDICES</b> .....	213
<b>ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE: TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE OFFICIALS</b> .....	213
<b>ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE: for Community members</b> .....	215
<b>ANNEXURE C: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL APPROVAL LETTER – ETHICAL CLEARANCE</b> .....	216
<b>ANNEXURE D: SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE APPROVAL LETTER</b> .....	217
<b>ANNEXURE E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM</b> .....	220
<b>ANNEXURE F: DECLARATION LETTER FOR DATA RECORDING</b> .....	222

## LIST OF FIGURES

<b>Figure 2. 1: Crime in South Africa up in 2022/23</b> .....	20
<b>Figure 2.2: Community Policing Process</b> .....	58
<b>Figure 2.3: Partnership working and multi-agency mechanisms</b> .....	60
<b>Figure 2. 4: Branches of Social Structure Theory</b> .....	86
<b>Figure 2. 5: Sutherland’s cyclical theory of nine propositions</b> .....	89
<b>Figure 2. 6: The SSSL Model: Social Structure and Social Learning in Crime</b> .....	96
<b>Figure 3. 1: Diagram structure methodology research design and methodology</b> .....	98
<b>Figure 3. 2: Components of the Research Approach</b> .....	120
<b>Figure 3. 3: Six steps of Braun and Clarke’s Thematic Analysis combine with The Logical Procedure of Similarity and Levels of Thematic Complexity</b> .....	134
<b>Figure 5. 1: A five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes</b> .....	196

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 2 1: The Application of Hard and Soft Technology to Crime Prevention and Police.....</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>Table 2.2: Ten Largest Federal Agencies with the Authority to Carry Firearms and Make Arrests .....</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>Table 3. 1: Comparing qualitatively and quantitatively a fundamentally different process.....</b>	<b>109</b>
<b>Table 3. 2: Paradigms of social science research .....</b>	<b>117</b>
<b>Table 4. 1: Biographical data of the In-Depth interviewed participants.....</b>	<b>148</b>

# GENERAL ORIENTATION

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Policing is undergoing a significant transformation in many locations. For much of its history in many countries, the long-standing, traditional, and central form it took was essentially reaction to events. The majority of those events were acts of crime, while another large proportion of them were disturbances of civil order (McGuire, Evans and Kane, 2021, p. 1). Crime reduction and community safety are key and noble police responsibilities. Police are confronted with the challenge of reducing crime and disorder while increasing community trust (Santos, 2020, p.1).

Section 205 (3) (a) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) provides the unique mandate for the South African Police Service (SAPS). This section specifies that the SAPS is responsible for preventing, combating, and investigating crime; maintaining public order; protecting and securing the residents of the Republic of South Africa (RSA); and upholding and enforcing the law. Evidence-based innovation and operations are essential for the SAPS to fulfil its mandate effectively and to deal with the complexities and evolution of the policing environment. In order to improve the policing models, policies, operations, and theories for change, research is needed. We must acknowledge that the SAPS, like other organisations, functions in a world that has become increasingly complex, turbulent, and unpredictable. In order to meet the demands of the public, the SAPS must make use of new technologies.

It is the goal of the SAPS to ensure the safety and security of all South Africans. Having established the capacity for professional knowledge-based management of policing interventions as a result of the commitment and drive to realise this vision and its constitutional objectives, SAPS expanded its commitment to this vision and to its constitutional objectives. This study focused on what can be done in combating rural and urban crimes using the available resources within SAPS in collaboration and how to enhance partnerships with various stakeholders to reduce crime within the specific areas in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). Most communities have the mentality that if the level of crime is high within the area, SAPS officials are solely responsible for that level of crime within the area. For instance, in the event of property damage in divorce proceedings, involving either civil or customary marriage, SAPS are held as the responsible

officials and the involved parties should make SAPS aware of the situation and request protection for the victim in cooperation with SAPS to prevent such scenarios from happening in the future. This study also aimed to look at how the community can play a role in collaborating with the police to reduce the levels of crime within the area.

## **1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT**

A general perception is that South Africa lags behind other states that have invested in resources to support their police initiatives in order to implement effective policing. Policing cannot be an isolated activity as it entails constant interaction with individuals, communities, and various institutions. In many cases, collaboration with civil society is essential for preventing and reducing crime and violence. Policing continues to evolve in response to new knowledge, technology, demographic change, and diversifying societal demands. For example, crime has become more complex and expensive to investigate due to increasing mobility and technological advances. At the same time, there is growing interest in developing partnerships between the police and diverse actors in society, where collaboration has become a necessary component of crime reduction.

There is a generally held perception that South Africa is not investing enough resources in policing initiatives, which is causing the country to fall behind its peers in terms of effective policing. Policing is a complex activity that requires constant interaction with individuals, communities, and various institutions. Collaboration with civil society is often necessary to prevent and reduce crime and violence. For example, community watch groups and other organisations can work with the police to identify potential problems and develop strategies to address them more effectively. Policing is an ever-evolving field that responds to new knowledge, technology, demographic change, and societal demands. Technological advancements and greater mobility have made crime more complex and difficult to investigate. Criminals are using more sophisticated methods, such as cybercrime, which require specialised knowledge and expertise. In response, the police must constantly adapt and develop new strategies to keep up with these changes.

In recent years, there has been an increased focus on forming partnerships between law enforcement agencies and various societal stakeholders to reduce crime rates and improve public safety. By working together, the police and civil society can harness their respective strengths

and resources to address the root causes of crime. This includes addressing issues such as poverty, unemployment, and inequality, which have been shown to increase the risk of criminal behaviour. To improve policing, it is important to use a community-oriented approach that fosters partnerships between law enforcement, community organisations, businesses, schools, and residents. This collaboration aims to enhance public safety, build trust, and address community needs. Together, the police and other stakeholders can create a safer environment for everyone. Policymakers must invest in the necessary resources to support this approach, while also providing the police with the knowledge, skills, and tools they need to keep up with the changing nature of crime. Only by working together can we hope to reduce crime and create safer communities (UNODC, 2013).

The province of KwaZulu-Natal is plagued by a significant number of organised crimes. In an effort to curb these crimes, a comprehensive study was conducted by the researcher to identify the resources that the state can utilise to attract more stakeholders to combat crime in the region. The study sought to identify the resources that are available and how they can be used to reduce or eliminate crime in specific areas of the province. The resources that the state has at its disposal, along with community engagement, are deemed to be sufficient and appropriate to tackle crime in the region effectively. However, it is important to note that crime and disorder incidents tend to cluster and concentrate, leading to short-term and long-term problems that affect the community. Therefore, the police should take a broader perspective and address the underlying issues that lead to crime, rather than just responding to individual incidents. The police and other law enforcement agencies should work closely with communities, businesses, and other organisations to develop a comprehensive approach to crime reduction. Such an approach would involve community policing initiatives, targeted interventions, and proactive measures to prevent crime before it occurs.

### **1.3. STUDY SIGNIFICANCE**

This section lists the beneficiaries of the research. The mission of SAPS, known as the South African Police Service, is to prevent and combat anything that may threaten the safety and security of any community, investigate any crimes that do this, ensure offenders are brought to justice, and participate in efforts to address the causes of crime. In fulfilling this mission, it is imperative to consider that nowadays crime can happen in various forms, considering the use of technology, for which SAPS should ensure that they are well capacitated with modern resources. In assisting the SAPS, the study explored the possibility of developing a resource-

based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province, looking at the initiatives of the SAPS. The results of the study may be useful to SAPS as they may outline a conceptual framework which is in line with providing possible solutions that SAPS may adopt in combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN province.

Through this study, the public will be informed about the police measures put in place in selected areas of KZN Province to combat rural and urban crimes. This knowledge will enable public members to familiarise themselves with the fact that the local SAPS cannot police crime alone, without an existing partnership with other stakeholders who also play an essential role in policing specific prevalent crimes in these areas. This study could be an eye-opener in terms of policing in KZN because it will assist citizens in understanding that the SAPS is not solely mandated to police crime, despite the fact that the duties of the police service are specified in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act (Act No. 1080 of 1996). Considering the findings and recommendations derived from this study, both citizens of the selected study areas and visitors to those areas may find this study helpful since it can be used to improve citizens' and visitors' understandings of policing strategies in rural and urban areas of the province of KZN, as well as develop new methods and techniques to implement relevant procedures to investigate and prosecute selected crimes.

#### **1.4. STUDY AIM**

A research aim is, according to Gray (2014, p. 53) and Mills and Birks (2014, p. 204), a statement of what the researcher intends to achieve. The aim of this study was ‘to explore the possibility of developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province looking at the initiatives of the SAPS’.

This resource-based model can be achieved by involving all role players at local, cluster, and provincial levels and focusing on priority crimes, including crimes against women and children and incidents on farms and smallholdings.

#### **1.5. STUDY OBJECTIVES**

Maluleke (2014, p. 6) asserts that study objectives are designed to discover new facts and their correct interpretations, as well as amend accepted conclusions, theories, or laws in light of newly revealed facts or practical applications of such. Furthermore, Mouton (1996, cited in Maluleke, 2014, p. 6) states that study objectives are adopted to establish facts, gather new

data, determine whether there is new data, and determine whether there are interesting patterns in the data. Thus, the objectives of this study were as follows:

- Evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KZN.
- Establish what the needed resources are in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KZN.
- Assess the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KZN.
- Identify how police official-based resources are being facilitated in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN.
- To develop a conceptual and theoretical framework to best combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN.

## **1.6. RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- What are the most prevalent crimes in urban and rural areas in KZN?
- What are the most required resources for combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN?
- What are the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to a lack of resources in the selected areas of KZN?
- What is the value of providing adequate resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas in KwaZulu-Natal Province?
- How are police official-based resources being facilitated in combatting rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN?

## **1.7. SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

In a research proposal, thesis, or report, the scope of the study is a section where the researcher discusses the research areas, research questions, objectives, population, and study area covered (Trinity Washington University, 2014, cited in Akanle, Ademuson and Shittu, 2020, p. 108). The scope of a study indicates the researcher's understanding of where the research fits in the scholarly community as well as what the research is able to accomplish. It is therefore possible to define the scope of study based on geography, scholarship, study population, and study duration. According to Simon and Goes (2013, cited in Akanle *et al.*, 2020, p. 108), scope means the parameters under which the study will operate. As part of this, the researcher should state clearly what he or she is studying, including factors within the accepted range of the study. As

a result, the study objectives need to be clarified, the concepts explained, and the timeframe determined to put the study's reach in context. Thus, the scope of the study is an explanation of the study in order to ensure that it addresses the stated study objectives within the available time in a manner that optimises resources in order to ensure that the breadth, depth, and detail of the study are compatible and sufficient to address the stated study objectives (Akanle *et al.*, 2020, p. 108).

The scope of this study looked into the available resources that SAPS has in curbing the level of crime within the selected areas of KZN, as well as how SAPS uses those resources in collaboration with various stakeholder in their surrounding areas to reduce the crime rate. The scope further included what initiatives SAPS has undertaken to encourage the community to collaborate with SAPS for combating crime within the selected areas of KZN. This was achieved by taking into consideration the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KZN to establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in these areas. The study also assessed the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to a lack of resources in the selected areas of KZN; identified the allocation of resources; and developed a conceptual framework to best combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN.

## **1.8. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **1.8.1 Research design**

The study adopted a qualitative research approach, which allowed us to uncover salient issues that can later be studied using more structured methods (Tracy, 2013). Moreover, qualitative research helps people to understand the world, their society, and its institutions in more depth. This study used an exploratory research design to answer the research questions and provide an in-depth understanding of all stakeholders involved in the police department. An exploratory research design provides a thick description of a phenomenon that is contextually embedded in order to capture full insights about the phenomenon that might otherwise be missed in structured surveys or experiments (Tracy, 2013).

### **1.8.1.1 Study location**

Three police precincts from rural areas (Hibberdene; Inanda; and Pinetown) and three police precincts from urban areas (Berea; Durban Central; and Margate) were selected as areas with the highest rates of crimes such as trio crimes [carjacking, residential robbery, and non-residential (business) robbery]; assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm; common assault; robbery with aggravating circumstances; burglary at non-residential premises; burglary at residential premises; and theft of motor vehicles and motorcycles. The study investigated the causes of crime as well as the sufficiency of services within local precincts to curb the rate of selected crimes within their precincts. A crime statistical analysis was run to choose police precincts with high rates of the above-mentioned crimes.

### **1.8.1.2 Study population**

The relationship between police and community in terms of fighting crimes was assessed to see how far it goes. In each of the selected police precincts, the researcher interviewed ten police officials per precinct. In the selection of these police precincts, a crime statistical analysis was run and three rural police precincts and three urban police precincts were selected based on their high rates of crime. Further, within these policing precincts, five community members were selected, through key informant sampling, to hear their views as to what role they can play in collaborating with SAPS to combat crimes within their areas.

### **1.8.1.3 Sampling method**

Purposive sampling was the most appropriate sampling method to use in this study to select relevant stakeholders until the point of information saturation. Data review and analysis were done in conjunction with data collection to ensure that all information was covered.

Sampling methods are the ways researchers select a smaller group (sample) from a larger group (population) to study. This is often done because it is impossible or too expensive to study everyone in the population. The goal is to choose a sample that is representative of the population so that the results of the study can be generalised to the entire population.

There are two main types of sampling methods:

- Probability sampling: Every member of the population has a known chance of being selected for the sample. This allows researchers to make strong statistical inferences about the population.

- Non-probability sampling: The probability of being selected for the sample is unknown. This type of sampling is often used when the goal is not to generalise the results to the entire population, but rather to explore a specific topic or to gather preliminary data.

Some common sampling methods include:

- Simple random sampling: Every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected.
- Systematic sampling: The population is ordered in some way, and then every *n*th member is selected.
- Stratified sampling: The population is divided into subgroups (strata), and then a random sample is taken from each stratum.
- Cluster sampling: The population is divided into clusters, and then a random sample of clusters is selected. All members of the selected clusters are included in the sample.
- Convenience sampling: The sample is made up of people who are easy to reach.
- Quota sampling: The sample is made up of a certain number of people from each subgroup of the population.
- Snowball sampling: Participants are asked to refer other people who might be eligible for the study.

The best sampling method to use depends on the specific research question, the resources available, and the desired level of generalisability. Further discussion of this section is included in chapter three of this thesis.

#### **1.8.1.4 Method of data collection**

For the data collection process, this study used the in-depth interview (IDI) method. In-depth interviews are very effective for research questions using human understanding. In-depth interviews are advantageous to both the participants and the interviewer; for example, they allow the participants to express themselves in unstructured accounts of their understanding. Furthermore, this type of interview is good for interviewers as it allows them to be trusted by participants, which encourages thick description from participants. In-depth interviews are designed to elicit a vivid picture of the participant's perspective on the research topic (Mack *et al.*, 2005). This method considers participants as experts in a given topic and their understanding as a means to answer research questions. Moreover, this study attempted to establish the local SAPS responses to crimes in the selected areas. Furthermore, the type of relationship between the identified policing strategies and challenges was identified by the researcher.

### **1.8.1.5 Method of data analysis**

The method of data analysis was thematic analysis. Thematic analysis is a qualitative analytic method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data. It visibly organises and describes the research data in rich detail. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), not only does it describe or organise data, but it also goes further and interprets a range of aspects of the research topic. The six steps prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006) to carry out thematic analysis are guidelines and should not be used as prescriptive, linear, and inflexible rules when analysing data. They should rather be used in relation to the research question and the available data.

#### **1.8.1.5.1 The six steps are as follows:**

*Familiarising yourself with your data*, this step requires the researcher to be fully immersed and actively engaged in the data by firstly transcribing the interactions and then reading (and re-reading) the transcripts and/or listening to the recordings. Initial ideas should be noted down. It is important that the researcher has a comprehensive understanding of the content of the interaction and has familiarised him-/herself with all aspects of the data. This step provides the foundation for the subsequent analysis.

*Generating initial codes*, once familiar with the data, the researcher must then start identifying preliminary codes, which are the features of the data that appear interesting and meaningful. These codes are more numerous and specific than themes but provide an indication of the context of the conversation.

*Searching for themes*, the third step in the process is the start of the interpretive analysis of the collated codes. Relevant data extracts are sorted (combined or split) according to overarching themes. The researcher's thought process should allude to the relationship between codes, sub-themes, and themes.

*Reviewing themes*, a deeper review of identified themes follows, where the researcher needs to question whether to combine, refine, separate, or discard initial themes. Data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes. This is usually done over two phases, where the themes need to be checked in relation to the coded extracts (phase one), and then for the overall data set (phase two). A thematic 'map' can be generated from this step.

*Defining and naming themes*, this step involves ‘refining and defining’ the themes and potential subthemes within the data. Ongoing analysis is required to enhance the identified themes further. The researcher needs to provide theme names and clear working definitions that capture the essence of each theme in a concise manner. At this point, a unified story of the data needs to emerge from the themes.

*Producing the report*, finally, the researcher needs to transform his/her analysis into an interpretable piece of writing by using vivid and compelling extract examples that relate to the themes, research question, and literature. The report must relay the results of the analysis in a way that convinces the reader of the merit and validity of the analysis. It must go beyond a mere description of the themes and portray an analysis supported with empirical evidence that addresses the research question.

## **1.9. METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS**

### **1.9.1 Method to ensure reliability**

Conformability – The researcher gathered the raw data and the information from the participants during data collection.

Dependability – In this study, a detailed description of the research design, data collection, and data analysis method, including the sampling procedures, was followed and provided.

### **1.9.2 Method to ensure validity**

Credibility – The researcher used the data collected through a one-on-one IDI during which the participants were asked open-ended questions aided by an interview guide. Further, an IDI allows the participants to express themselves in unstructured accounts of their understanding.

Transferability – Transferability was gained by using purposive sampling. The researcher has provided thick descriptions of the methodology as well as the contact and research process for replication in subsequent studies. In ensuring transferability, the researcher has given a deeper and richer understanding of the phenomenon under study and has given the participants the platforms to engage and interpret the study phenomenon.

### **1.9.3 Informed consent**

For the purposes of informed consent, the researcher gave research participants sufficient information about the nature and effect of the research, in particular the effect of the research on the participants, including its consequences, risks, and benefits, to enable them to make an

informed choice about their participation. The researcher gave research participants the information they asked for and needed about their research participation. The researcher gave information to research participants in a language that they understood and in a manner that took the participant's level of literacy, understanding, values, and personal belief systems into account.

#### **1.9.4 Anonymity**

The researcher made research participants aware that all their personal information and the comments they made during the interview would not be disclosed to any other individual. This information will not be used against them, and their confidentiality will be maintained. Pseudonyms, fictitious names and not the participant's real names were used in this study.

#### **1.9.5 Confidentiality**

The use of study codes is an effective method for protecting the confidentiality of research participants. Study codes may be used in data collection instruments in place of identifying information to protect participants' responses or data when data documents are stored or out in the open. After completion of the study and consultation with the supervisor, the data will be stored and protected in a secure facility at the University of KZN (UKZN), Howard campus, for a period of five years. Thereafter, data destruction of sensitive data will be carried out so that it is completely unreadable and cannot be used for unauthorised purposes to ensure confidentiality. Data destruction means destroying data saved on tapes, hard discs, or any form of electronic media.

#### **1.9.6 Voluntary participation**

Participation at all times should be voluntary and not coerced. The researcher informed research participants of their right to abstain from participating in the study, or to withdraw from participating in the study – by revoking their consent – at any time, without suffering prejudice or reprisal. When all these steps were followed, the researcher began with the study and started conducting the interviews.

#### **1.9.7 Data reduction strategy**

The main aim for conducting this research was to add to the existing body of knowledge; therefore, my research will not be complete until it is disseminated. As a researcher, I plan to publish an article based on the research topic.

### **1.9.8 Protecting the researcher and the participants from Corona Virus Disease (COVID – 19)**

According to the UKZN Human and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) guidelines issued on the 6th of April 2020, the researcher followed all the guidelines to ensure the spread of Corona virus was kept to a minimum. In addition, the researcher adhered to national guidelines, directives, and laws during the COVID 19 crisis, as outlined by the HSSREC protocol (University of KwaZulu-Natal Research Ethics Office, 2020). The researcher wore a mask and gloves all the time when conducting the interviews with the participants. The researcher also provided sanitisers and masks to the participants. The physical distance of 1.5 metres between the researcher and the participants was always kept during the interviews.

### **1.10. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Subsequently, field research involves ‘directly talking with and observing the people being studied’ when preparing and planning out how the researcher will conduct the research, the first thing the researcher will do is apply to the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) Ethics Committee and obtain a letter of Ethical Clearance. According to Neuman (2006), gatekeepers are individuals of formal or informal authority who are in charge of entrance to a location. The confirmation letter to conduct this study has been given to the researcher, who has provided access to conduct IDI with the SAPS officials to be chosen from the three local police precincts in urban and police precincts in rural areas of KZN in line with the research topic. After receiving the letter from the principal University (UKZN) and gaining approval of conducting this study, the researcher, in order to support his objectives, will choose three rural policing areas and three urban policing areas within the province of KZN to explore and describe an appropriate resourced-based model of local SAPS in policing rural and urban crimes. The SAPS approval will be sought after this approval.

### **1.11. STUDY LIMITATIONS**

A limitation in a study is not a negative issue, contrary to popular misconceptions among students, researchers, and partners in the development sector. Also, limitations are not necessarily problems or issues that diminish the usefulness or validity of a study. Ultimately, limitations have a significant impact on any research depending on the researcher's experience, expertise,

proactiveness, and limitations (Akanle *et al.*, 2020, p.109). Price and Murnan (2004) view research limitations as issues and challenges researchers encounter during the study that may influence or impact the study's results and interpretations.

Baron (2008) conceded that there are limitations to every study, regardless of how well they are planned or conducted, which may affect the outcome or the way the results are interpreted. No matter how well planned or well conducted they are, they all have some limitations. There are a number of reasons for a limitation, including the theoretical or methodological choices made or the difficulties encountered during the data collection process. For instance, a researcher might adopt the convenience sampling method instead of a systematic technique due to some unavoidable and genuine reasons; the researcher may not be able to obtain some information from government agencies or organisations he/she needs for the study, or the researcher may not be able to arrange interviews with key respondents. If these difficulties or limitations are not properly reported or handled, they may undermine the credibility of the research, but they are not the researcher's fault. In order for researchers to be able to manage their limitations in the study in such a way as not to compromise and limit the validity and reliability of the study, they must be able to build and develop capacities to that extent.

The study looked into two demographic areas, which were rural and urban settings of specific areas in KwaZulu-Natal; it did not cover the entire province or the entire country. This was, among other reasons, to limit the costs of conducting the study. As the study was phenomenal in nature, there was a lack of literature in line with the core purpose of the research. The participants of the study were not keen to share all their information at first because they were not certain where that information would end up. This was resolved by giving participants proper and thorough explanations as to who the researcher is, showing them the proper documentation. This allowed the researcher to reach the participants. The researcher further made them aware that the information shared is solely for the purposes of this study and not for media-related purposes or for purposes outside the scope of this research.

The researcher had to travel some distance before booking the sessions for interview dates in all the six selected police precincts. This was where the data for this study were collected. This, at times, was a challenge financially because these areas are isolated from one another. Moreover, the geographical isolation of the selected police precincts posed logistical challenges for the researcher. The long distances between these areas required extensive travel, resulting in

increased travel expenses and time constraints. Nevertheless, the effort was necessary to collect the data needed for this study.

## **1.12. CHAPTERS' PROGRESSION**

**Chapter One: Introduction:** This chapter presents the overall argument of the thesis, the research background, the rationale of the study, the objectives of the study, research questions, and methods of the research.

**Chapter Two: Literature review:** The chapter deals with the applicable literature for the research to review what has been done on the problem and each objective listed in chapter one.

**The theoretical framework:** This section of the research presents the theories best suited to answer and explain the research questions and objectives, all theories which were applied or have a direct link to the research problem.

**Chapter Three: Research design and methodology:** This chapter presents the methodology and research design chosen in order to answer the research problem of the study.

**Chapter Four: Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation:** The chapter answers the research questions and clearly discusses the questions related to the research objectives. Results are illustrated via graphs, tables etc. and discussed in relation to the argument.

**Chapter Five: Summary, conclusions, and recommendations:** This chapter provides important preliminary information, new study findings, and new knowledge which can initiate further studies in the area as well as serve as a document for decision makers at various governmental and non-governmental levels.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

#### 2.1. INTRODUCTION

The literature review indicates how new studies and research are built on previous ideas, like building blocks. By examining previous research on a subject, the researcher may be able to identify areas not yet explored. In this way, a literature review helps to understand some of the sequence and growth of knowledge. Thus, the researcher can begin to view knowledge as slowly accumulating in the past and add to it through their own research. The literature review examines topics that may inspire future research project ideas and also suggest a particular focus or path of inquiry for the current dissertation. The literature review in this study provides an overview of existing publications on the challenges of policing rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN. This information has been analysed by the researcher.

The researcher has also reviewed the work of researchers in South Africa and elsewhere. The views of different authors related to the problem, as researched and discussed, place the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. Information sources comprised of recent academic books, academic journal articles, legislations, policy documents, National Instructions, and information available on the internet relating to this topic. In light of this, herewith is the selection of primary and secondary sources that were consulted by the researcher:

- The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996),
- SAPS Act (Act No. 68 of 1995),
- Criminal Procedure Act (Act 51 of 1977),
- National Crime Prevention Strategy,
- White Paper on Safety and Security, and
- Academic journals, dissertations, theses, magazines, and internet sources, among others.

Thus, chapter two of the study has several subsections which include: **Section 2.1** provides an to the literature review and theoretical framework; **Section 2.2** presents literature on the nature of crimes within rural and urban areas; **Section 2.3** focuses on the needed resources in rural and urban police stations; **Section 2.4** further reviews the literature on the development of conceptual and theoretical frameworks to best combat rural and urban crimes; **Section 2.5** presents the two theoretical frameworks that the study adopted; and **Section 2.6** presents the chapter summary.

## 2.2. THE NATURE OF CRIMES WITHIN RURAL AND URBAN AREAS

Crime is as old as humankind. Standards of behaviour have always been established for members of groups. To uphold these standards, those who transgress are penalised. When it came to Christian times, offenders faced stoning or crucifixion. During the Middle Ages in Europe, the political and social organisation of the world was intertwined with religion. Even the Criminal Justice System (CJS) of the time was rooted in religious beliefs and customs. Crime was often viewed as a private matter. The parties involved sought personal revenge and administered punishment themselves. This justice proved highly unsatisfactory, often resulting in blood feuds that decimated entire families. It is important to have access to crime statistics from every region of the country in order to study the nature and extent of the crimes committed. Using these statistics, priority crimes can be identified and strategies developed to combat criminality. This information is also of importance to government agencies in the CJS. They use it to plan and manage strategies and policies. Crime statistics that are published also make the public aware of the seriousness and extent of certain crimes (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p. 102).

Lower crime rates in rural areas are often taken as a sign that crime is not a major concern. Crime rates do not accurately represent the impact of crime on and perceived safety of rural communities, and, even if they do, crime rates alone might not be a reliable indicator of what is going on in rural communities. The rate may be low because of low reporting rates, which may be triggered by a variety of factors. Long distances may also affect the rate in rural areas. Despite the fact that nearly half (45%) of the world's population lives in small communities and sparsely populated areas, issues of crime and safety are often neglected in these areas because crime is less frequent or considered less important when compared to safety issues in large urban areas (Ceccato and Meško, 2021). Barclay *et al.* (2004) and Donnermeyer and DeKeseredy (2013, cited in Ceccato and Meško, 2021) further state that there may be several reasons for this lack of attention to rural crime, including the widespread belief that the rural environment is safer and less criminalised than the urban environment. However, there may be other explanations, such as the perception that rural communities are problem-free and ideal, as well as healthier and friendlier.

There are many crimes that occur in urban and rural areas alike. They can be caused by various factors such as ignorance, preconceived notions about what is right and wrong, and a general lack of understanding of the law. Rural crime is often linked to Organised Crime Groups (OCGs) who target and exploit rural communities across a range of crime types, for example organised plant theft, livestock theft, burglaries targeting firearms, poaching, and hare coursing, as well as robbery, assault, and drug trafficking. However, the nature of crimes such as

murder, rape, and robbery can vary depending on the area where they occur. Some of these crimes may be committed in rural and urban areas where there is a lack of infrastructure and resources. The rise of violent crime in urban and suburban areas has been alarming. It is a complex issue that requires a comprehensive response from law enforcement and the communities they serve. This could be caused by various factors such as unemployment, poverty, and drug use. The notion that rural crimes are offenses that take place in rural settings is supported by Ceccato (2015, p. 15), who states that rural crimes are crimes that take place in rural settings. A number of the crimes that are committed in rural areas are ordinary crimes such as burglaries and fights; others, however, are primarily related to opportunities for crime that can only occur there. There are several types of rural crimes, including farm-related offenses such as theft of tractors and cattle as well as crimes against nature and wildlife. In rural areas, it is not uncommon for people to commit crimes for the same reasons that they commit crimes in urban areas. There are some opportunities for crime that many people find more prevalent in rural areas than those in urban areas, and the reverse may be true as well.

Further, crime can be caused by various factors such as the lack of proper planning and infrastructure, as well as the exploitation of people's vulnerability to these crimes. These crimes can also affect people differently and may take different forms. Baird-Olson (2000, p. 7, cited in Weisheit *et al.*, 1996) identified five characteristics of rural community that shape both criminal behaviour and the exercise of justice: geographic isolation, the availability of guns, economic factors, race and ethnicity, and social climate. This list includes all but one of the five rural indicators, overall poverty. Baird-Olson (2000, as cited in Weisheit *et al.*, 1996) may pay attention to these characteristics in rural areas, however, such crimes are also problematic in the demographic environment of urban settings. Even though the researcher is not comparing these two demographic areas, the parallel in the nature of crimes is important for the purposes of this study since these characteristics are relevant in both rural and urban areas.

The movement of people from rural areas to urban centres, known as urbanisation, is taking place rapidly in many developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. This speedy urbanisation is occurring while many countries are experiencing macroeconomic stability and growth. The United Nations Office for West Africa and the Sahel (UNOWA, 2007) commented on the connection between rapid urbanisation and the safety and security of cities. They argue that the disorganised expansion of urban spaces diminishes the ability of national governments and local authorities to provide urban security and basic social infrastructure such as health, education, housing, water, and sewage disposal facilities. This leads to the growth of slums or

shanty towns that overwhelm and engulf the already deteriorating infrastructure of the urban centre, further exacerbating the challenges of security and crime. Additionally, the unplanned nature of cities puts a strain on not only basic infrastructure and services but also the policing services of the state (Owusu, 2016, p. 2).

Zhao and Tang (2018) indicate that traditional urban crime research is mainly based on conventional demographic data, i.e., statistical socioeconomic characteristics of a population, such as education level, income level, wealth gap, and ethnic and religious differences. A resident's basic physical and psychological need is safety. In order to achieve sustainable urban development, strategies for crime prevention and safety in the city must be comprehensive, integrated, and gender sensitive. Such strategies should include reducing poverty and inequality, strengthening community resilience, improving access to services, and creating safe public spaces. They should also involve the mobilisation of stakeholders and the support of all levels of government (Zhao and Tang, 2018). If one analyses the official crime statistics released quarterly by SAPS, it is evident that all communities are affected by crime. The more affluent communities seem to be targeted more by financially motivated crimes, such as robbery involving car hijacking, home invasions, and burglary. The less affluent communities appear to be more affected by social-fabric crimes such as common assaults and street robbery which are often exacerbated by alcohol abuse (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p.196).

One single factor is seldom the cause for crime. There are many reasons why an individual would become involved in crime. This is evident from all the theories on criminology in research literature. It is self-evident that the longer a criminal gets away with crime, the more likely it is that they will graduate to more serious, high-return, high-risk violent crimes. It is also self-evident that the younger a person is when they first become involved in crime, the greater the chances they will become seriously violent adult criminals. Internationally, police are moving away from reactive policing, where the focus is on the incident, and are concentrating more on proactive or Intelligence Led Policing (ILP). ILP represents a change in crime control thinking and related policing practices and focuses on intelligence gathering and the proactive strategies designed around the gathered information. Increasingly, the focus has shifted to the criminal. ILP thinking uses the 80/20 principle, 80% of the crime is committed by 20% of the population. By focusing on intelligence gathering and analysis in order to find criminals and discover what their motivations are, it is possible to implement more effective policing tactics. ILP has proved to be very effective. (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p. 214).

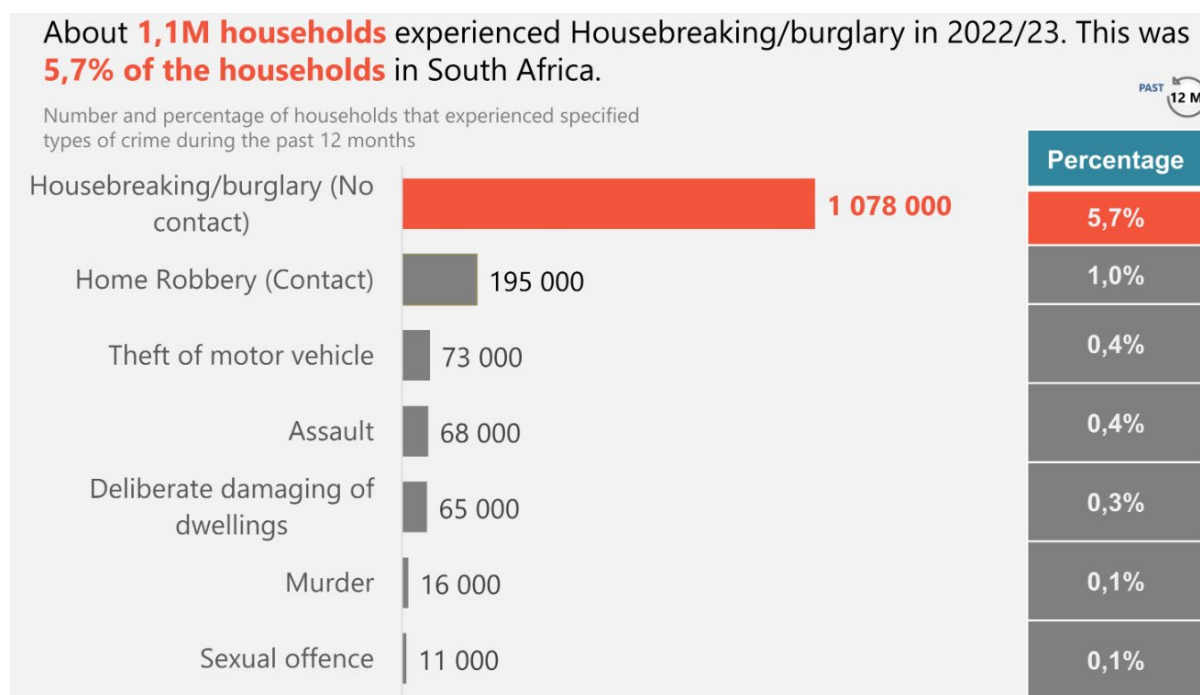
### **2.2.1 The most prevalent crimes in urban and rural areas**

Across the globe, organised crime poses a significant and persistent threat to society, eroding social stability, hindering economic growth, and undermining political integrity. The Global Organised Crime Index (2023) found that 83% of the world's population lives in high criminality conditions with the problem increasing in various countries. In particular, this is evident within the African continent where countries like South Africa, as economic powerhouses, face unique dynamics in their fight against organised crime. The evolution of organised crime into a global phenomenon has necessitated global collaboration. To effectively combat criminal enterprises, international bodies and accords emphasise the importance of shared knowledge and coordinated actions. In order to address these challenges collectively, the African Union (AU) - African Union Mechanism for Police Cooperation (AFRIPOL) has recognised the gravity of organised crime (Ragolane and Khoza, 2024, p. 252).

In a study released by Statistics South Africa in 2022/2023, household crimes, such as housebreakings, home robberies, and thefts of motor vehicles, increased compared to those that took place over the previous twelve months. In terms of crimes experienced by individuals, there has also been an increase, although consumer fraud and motor vehicle hijackings have dropped in the year 2022/23. In the Government, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS) of 2022/23, the rate of adults aged 16 years and older who felt safe walking alone in their neighbourhoods during the day decreased from 81.3% in 2021/22 to 80.8% in 2022/23 (GPSJS, 2024).

The most common crime experienced by South African households is housebreaking. The number of incidents of housebreaking in the period 2022/23 was 1.1 million in total. There were an estimated 1.6 million incidences of housebreaking in the country during that period, representing 5.7% of all households. Approximately 51% of households that experienced a housebreak reported the incident to the police, either in some form or in whole. Housebreaking incidents decreased from 59.2% in 2021/22 to 51.4% in 2022/23 as a percentage of households reporting them to the police. According to the GPSJS (2024), housebreaking incidents were more likely to occur in male-headed households than female-headed households and in non-metropolitan areas.

**Figure 2. 1: Crime in South Africa up in 2022/23**



Source: Governance, Public Safety, and Justice Survey (GPSJS) Victims of Crime 2022/23 (Stats SA)

The crime of “home robbery” is classified as a violent offence because it occurs while victims are present in their homes, in contrast to housebreaking (burglary), which takes place when homes are unoccupied. An estimated 195 000 households were affected by home robberies, making it the second most common type of crime experienced by households in South Africa. According to the General Household Survey on Victims of Crime (GPSJS), there were approximately 238 000 incidents of home robbery in 2022/23, affecting 1.0% of all households. About 57% of households that experienced home robberies reported some or all of these incidents to the police. This represents a decline in reporting, from 66.4% in 2021/22 to 56.8% in 2022/23 (Statistics South Africa, 2023).

People who know one another are more likely to look out for each other. When neighbours are familiar with one another, they tend to care not only for each other but also for one another’s property. Even in the absence of formal neighbourhood watch structures, neighbours who know each other well are more likely to notice unusual activity and monitor the comings and goings at nearby homes, effectively providing an additional layer of informal surveillance when residents are away. According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), social cohesion comprises two key dimensions: the reduction of disparities, inequalities, and social exclusion, and the strengthening of social relations, interactions, and social ties. In the GPSJS, respondents were asked whether they knew their next-door neighbours, whether they would

ask neighbours to watch their home while away, whether they trusted neighbours with their children, and whether they participated in community forums. In 2022/23, 93.3% of households reported knowing the names of their neighbours, an increase from 91.9% in 2019/20. While 85.8% of households in 2019/20 indicated that they would ask neighbours to watch their homes, this proportion declined slightly to 84.7% in 2022/23. Despite relatively high levels of neighbourly familiarity, nearly half of households reported being unaware of community-related forums that address issues affecting their communities (Statistics South Africa, 2023). Furthermore, the GPSJS (2024) report covered assault, theft and hijack of motor vehicles, deliberate damage to dwellings, murder, sexual offenses, theft of personal property, fraud against consumers, as well as feelings of safety.

In South Africa, violent and priority crimes are regarded as some of the most serious offences and feature prominently in strategic policing plans and law-enforcement priorities. The SAPS identifies a range of high-priority crime categories that significantly affect public safety, including motor vehicle hijacking and other vehicle-related crimes, drug-related offences, taxi violence, the illegal possession and trade in firearms and other weapons, police corruption, bank robberies, and serious economic crimes such as organised and commercial crime. These crimes are prioritised due to their violent nature and their substantial social and economic impact (South African Police Service, 2020).

The possession of illegal firearms, gang related crimes, involvement in criminal organisations, crime against women and children such as domestic violence and abuse, distinct gender-based violence, assault, Grievous Bodily Harm (GBH), and corruption within CJS are also identified as priorities for the attention of SAPS and government (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p. 6). Bezuidenhout (2010, p. 6) claims it is also important to note that South Africa has several other crimes regarded as serious that are not as closely examined as other crimes, such as farm attacks, hate crimes, xenophobic violence, environmental crimes such as rhino poaching, littering, pollution, and stock theft. High levels of crime pose a serious threat to rural communities. Apart from the tragic loss of life, crimes such as robbery, theft, and hijacking deprive rural dwellers of their often meagre possessions. At a broader, macro level, rural crime undermines food security and poses a significant risk to the country's overall developmental prospects. Criminal activities in rural areas disrupt agricultural production and livelihoods, thereby threatening both household and national food security (KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison, 2013).

The most common types of crime affecting both urban and rural areas in South Africa are robbery, assault, and theft. These crimes are often perpetrated by individuals known to engage in unlawful activities and are more likely to be committed by offenders who are not familiar with the community in which the crime occurs. Urban areas, in particular, attract higher levels of such crimes because they function as centres of economic activity and concentrate financial and commercial institutions, making them more attractive targets for criminal activity (Statistics South Africa, 2023). In these areas, robbery and theft are common problems, and the city invites the opportunity for the commercialisation of illegal or stolen goods, such as firearms and merchandise. In response, private security has become a popular service for banks, corporations, government agencies, universities, and private residences (UNODC, 2023, p. 4). Urban areas also provide diverse and more efficient modes of transportation and access points (e.g., ports, airports, highways, railway stations) that can also play a role in advancing the delivery and mobility of illegal goods and trafficking of persons.

These activities can be associated with organised criminal activities which can complicate policing if they demand cross jurisdictional or transnational involvement and investigation. Transportation has also facilitated the growing presence of diverse populations in cities, placing even greater pressure on understanding and meeting various demands. For the police, this may increase pressure to mobilise resources in transit zones, which may extend beyond their jurisdiction and mandate and reduce services in other areas. Stevens and Cloete (2002, cited in Shabane, 2018, p. 27) postulate that property crimes are reaching epidemic proportions in South Africa and are so common that it is rare to encounter a person whose house has not been broken into or whose car has not been stolen. The lack of community involvement and the poor security measures of so many private residences and business premises are definite contributory factors. Crimes against property are often so financially rewarding that intensified police action, harsher sentencing, and increasingly sophisticated security measures do not necessarily deter prospective offenders. From a rational choice perspective, offenders weigh the potential rewards against the risks of detection and punishment, and when the perceived benefits outweigh the costs, criminal activity is likely to persist despite formal deterrence measures (Becker, 1968).

The incidence of crime victimisation is disproportionately higher in urban areas than in rural areas, regardless of crime trends, country, or differences between rural and urban settings. In spite of some claims that crime is primarily an urban phenomenon, recent changes in rural–urban relationships have altered criminogenic landscapes. It appears that the process is making

some rural residents more vulnerable to crime. As a result of changes in rural areas, this trend may go undetected often. Victimization may also differ among social groups and environments (Ceccato, 2015, p. 66). Evidence on how these changes affect criminogenic conditions is difficult to ascertain because it may be hidden under general “decreasing” or “stable” trends.

### **2.3. THE NEEDED RESOURCES IN THE RURAL AND URBAN POLICE STATIONS**

Police and policing should be performed by highly qualified individuals, supported by the best tools and resources, discharged with the highest professional standards that produce the best managerial results to best serve the people, according to the Police Federation of Northern Ireland (PNI). Government agencies in the Republic of South Africa do not have access to unrestricted funding; as a result, they must effectively and efficiently manage allocated financial resources. Since its establishment in 1995, the South African Police Service has introduced a variety of initiatives in an effort to enhance service delivery. The Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP) that was launched in 1997 was one of the efforts to implement a more professional and user-friendly service. The programme aimed to:

- Enhance competent service at station level by introducing a diagnostic analysis,
- Be task-orientated towards service delivery,
- Optimise service delivery towards the community,
- Enable the police official to deliver an effective and efficient service, internally and externally, and
- Enable the police official to test his or her acquired knowledge and skills against the realities and constraints of actual practice which are appropriate to any given situation where service is needed, and apply them (Kempen, 2007a, cited in Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021, p. 168).

Those police stations that used this methodology to improve their service looked at areas around the client service centre relating to a sufficient waiting area for community members, a notice board to guide complainants where to go, and a dedicated reception desk. Specialised services for vulnerable groups such as victims of sexual offences and domestic violence also needed to be addressed which was done in the form of the establishment of crisis or victim-friendly centres in collaboration with community volunteers (Van Jaarsveld, 2000, cited in Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021, p. 168).

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSV) and the Open Society Foundation for South Africa provided a multi-faceted and incisive view of the SAPS. These two publications formed the first major assessment of the SAPS which examined the problems that the service faced at that stage while recommending specific ways to improve the police's ability to fight crime. To determine if SAPS meets the standards for equitable service delivery and resource allocation among its personnel, the report writers examined service delivery for safety, justice, and security. Among other things, service delivery concerns the amount of time it takes for the police to respond to calls, the level of communication with the public, the extent to which they address the needs of vulnerable groups, and the professionalism of the police. According to the report, the SAPS needs to develop a more sophisticated understanding of crime types and good practices to combat them. There were also recommendations for using technology in order to analyse crime patterns, enhance crime prevention partnerships, and deal with juvenile offenders (Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021, p. 169).

According to Kempen (2007a, cited in Albrecht and Den Heyer 2021, p. 169), a "manual" for police members on the ground level was published by the SAPS in 2007 as guidelines for Community Service Centres (CSCs). Even though it was implemented 11 years after the SAPS was established, it was needed to co-ordinate the members of the 11 policing agencies which were amalgamated into the SAPS, all of which had their own ways of performing their tasks and responsibilities. This manual aimed to provide step-by-step guidelines on how to render basic services in the CSC in an attempt to provide a more effective and professional service of a high standard which would enhance service delivery in the CSC.

### **2.3.1 The most required resources for combating rural and urban crimes**

In order to perform any task correctly, the right tools must be used. No one can change a flat tyre using a knitting needle or a spoon. The tools officers must have in order to perform their duties in the law enforcement field have evolved over the years. Tools of communication, such as radios and call boxes, tools of investigation, such as cameras and fingerprint kits, and tools of surveillance, such as video and audio pickups, are all available. Advancements in technology have led to the development of newer and more specific tools that enhance the effectiveness of the old ones and even make new tools possible. These tools have the potential to elevate officers' ability to communicate and share information, improve crime investigation and prevention, and enhance public and officer safety. With a simple flick of a switch, these tools can take an officer from a local to a global environment, enabling them to serve their communities better (Ruiz and Hummer, 2008, p. 165).

The SAPS derives its powers and functions from section 105 of the Constitution of South Africa and from the South African Police Service Act of 1995. This legislation regulates the police service in terms of its core functions, which are to prevent, investigate, and combat crime; maintain public order; protect and secure the inhabitants of South Africa and their property; and uphold and enforce the law. The National Commissioner is the Accounting Officer of the SAPS. Deputy National Commissioners, under whom the divisions and components of the SAPS fall, and provincial commissioners, under whom the cluster and station commanders fall, report to the National Commissioner (Republic of South Africa, 1996; Republic of South Africa, 1995). The SAPS's policing objectives, in accordance with the provisions of Section 105 of the Constitution, are to:

- Prevent, combat, and investigate crime;
- Maintain public order;
- Protect and secure the inhabitants of South Africa and their property; and
- Uphold and enforce the law.

The vision of the SAPS is to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa.

The mission of the SAPS is to:

- Prevent and combat anything that may threaten the safety and security of any community;
- Investigate any crimes that threaten the safety and security of any community;
- Ensure offenders are brought to justice; and
- Participate in efforts to address the root causes of crime (South African Police Service, 2020).

During the 2020/21 financial year, the COVID-19 restrictions still persisted; however, the SAPS was able to enlist 1511 current serving reservists as permanent members. The reservists were trained in the Reservist Training Programme and were able to be deployed immediately to stations for operational duties and resulted in the capacitation of the police stations. In addition, the re-enlistment of about 500 previously employed police officials commenced during 2020 to strengthen capacity where specialised skills in the detection environment were identified. The 4000 hoped for could unfortunately not be enlisted due to the COVID-19 restrictions which resulted in the suspension of all training interventions (South African Government, 2025).

In crime prevention, police have traditionally taken an incident-based approach, which is more reactive in nature. An example of a traditional policing model (i.e. a professional policing model) would include routine patrols in public spaces, responding quickly to calls for assistance, dealing with the crime after it occurs, and taking the necessary steps like arresting the suspects, following up, and investigating the incident. In addition to being one of the most resource-intensive and time-consuming tasks of the police, patrolling is the police's foundational practice. A variety of patrols are available, such as directed patrols, aggressive patrols, and foot patrols. Another traditional police task is investigation, which involves finding and interrogating witnesses and suspects, collecting and preserving evidence, creating reports, recovering stolen property, seizing illicit substances, assisting with the preparation of court cases, and testifying in court. Some elements of traditional policing are:

- Reactive approach - act on incidents;
- Crime control;
- Maintaining order;
- Routine patrols;
- Rapid response to service calls;
- Deal with crime after it occurs;
- Conduct arrests;
- Follow-up investigations; and
- Engage in investigation processes (UNODC and ICPC, 2023, p. 1).

Traditional policing activities continue to represent a significant part of the role of the police. In certain cases, policing activities may still be categorised as the following:

- Crime control - responding to and investigating crimes, conducting patrols to prevent offenses;
- Order maintenance - preventing and controlling behaviour that disturbs the public peace; and
- Service - provision of a wide range of services to the community (UNODC and ICPC, 2023, p. 1).

It is important to note that, while the professional model of policing is still being applied in some areas, there has been an expansion and diversification of the role of the police over the past few decades, which has taken on different forms in different contexts (UNODC and ICPC, 2023:1).

In the United States (U.S.), over 12,000 local police agencies serve small populations, with 75% employing fewer than 25 sworn officers, and 71% serving populations of fewer than 10,000 residents. However, not all small agencies serve rural communities. Small agencies also, for instance, serve independent towns within densely populated metropolitan areas. On the other hand, some county police agencies with hundreds of sworn officers serve predominantly rural communities. Police agencies that serve tribal communities operate within a unique cultural, historical, and legal context. The main guiding principle for police agencies trying to implement evidence-based policing is that strategies, interventions, and practices must be tailored, specific, and based on the best available information pertinent to the department and jurisdiction, even if the terms small, rural, and tribal are often used interchangeably. This is with the understanding that there is no one-size-fits-all approach (International Association of Chiefs of Police {IACP}, 2021, p. 1).

Observations conducted by IACP (2021, p. 16) indicated that research on the use of new and evolving technologies in small, rural, and tribal communities is limited. This lack of research is creating a gap in understanding the potential benefits and risks of these technologies in rural areas. Furthermore, rural areas are often excluded from the implementation of these technologies due to a lack of resources. This lack of access to these technologies can have a detrimental effect on rural communities. It has been shown that small, rural, and tribal agencies can proactively deal with crime in their jurisdictions with the help of crime analysis and software, Mobile Data Terminals (MDT), laptops, mobile digital devices, and smart phones.

Koen (2016, cited in IACP, 2021, p. 16) argues that having access to crime analysis systems and personnel can benefit small, rural, and tribal agencies in identifying crime hot spots and repeat offenders, thus allowing them to target criminals more efficiently. By connecting officers with various criminal databases, MDTs allow them to communicate with co-workers and other agencies. The use of technology can also contribute to improving community-police engagement in ways other than data analysis; for instance, body-worn cameras can give police more legitimacy and reduce community complaints in small, rural, and tribal jurisdictions. Research done by IACP (2021, p. 17) shows that small, rural, and tribal agencies use social media to communicate and gather intelligence. Using social media to connect with the community can help overcome some of the challenges rural police may face when their communities are dispersed across large areas, as well as boost community trust and legitimacy, resulting in a better reputation for the department.

When an officer is isolated and unable to communicate, he or she must make decisions based on incomplete information. Radios are a partial solution, but they only allow officers to communicate with the station and other officers who have their radios on. The officer has to wait for the results of the vehicle and driver's license checks as they are passed through the station dispatcher. Many things could occur while the officer waits. There are many patrol cars equipped with laptop computers (Mobile Computer Terminals, or MCTs) which connect to databases that allow on-the-spot checks of vehicle registrations and driver identifications. Many states in the U.S. have installed onboard systems for patrol cars. As an example, the Pennsylvania State Police has implemented such technology in their Initial Mobile Office (IMO) programme (Ruiz and Hummer, 2008, p. 166). Ruiz and Hummer (2008, p. 166) state that the system also provides Global Positioning System (GPS) information for relaying location information, access to an online version of the Criminal Justice Manual, and the ability to create and file reports while still in the field. Unlike radios, these wireless transmissions are encrypted and are not subject to being picked up by the public on police frequency scanners. The officer can stay on the scene, stay in contact, and stay informed.

Police officers increasingly have access to standard communication technologies such as email and mobile phones, often integrated into mobile offices. Email enables agencies to communicate and respond rapidly, replacing slower methods such as fax transmission. Digital images and documents, including colour photographs with sufficient detail, can be attached to emails and shared within seconds, allowing information to be exchanged efficiently across both local and global distances. The use of mobile phones further enables investigators in the field to communicate verbally and access information regardless of their location. In addition, some mobile devices allow for the sending and receiving of email messages and are equipped with built-in cameras, which facilitate the rapid transmission of photographic evidence from crime scenes or investigations (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011).

Crime prevention based on modern technologies, such as cameras, alarms, and lighting sensors, is often not associated with rural areas, which are frequently stereotyped as bucolic, crime-free places (Weisheit and Donnermeyer, 2000, cited in Aransiola and Ceccato, 2020). The application of technology for Situational Crime Prevention (SCP) has been urban-centric, mostly focused on crime and safety problems in urban centres and overlooking rural challenges. However, recent literature has shown signs of the expansion of technology as a preventive measure against property and wildlife crimes in rural areas (Barclay *et al.*, 2001; Mears *et al.*, 2007; Anderson and McCall, 2005; Chidziwisano and Wyche, 2018, cited in Aransiola and Ceccato,

2020). Based on Clarke's (1995) concept of reducing crime opportunities and rewards for committing crimes, cameras, alarms, lighting sensors, and Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV, henceforth drones) are among the technologies that are finding a place in crime prevention in rural areas around the world.

The day's technology heavily conditions police patrol operations. When American policing "modernised" in the mid-nineteenth century, officers patrolled large beats on foot with no convenient ways to communicate with police headquarters or co-workers. Citizens seeking police assistance had to go to a police facility, locate an officer, or make enough noise to draw attention. Other conditions for patrol and communication were not possible given the technology of that era. As communication technologies improved, officers could communicate via "call boxes" and telephone (Schafer *et al.*, 2011, p. 202).

Schafer *et al.* (2011, p. 202) also indicates that since the early twentieth century, one-way radio systems, two-way radio systems, in-car computers, computers and smartphones, and cellular phones have changed how the public communicates with the police and how the police communicate internally. Also, the advent of the automobile and other transportation modes has redefined how police officers patrol. Technology will continue to be a major driver in shaping police operations at the beat level. This is not limited to hardware (computers, computer interfaces, radios, weapons) but includes software that enhances the analytical and awareness capacities of officers. Many of these advances are not unique to policing but demonstrate how broader technology evolutions will be adapted and modified to support policing applications. Some of those modifications will be top-down, driven by corporate efforts to reach new markets; others will be bottom-up, as officers and agencies use off-the-shelf technologies to support policing applications. Technologies considered in this discussion are loosely grouped into transportation, communication, computers, and security. These are not neat and clean categorisations for all of the technologies discussed herein; many technologies have broad and varied implications ((National Institute of Justice, 2015).

Transportation represents a core aspect of police patrol. How officers travel through a community, either on routine patrol or when responding to calls for service, can influence the nature and quality of policing services, at least in the eyes of the public. For example, the proliferation of motor vehicle air conditioning systems, coupled with the development of ballistic body armour for officers, is often framed as having restricting effects on routine and casual encounters between the police and the public. Agencies made use of fewer foot patrol assignments, and officers on vehicle patrol increasingly travelled with their windows rolled up to maintain air-

conditioned comfort while wearing bulky and hot ballistic vests. The move to expand the use of foot patrol in the 1970s is thought to have partially offset what some saw as a declining relationship between the police and the public (Kelling *et al.*, 1981; Trojanowicz, 1982, cited in Schafer *et al.*, 2011, p. 203). Foot patrol has limited practical applications, but transportation technologies may find a “middle ground” between foot and motor vehicle patrol for officers.

The introduction of various personal electric transporters has already represented one possible intermediary tool. A number of competing products have reached the consumer market in recent years and will continue to do so in the future. These transportation systems generally allow officers to patrol an area without the barriers of an automobile, but with greater speed and endurance than would be offered when traveling by foot. They also allow for efficient patrol in sprawling indoor locations, predominantly shopping malls. Officers might achieve speeds comparable to travel by bicycle or horseback, but without the same level of personal exertion. Most current systems cost considerably more than a well-equipped bicycle. Cost may be comparable to horseback, but with lower maintenance expenses. These systems are generally restricted to use on quality roadways and sidewalks but offer a higher degree of stability (because they use three wheels or gyroscopic stabilisation systems), allowing officers to focus on tasks other than system stabilisation (National Institute of Justice, 2006).

### **2.3.1.1 The use of technology as a means to curb the level of crime**

Technology has the potential to reduce crime rates by providing more efficient and effective tools for law enforcement. There has been a significant increase in law enforcement's ability to prevent and solve crimes as a result of advances such as surveillance cameras, facial recognition software, and predictive policing algorithms. These technologies allow for real-time monitoring and data analysis, enabling quicker response times and more accurate identification of criminal patterns. Further, the integration of smart home devices and community-based apps has enabled citizens to participate actively in the prevention of crimes through their use of smart home devices and community-based apps (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2021).

Technology is a rich and complex aspect of human life. Somewhat surprisingly, until recently, the field had few theorists of its own. Mitcham (1979, cited in LeClerc and Savona, 2016, p. 320), identifies four dimensions: artefact (tools, manufactured products), knowledge (scientific, engineering, technological know-how, along with insights from the social and physical sciences), process (problem-solving, research, and development, invention, innovation), and volition (ethics, technology as social construction). Arthur's (2009) attempt to provide a theory

of technology characterises it on different scales: as a means to fulfil a specific human purpose; an assemblage of practices and purposes; and the entire collection of devices and engineering practices available to a culture.

The concept of technology begins with phenomena that exist independently of nature. Technology is organised around central principles, which involve the application of one or more phenomena for some purpose. These principles, in turn, are expressed in the form of physical or informational components that are combined, often hierarchically, to fulfil that purpose. Technological domains are toolboxes of potential, clustered around a common set of phenomena or applied principles, such as the movement of mechanical parts or electrons. These frameworks also apply to technology in the field of crime and crime prevention, but require particularisation. For example, Mitcham's (1979, cited in LeClerc and Savona, 2016) volitional dimension could encompass the social institution of crime and the social forces of conflict between individuals or between individuals and broader social groups like the state. Arthur (2009) refers to multiple purposes; extending these to the multiple stakeholders who hold them is especially important in the case of criminal conflicts. As will be seen, these extensions bestow special qualities on technology in crime and its prevention (LeClerc and Savona, 2016, p. 321).

Crime prevention is a concept that has been applied in various ways to address the issue of crime. It refers to both activities, such as crime prevention programmes and strategies, and outcomes, including reduced crime rates in communities and lower rates of offending or re-offending by individuals (Clarke, 1997). In the context of crime prevention, researchers have explored the role of both formal and informal social control mechanisms, focusing on influences such as attachment, commitment, and involvement from family, peers, schools, workplaces, and communities, as well as the effects of shame and belief systems or religion (Hirschi, 1969). Furthermore, crime prevention strategies have been directed at different levels of prevention (primary, secondary, and tertiary), emphasising the necessity for individual actions, parochial actions by neighbourhood residents, and public initiatives to combat crime (Brantingham & Brantingham, 1991).

According to Sherman, *et al.* (1997), Hirschi (1987), Reiss and Roth (1993), and Farrell (1995, cited in Byrne and Marx, 2011, p. 20), understanding crime prevention requires studying intentions, as well as consequences. A broad array of measures need consideration beyond the traditional number of criminal events or offenders. Additional factors include the amount of harm prevented or the number of victims harmed or harmed repeatedly. An even broader definition of crime prevention can be seen in the concern with newer factors such as reduction of

risk factors for crime such as gang membership or failure to complete high school. While crime prevention currently is used as an ubiquitous, catch-all phrase that can be applied to both criminal justice-based and non-criminal justice-based initiatives, our focus is on strategies that utilise new technological innovations to either prevent crime or prevent re-offending by targeted groups of offenders that do not rely exclusively on traditional actions by the police (arrest), courts (prosecution), and corrections (punishment, control, reform).

According to a recent review of crime prevention technology by Brandon Welsh and David Farrington (2007, cited in Byrne and Marx, 2011, p. 21), *“Technological advances over the years have had a profound influence on the way we think about crime and the efforts that are taken to prevent it. Hard technologies to prevent crime cover a wide range of applications in different contexts, including metal detectors in schools, baggage screening at airports, bullet proof teller windows at banks, and security systems at homes and businesses”*. Other hard technology applications quickly come to mind, such as the use of personal protection devices and ignition interlock systems with alcohol sensor devices to prevent an individual from starting a car while intoxicated, and the various types of "social engineering strategies" described by Marx and advocates of crime prevention through situational crime control and/or environmental design manipulations.

It is difficult to estimate how extensively each of these hard technology crime prevention innovations has been adopted. For instance, several large U.S. cities, including Boston, New York, Los Angeles, Chicago, and Newark, New Jersey, have recently started deploying CCTV cameras. It was estimated that approximately one million CCTV cameras were deployed across the United States by 2006, but more current estimates are unavailable. Although no cost estimates have been calculated, it is clear that video surveillance expansion from private to public spaces will require substantial funding from local governments. What began as a technology to monitor “private retail interests and traffic flows” in the late 1950s has evolved into a police-managed and government-funded open visual surveillance system today (Nestlel, 2006; Hier, 2004; Greenburg and Roush, 2009, cited in Byrne and Marx, 2011, p. 21).

### **2.3.2 The challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to a lack of resources**

Urban areas in most countries around the world present some challenges for policing. For example, high population density can bring about several situations, such as mass demonstrations or protests, that can stimulate violence and chaos in public areas (UNODC and ICPC, 2023, p. 4). These situations can pose serious problems for the police, as crowds can grow beyond the number of available police officers and become unmanageable and unpredictable. In addition, as a centre of political activity, the city houses government departments, federal or national, state or provincial, and municipal or local leaders. It also hosts political conventions, which can invite the risk of political violence and require protection for high-level officials. This situation heightens the responsibility of the police and demands increased resources. Cities tend to host major events such as concerts, sports events, conferences, and official meetings, which attract tourists and foreigners and lead to large concentrations of people in public or private spaces. At the same time, police departments in jurisdictions of any size can suddenly be called upon to respond to a natural disaster or acts of terrorism. In this sense, the police need to work cooperatively with other local agencies to develop a large enough police presence or capacity to meet the demands and to coordinate the mobility of crowds or high-level individuals (UNODC, 2023, p. 4).

The challenges that policing cities face among others are:

- Order maintenance by informal local structures;
- Conflict over resources;
- Illegal provision of basic urban services;
- “Informalisation” of city spaces and services;
- High levels of absolute deprivation;
- High levels of tension between the wealthy and poor; and
- Police being targets of terrorism and political violence (UNODC, 2023, p. 4).

The privatisation of space can also make policing particularly difficult, especially in gaining access to certain parts of the city which are occupied by private security (UNODC, 2023, p. 4). Urban inequality is another challenge for the police, where the diversity of wealth in cities can test police officers’ alliance to their codes of conduct and principles. In this sense, the police must perform its function in a non-discriminatory manner with integrity and respect for human rights regardless of the socio-economic characteristics of a neighbourhood and its residents.

This may be affected by the reality that poverty and inequalities can contribute to the risk factors for engagement in criminal activities (e.g., violent youth gangs and organised criminal groups). This can lead to the creation of stereotypes about certain populations and areas in a city and influence the type of policing conducted. This is often the case in areas where immigrants, refugees, minorities, and rural migrants who tend to be marginalised, vulnerable and live in poverty, have taken up residence. Disparities can also enhance the exposure to risk for certain groups, especially women and youth, who are vulnerable to being trafficked for labour or sexual exploitation. Moreover, growing numbers of street youth in cities pose the problem of dealing with homeless underage individuals and the growth of street youth gangs (UNODC, 2023, p. 4).

Police officers face a variety of unique challenges when working in urban areas. These challenges include:

- Irregular and complex street patterns that can make it difficult to navigate and respond to emergencies;
- Rapid urban expansion that creates unmapped areas and unstable buildings;
- Poor infrastructure, including narrow streets and closely spaced buildings, that can limit tactical appraisals and policy implementation;
- Lack of consistent and regular urban transportation, which can interfere with police response times and create opportunities for criminal activity; and
- High levels of poverty and inequality, which can contribute to crime and undermine police legitimacy (Arias, 2016, p. 23).

Arias (2016) further states that these challenges are particularly acute in low- and middle-income countries, where urbanisation is often happening at a faster pace than local governments can keep up with. However, even in wealthier countries, urban policing requires specialised knowledge and skills to navigate the complex social and physical environments of cities.

Recent research conducted by Rantatalo, Lindberg, and Hällgren (2021) found that there has been an increasing interest in the challenges and strategies associated with policing in rural communities. Studies have shown that rural contexts are heterogeneous, and police forces need to be receptive to variations in local conditions. As an example, rural contexts are characterised by crime rates and victim and offender numbers that vary with poverty, unemployment, and seasonality. Different criminogenic patterns are associated with geographical factors, such as isolation or remoteness, or proximity to metropolitan areas, requiring varying responses and crime prevention strategies. Police in rural contexts need to be aware of local conditions and

knowledgeable about them, as well as incorporate this knowledge into their dealings with local communities, as reflected by research on policing. Therefore, the local police in rural communities face the challenge of being both ‘in’ and ‘out of’ the communities they serve. In rural policing, there are also challenges related to resource scarcity, deskilling of the police, isolation, and role pressure. Police officers in rural areas also face the challenge of dealing with limited resources. They often have to make difficult decisions on how to allocate limited resources and personnel. Further, rural police officers often lack the resources necessary to investigate and prosecute criminal activities.

### **2.3.3 The facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes**

There has long been a problem in providing police services across the country. There are many reasons for this inefficiency, but SAPS remains challenged by the difficulty of balancing limited resources with high levels of crime, growing service delivery demands, and increasing expectations from communities (South African Police Service, 2020). Various studies point directly to the poor allocation of resources as a key factor undermining effective policing, particularly at station level (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016). Resource allocation refers to the assignment of human and physical resources to police stations. Human resource establishment consists of staff appointed under the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 (operational or functional personnel) and staff appointed under the Public Service Act 103 of 1994 (administrative or support personnel) (Republic of South Africa, 1995; Republic of South Africa, 1994). Both urban and rural police services have been transformed since 1994 with a series of strategic and managerial reforms aimed at improving the core police service and operational transparency. As part of these reforms, a variety of innovative policing programmes have been introduced to make the police more proactive through community-oriented, sector-oriented, and intelligence-driven policing.

Certain aspects of police transformation promote new ways of using police resources, where new methodologies or strategies are developed to replace existing ones (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016). SAPS have since 2004 utilised the Resource Allocation Guide (RAG), which is used as a tool to determine the ideal human resource requirements at national, provincial and station level on an annual basis, using a basket of variables and factors that are performance- and non-performance-related (South African Police Service, 2004). The core variables are related to minimum service levels, business rules, workload, internal functions, and external factors (South African Police Service, 2004). The allocation of the budget during the

Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) dictates the number of actual or granted resources, particularly human resources, to be allocated at each level in the police (National Treasury, 2020). However, as has been argued, this method treats crime offences as static and does not allow sufficient room for refinement in cases of crime fluctuations (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016). The SAPS allocation of resources is based on a “theoretical” requirement, calculated according to the total time required for all tasks to be performed at a specific police station (South African Police Service, 2004). All station-level information is gathered and collated into the Input Management Sheet by the Station Information Management Centre (SIMC) (South African Police Service, 2004).

The Theoretical Human Resource Requirement (THRR) input sheet is divided into internal and external environment factors. The external factors comprise demographic factors which include population size, nature of the population, population movement, size of the precinct, topographical features of the environment, roads, transports, major infrastructure, regular large events, courts, and educational facilities. It also requests information on the number of gangs, registered and unregistered liquor outlets, firearm dealers, sellers, and registered owners, shopping centres, and tuck shops, among others. The THRR attempts to consider all factors in the external environment that are likely to affect policing. The internal environment factors include station infrastructure: area size of the station and various key facilities, rooms, community service centres, holding cells and toilets, information on other service points such as satellite stations, and number of client service centre activities such as registers in the SAPS environment entries (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016).

Furthermore, the tool takes into consideration reported crime per police station, per year. Finally, it accounts for the number of crime prevention activities. All these factors are weighted and aggregated as per the actual input sheet to arrive at a theoretical number. The issue of allocation by the state of human resources to policing is one that impinges on various constitutional rights, such as the right to safety and security of the person, dignity, life, and equality before the law, together with the right not to be unfairly discriminated against (Redpath and Nagla-Luddy, 2015, p. 15). Further, Redpath and Nagla-Luddy (2015, p. 15) state that where the distribution of human resources in policing per capita is not only unequal from area to area, but areas comprising predominantly poor and black people are particularly under-resourced, indirect discrimination on protected constitutional grounds exists. Such unequal resourcing is automatically unfair unless the state can show that the allocations are fair.

Goldstein (cited in Ellis, 2014, p. 4) points out that it is an anomaly of a functioning, free society: “You have invested a lot of powers in government systems, where powers are granted reluctantly, if allowed, it will be severely restricted”. This is at the heart of the problem of ensuring that the police have sufficient powers to perform their duties while limiting those powers so that they are not abused. The role of the police in a democracy presents the task of giving one group of people extraordinary power over another. At the same time, safety measures are in place to ensure these people, those we call the police, do not abuse this power (Ellis, 2014, p. 5). The increasing importance of proactive policing has highlighted the need to ensure that the police utilise their resources both efficiently and effectively. Traditionally, police agencies have allocated resources in response to their operational demands or requirements, with the majority of resources being distributed in response to political demands and public calls for service (Den Heyer, 2014, p. 63). The use and allocation of resources form part of an organisation's strategic direction and was first defined by Hamel and Prahalad (1998) who state, "allocating resources across businesses and geographies is an important part of a company's strategic direction" (Den Heyer, 2014, p. 64).

Good urban policing is an ongoing task based on the fusion of local knowledge with effective policies that have been tested in other areas. Effective policing involves not just implementing policies but developing local resource streams, coalitions, knowledge, and skills to maintain the policies in the long term. Solving security problems involves bringing together police, local government officials, the private sector, and neighbourhood civic actors (Vereinte *et al.*, 2011, p. 14).

#### **2.3.4 The value of providing adequate resources in combating rural and urban crimes**

The allocation of human resources for policing plays a crucial role in safeguarding constitutional rights such as the right to personal safety and security, human dignity, life, equality before the law, and freedom from unfair discrimination. Unequal distribution of policing resources across different areas can adversely impact the realisation of these rights. To some extent, the enhancement of safety and security within the nation and a province relies heavily on the adequate allocation of policing resources to every police precinct (South African Police Service, 2020). Resource allocation helps your agency maximise efficiency, foster collaboration, increase profit margins, and boost client satisfaction by keeping projects on track and assigning the right people to each job. Allocation of police resources at specific police precincts can have a direct and positive impact on enhancing safety levels and reducing specific types of

criminal activities. Resource allocations in the SAPS are directed by legislative frameworks. The list below presents various frameworks that provide guidance for resource allocation:

- South African Police Service, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995)
- Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996)
- Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (No.1 of 1999)
- 2006 Regulation 20(2) (3) of the SAPS Employment Regulations
- 2014 SAPS 'Back to Basics' strategy
- Medium Term Strategic Framework (2014-2019)
- 2016 White Paper on Policing in the National Development Plan 2030
- Medium Term Expenditure Framework (South African Police Service, 2020).

Resource allocation refers to the assignment of human and physical resources to police stations. Human resource establishment consists of staff appointed under the SAPS Act (operational or functional) and staff appointed under the Public Service Act (administrative or support). Post 1994, the South African Police Service has undergone a series of strategic and managerial reforms that were designed to improve core police service delivery, operational transparency, and broader police transformation, in both rural and urban areas. These reforms included a number of innovative policing programmes to change from a reactive to a proactive method of service delivery, such as Community-Oriented Policing (COP), sector policing, and intelligence-led policing.

Based on a need to deal with crime efficiently and effectively, the SAPS formulated models in order to allocate resources equitably. The models include the Mannekrag Plan, the Resource Allocation Guide (RAG), the Resource Establishment Plan, and the Theoretical Human Resource Requirement (THRR). The Mannekrag Plan was established after 1994, when the SAPS identified a need to develop a resourcing strategy that would meet the policing demands of the time. It focused on police station upgrades as and when funding was made available. In 1998/99 the RAG concept was formulated as a starting point. RAG became the Resource Establishment Plan (REP) and was tested in 2004/5. The THHR process began in 2011/12 and added more variables as adjustments were needed. In the public service, every post must be established and graded for remuneration purposes (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016).

Certain aspects of police transformation promote new ways of using police resources where new methodologies or strategies are developed to replace existing ones. The SAPS has since

2004 utilised the RAG which is used as a tool to determine the ideal human resource requirements at national, provincial, and station level on an annual basis, using a basket of variables/factors that are performance and non-performance related. The core variables are related to the minimum service levels, business rules, workload, internal functions, and external factors. The allocation of the budget during the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) dictates the number of actual/granted resources (especially human resources) to be allocated at each level in the police. However, as has been argued this method treats crime offences as static and it does not allow room for refinement in cases of fluctuations (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016).

#### **2.3.4.1 Overview of the SAPS resource allocation models**

A government can have a tremendous impact on the allocation of resources in a country (World Bank, 2017). This is especially true in countries where the government is more deeply involved in the economy, but it is true even in relatively laissez-faire countries such as the United States (World Bank, 2017). The distribution of police services throughout South Africa has long been a problem (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016). There are many possible explanations for the inefficiencies, but the SAPS still faces difficulties in balancing its resources with the high crime rates, the demands of providing services, the rising community expectations, and financial restraints (South African Police Service, 2020). Numerous studies directly link the inefficient allocation of resources to persistent service delivery challenges and uneven policing outcomes across different geographic areas (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016).

##### **2.3.4.1.1 Models of resource allocation for the South African Police Service**

Allocation of police resources at certain police precincts can contribute to increased safety and a decrease in certain crime categories (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016). Safe and secure agencies are well aware of the importance of equitable allocation of police resources (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, 2011). The SAPS realised that uniform standards needed to be established for allocating police resources to all police stations in the country. In the aftermath of the amalgamation of police forces into a single service, there was an acute need to assign resources in a systematic manner that took into account a number of factors that affect policing (South African Police Service, 1997).

The commonality among all these models is their objective to ascertain the authorised and actual distribution of resources at the police station level (South African Police Service, 2004). In 1997, SAPS formulated the Manpower Plan, which was utilised for the allocation of human and physical resources to police stations, and remained in effect until 1999 (South African Police Service, 1997). Subsequently, the Resource Estimation Programme (REP) was developed and implemented from 2000 to 2005 (South African Police Service, 2000). The REP eventually transformed into the Resource Allocation Guide (RAG), which was employed from 2005 to 2012 (South African Police Service, 2004). Currently, the Theoretical Human Resource Requirement (THRR) and Fixed Establishment (FE) approach, developed in 2012, are the prevailing models employed (South African Police Service, 2012). The subsequent section highlights the transition from the RAG to the THRR.

#### **2.3.4.1.2 Resource Allocation Guide**

The RAG was developed to determine a standard for resource allocation. A number and level of posts for police stations and clusters were calculated using an information technology-based solution adopted by SAPS in 2004. Clusters and police stations were budgeted using this technology-based solution. For its implementation by the different police stations, the SAPS Organisational Development Office developed the RAG. It was developed to determine the ideal or theoretical number of posts per level needed to perform the duties at a given police station. Budget constraints were not considered at this stage. Across the country, the RAG was implemented. However, after realising the shortcomings of this system, a Public Service Commission recommended that the national SAPS Office should conduct a review of the RAG because, in some instances, it recommended additional resources where some police stations seemed to have sufficient resources. These concerns led to the establishment of the THRR (Civilian Secretariat for Police Service, 2016).

According to Siegel and Worrall (2018, p. 188), budget realities demand that police leaders make the most effective use of their forces, and technology seems to be one method of increasing productivity at a relatively low cost. The introduction of technology has already been explosive. Today, all law enforcement organisations rely on computer technology. Law enforcement technology extends beyond computers, of course. It falls into two broad categories: hard technology and soft technology. Hard technology includes new materials and equipment that police use to catch criminals and prevent crime. Soft technology primarily consists of software and information systems. Innovations in this area include new programs, crime classification techniques, system integration, and data sharing. Furthermore, Byrne and Marx (2011, p. 19)

support Siegel and Worrall's statement that an initial distinction can be made between criminal justice innovations that have a hard material base and a less tangible information soft base. There is an increasing number of hard technologies aimed at preventing crime, including CCTV cameras in schools, metal detectors in airports, bulletproof teller windows in banks, and home security systems. Personal protection devices (tasers, mace, lifelines/emergency call mechanisms, and ignition interlock systems with alcohol-sensor devices to stop an individual from starting a vehicle while intoxicated) are also being used. Police officers are also using hard technology innovations, including new weapons, devices for less than lethal force, and vehicle enhancements.

Soft technologies involve the strategic use of information to prevent crime (e.g., the development of risk assessment and threat assessment instruments) and to improve the performance of the police (e.g., predictive policing technology and recording/video streaming capabilities in police vehicles). Soft technology innovations include new software programs, classification systems, crime analysis techniques, and data sharing or system integration techniques. In soft technologies, information is strategically used in order to prevent crime (e.g., developing risk assessment tools and threat assessment instruments) and to improve the performance of the police (e.g., recording/video streaming capabilities in police cars, predictive policing technology). Among the innovations in soft technology are new software applications, classification systems, crime analysis techniques, as well as techniques for sharing or integrating data. Examples of hard and soft technology appear in Table 2.1 below. Although this listing of new hard and soft technologies is not meant to be exhaustive, we suspect that it captures the range of technological innovations currently being applied in police settings, both in this country and abroad (Byrne and Marx, 2011, p. 19).

Table 2 1: The Application of Hard and Soft Technology to Crime Prevention and Police

	<b>Hard Technology</b>	<b>Soft Technology</b>
<b>Crime Prevention</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• CCTV</li> <li>• Street lighting</li> <li>• Citizen protection devices (e.g., mace, tasers)</li> <li>• Metal detectors</li> <li>• Ignition interlock systems (drunk drivers)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Threat assessment instruments</li> <li>• Risk assessment instruments</li> <li>• Bullying ID protocol</li> <li>• Sex offender registration</li> <li>• Risk assessment prior to involuntary civil commitment</li> <li>• Profiling potential offenders</li> </ul>

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facial recognition software used in conjunction with CCTV</li> </ul>
<b>Police</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improved police protection devices (helmets, vests, cars, buildings)</li> <li>• Improved/new weapons</li> <li>• Less than lethal force (mobile/riot control)</li> <li>• Computers in squad cars</li> <li>• Hands-free patrol car control (Project 54)</li> <li>• Offender and citizen IDs via biometrics/fingerprints</li> <li>• Mobile data centers</li> <li>• Video in patrol cars</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Crime mapping (hot spots)</li> <li>• Crime analysis (e.g., CompStat)</li> <li>• Criminal history data systems enhancement</li> <li>• Information sharing in criminal justice and private sectors</li> <li>• New technologies to monitor communications (phone, mail, Internet) to/from targeted individuals</li> <li>• AMBER alerts</li> <li>• Creation of watch lists of potential violent offenders</li> <li>• Gunshot location devices</li> </ul>

Source: Siegel and Worrall (2018, p. 188)

Police are becoming more sophisticated in their use of computer software to identify and convict criminals. One of the most important computer-aided tasks is the identification of criminal suspects. Computers now link neighbouring agencies so they can share information on cases, suspects, and warrants. On a broader jurisdictional level in the U.S., the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) implemented the National Crime Information Centre in 1967. This system provides rapid collection and retrieval of data about persons wanted for crimes anywhere in the 50 states. Most police departments are using computerised imaging systems to replace mug books. Photos or sketches are stored in computer memory and are easily retrieved for viewing. Several software companies have developed identification programs that help witnesses create a composite picture of the perpetrator. A vast library of photographed or drawn facial features can be stored in computer files and accessed on a terminal screen. Witnesses can scan thousands of noses, eyes, and lips until they find those that match the suspects; eyeglasses, moustaches, and beards can be added; skin tones can be altered. When the composite is created, an attached camera prints a hard copy for distribution (Siegel and Worrall, 2018, p. 189).

### 2.3.5 The role of police in crime prevention

Reiss (1971, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 18) states that the police are the major representatives of the legal system in their transactions with citizens. The police "adapt the universal standards of the law to the requirements of the citizen and the public through their right to exercise discretion". They are also the "major emergency arm of the community in times of personal and public crisis". In carrying out their mandate, the police "possess a virtual monopoly on the legitimate use of force" (Bittner, 1970). Although using force may be at the core of the police's role, the police also provide a variety of more mundane governmental and social services. In doing their job, the police have intimate contact with a wide variety of citizens in a wide variety of situations:

Police officers deal with people when they are both most threatening and most vulnerable, when they are angry, when they are frightened, when they are desperate, when they are drunk, when they are violent, or when they are ashamed. Every police action can affect in some way someone's dignity, or self-respect, or sense of privacy, or constitutional rights. (President's Commission, 1967, pp. 91-92)

The police's role is the part that police are expected to play in a democratic society. There are several major sources of expectations concerning what the police should do and how they should do it, including the law, the police organisation, the community, and the individual. The extent of role-related conflict over the police either increases or decreases depending on the degree to which these expectations are shared. When expectations from different sources are compatible, there is minimal difficulty in deciding what the police should do and how they should do it. When expectations differ, however, conflict can arise over the police's role. The different kinds of expectations for the police's role are as follows:

1. Legal expectations. Laws provide the basic framework in which the police are supposed to function. Although the police do not always follow the law, legal expectations have a substantial influence on what they do and how they behave. Police do not enforce all laws all the time, rather, they exercise discretion in deciding what law to enforce and how to enforce them. These discretionary decisions may not always be compatible with what either the formal organisation or the community expects (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 19).
2. Organisational expectations. The formal and informal aspects of a police department produce organisational expectations. Formal expectations are derived from leaders, supervisors, training programmes, and the goals, objectives, policies, procedures, and regulations of the police department. Informal expectations are derived from officers' peers, the work group, and the police culture (Crank, 1998; Paoline, 2001). Officers are strongly influenced

by their work experiences and the way in which they adjust to the emotional, psychological, intellectual, and physical demands of police work. They must attempt to do their job in a manner that is acceptable to both the police department and their peers, while trying to stay safe and not provoke citizen complaints.

3. Community expectations. Societal trends and problems, in general and in each community, create an environment of community expectations. Individual citizens and subgroups - women and men, youth, rich and poor, traditionalists and cosmopolitans, members of minority groups, immigrants - all have their own opinions about police and their own priorities and preferences. In some communities there can be a reasonable degree of consensus about the role that the police should play, but in many communities, there are divergent expectations. To add an additional complication, these expectations often change over time in response to specific events, evolving conditions, or changes in the composition of the community (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 19).
4. Individual expectations. Police employees' individual expectations refer to their personal perspectives concerning the degree to which their needs are met by the organisation and their working environment. All employees expect to be treated fairly and adequately rewarded. They also have their own beliefs about police work and how the police's role should be carried out. Those beliefs may be affected by peers and the police culture, but they can also be individualistic (Linn, 2008, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 19).

Bezuidenhout (2020, p. 516) claims that in South Africa, the functions of SAPS are stipulated under section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996. As set out in section 205(3), the objectives of the police service are to prevent, combat, and investigate crime, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law. There was also support for this in the South African Police Act 68 of 1995 and South African Police Service Amendment Act 10 of 2012. The SAPS was once known as South African Police (SAP) between 1913 and 1994; its function was similar to military defence and it enforced the apartheid policy under the National Party government. After the democratic elections, the SAP changed to SAPS as the government recognised that the 'force' exercised by SAP was unconstitutional and did not serve the community.

It was also recognised that the police alone cannot prevent crime and that the community plays an important part in crime prevention. A partnership between the police and community was needed. The SAPS introduced the Community Policing (CP) philosophy to address the need for a partnership. Later, the Sector Policing (SP) strategy was introduced to compliment CP initiatives. Moreover, other researchers, most notably Przeszloski and Crichlow (2018), Crowl

(2017), Meyer and van Graan (2011), and Segrave and Collines (2000, cited in Bezuidenhout 2020, p. 516), noted that CP is a move away from traditional reactive policing to proactive policing. It is a strategy that aims to reduce crime through establishing a partnership with the community as a joint venture to respond to the crime situation in South Africa. CP aims to reduce crime, improve the quality of life, reduce the fear of crime, and improve police transparency.

The police share a relationship with the community through the Community Police Forum (CPF). CPF members are selected at the general meetings and the station commander of each police station and precinct is responsible to inform and present the local community. The community can liaise with the police on issues that need attention in the neighbourhood. Essentially, CP sees community as the 'eye and ears' of the police (South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995). The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 sets out the functions of the CPFs and the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (1997) provides guidance for the implementation of community policing (South African Police Service, 1997).

Crime prevention presupposes the promotion of inclusion and social cohesion. Sport can play a unique role in this respect by generating social capital and by helping to mobilise communities and promote social inclusion and solidarity. Sport participation is often presented as a means of social inclusion and integration and as a site for meetings and forming bonding relationships between youth and formative role models (Dandurand and Heidt, 2022, p. 41). Other researchers, most notable Catalano *et al.*, (2004), Coalter (2013), Roth and Brooks-Gunn (2016), Bailey (2018), and Eisman *et al.* (2018), however, are critical of the idea that sport offers youth a sense of belonging and an opportunity to expand their social networks. According to Sandford, Armour, and Warmington (2006, cited in Dandurand and Heidt, 2022, p. 41), the need to create a sense of community and belonging among individuals has been identified by numerous authors as a significant element in any programme for disaffected youth. Social capital is pivotal to understanding the impact of sport participation. It is viewed as a means of promoting social inclusion for marginalised groups. Social capital theory assumes that "social activity within the context of group participation, exhibiting clear aims and outcomes, results in an increase in the social capital for participants" (Sherry and Strybosch, 2012, p. 498).

### **2.3.6 South African Police Service is part of the community**

Historically, the police in South Africa have concerned themselves with internal control and projecting a good image. With the emphasis now on community policing, the community is more involved in police matters and developing a strong relationship between the police and the community is important (Smit, Minnaar and Schnetler, 2004, p. 68). According to Dunham and Alpert (2001, cited in Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 68), the new paradigm of policing emphasises that the police must engage in community-based processes related to the production and maintenance of local, human, and social capital. The development of strong relationships with institutions is the only way in which these goals can be achieved.

Furthermore, Dunham and Alpert (2001, cited in Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 68) identify four themes for the new paradigm of policing. The first theme, building a strong relationship with the community, has two justifications: first, it is an important way to make law enforcement more effective; second, it is a way to prevent crime and make the community co-producers of justice. It also enables the community to see police as agents of peace rather than simply law enforcers. The second theme emphasises combating community problems on a broader front. This theme focuses on what police can do to deal with the fear experienced by members of the community. This can be done by achieving high levels of customer satisfaction. The third theme emphasises some important changes in the way police visualise their work and their methods. Although police activities centre on 'incidents', a large proportion of incidents emerge from a relatively small number of situations and locations. The police must become integral to community life. The fourth theme focuses on changes in internal working relationships. The police must examine the potential strengths and weaknesses of decentralising authority by seeking ways to guide discretion and police behaviour generally through increasing reliance on values rather than rules and strict methods of accountability.

It is impossible for police to operate in isolation since they interact constantly with individuals, communities, and a variety of institutions. To reduce crime and violence, collaboration with civil society is often essential. In recent years, community policing has gained popularity as a policing strategy focusing on the decentralisation of policing responsibility to allow local commanders and front-line officers to develop and implement policing strategies in collaboration with neighbourhood populations. A CPF is a legislated structure that establishes relations between the police and the community, and makes contributions to police priorities, among other duties. This institution was established in accordance with Act No. 68 of 1995, the SAPS Act.

The CPF's role and function have evolved over the years, and many are now central to local crime prevention initiatives (Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 69).

It is important to note that the representativeness and usefulness of CPFs differ from place to place. Community policing is based on Act No. 108 of 1996, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. In the interim constitution, section 221(1) and (2) describe the various functions of community-police forums established at police stations under an Act of Parliament. As a means of reinforcing constitutional safety and security prescriptions, the then Minister of Safety and Security issued a draft policy document called "Change" in 1994. An important milestone in the document was the emphasis on democracy within SAPS, as well as community involvement in safety and security matters. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison announced that, as part of the CPF initiative, 400 CPF members from 100 policing precincts in Gauteng would receive accredited training that year. As part of the training and recruitment programme, a variety of volunteers were trained, including Community Safety Patrollers (CSP), Victim Support Workers (VSWs), and Community Safety Patrollers (Holtmann and Domingo-Swartz, 2008, p. 120).

Police officers are historically, traditionally, and legally citizens - they are recruited out of the community. The public tends to see the police as different from the community, which strengthens the 'us and them' syndrome (Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 60). Good police-community relations are needed for the community to understand the frustrations of the police and for police to understand the needs and expectations of the community. If a community sees police as part of the community, police should have a clear perception of the community problems which they too experience. Individual police officials may also need the services of the SAPS and desire safety and security for themselves, their families, and their property (Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 61). The South African Police Service is a people-oriented service. It is a service for the community by the community, with the emphasis on the fundamental rights of all the people of South Africa. The rationale is based on the needs of people and the flexibility of policing, which is the basis for community policing. It involves a consultative approach in which the community is the key stakeholder. This approach gives rise to the need for mechanisms such as CPFs and other civilian involvement in policing matters (Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 61). In enhancing crime prevention and ensuring safety within the communities, police ensure that they contribute by providing a visible presence, this is practiced in the form of patrols; being more integrated in the community by forming the CPF structures and having informers; providing information to the public to ensure that the public is always aware of the crime trends within their areas

through campaigns; helping to mediate and resolve conflicts; offering support to victims; acting as mentors and role models; as well as participating in local crime prevention partnerships. One aspect of redressing these imbalances involved a process of decentralisation of police personnel, increasing local accessibility by, for example, installing sub-stations in dispersed areas or establishing neighbourhood teams. A different aspect involved police reaching out to other community-based organisations, creating more active connections with localised services, ranging from public agencies, such as schools, hospitals, or social work departments, through charitable or third-sector organisations, to self-help neighbourhood groups (Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 61).

Community Safety Partnerships (CSPs) were formed in accordance with the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 and are not only committed to tackling crime and the fear of crime, but also the causes of crime. CSPs are made up of representatives from the '*responsible authorities*', which are the:

- Police,
- Local authorities,
- Fire and rescue authorities,
- Probation service, and
- Health (Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 36)

These groups have a statutory duty to work with other local agencies to develop and implement strategies to tackle crime and disorder. This includes issues such as crime, anti-social behaviour, drug misuse, and a reduction in re-offending. Section 115 of the Crime and Disorder Act 1998 gives any person the power to lawfully disclose information, for the prevention of crime and disorder, to the police, local authorities, probation service, or health authorities, and it is this element of partnership that many neighbourhood policing officers find particularly useful.

Vereinte *et al.* (2011, p. 71) render a better explanation for this phenomenon, arguing that police distribute resources in response to information they have about where crimes are occurring and what they know about crime dynamics in the cities in which they work. To develop such information, police must work with other public organisations. Police may know that crimes are occurring in a neighbourhood through statistical information or through the reports of officers working in the area; residents of the area, however, may understand more than police about why the crimes are occurring as a result of their experiences living in and using the facilities of the neighbourhood. It is essential that police also share information with other groups so that they can effectively provide security to those groups in the areas in which they

live and work. Similarly, working with park administrators and park users can help to identify which parts of a park are most dangerous at night. Park officials may also know something about how foliage changes in the park over the course of a year and can help police to determine which effective strategies to use in response to the changing conditions.

Thus, if a park manager knows through the police that criminals are using some hedges to stage assaults, the manager can trim the hedges. Alternatively, the managers of transit systems will benefit from knowing which stations suffer the highest levels of crime and in which parts of the stations crimes occur so that they can undertake improvements to those stations, such as installing security cameras, to increase passenger safety. Communities using information from the police can work together, for example, to improve neighbourhood watch activities or reach out to potential offenders with alternatives to crime such as educational and employment opportunities. Such efforts can help to secure spaces and reduce the need for police intervention later. Effective communication between police and social actors can enable the police to participate in decisions about the structure and management of public spaces to help create greater safety (Vereinte *et al.*, 2011, p. 71).

In small towns, rural areas, or tribal communities, many agencies serve the residents with strong interpersonal connections. Social integration of police officers in these communities maintains a feeling of legitimacy and trust in the police. Many small or remote towns have officers who are easily recognisable or who are themselves local residents. Positive interactions and trust between non-police residents are more likely when police are viewed as community members rather than as outsiders. Problem-solving responses are common in rural and small towns, particularly when residents contact police for service-related issues. It has been a tradition for small, rural, and tribal police agencies to engage with the community without forming formal units. Due to the close relationships between small, rural, and tribal agencies, officers may feel more accountable to their communities than their counterparts in larger or urban agencies. Officers may be more cautious and act in a way that is procedurally just if they have such a close relationship. This accountability can increase police legitimacy, which means community members are more likely to comply with the law (IACP 2021, p. 3).

In small, rural, and tribal police agencies, there is a public service orientation to police work that is reflected in the various responsibilities that police officers are expected to perform. In many of these agencies, there are limited funds or personnel resources for full-time specialised positions, so officers will have to fill a range of roles according to the community's needs and

circumstances in order to function effectively. The flexibility of this system increases efficiency and enables a small number of officers to handle a wide range of quality-of-life issues that extend beyond the prevention of crime (IACP, 2021, p. 3). This adaptability can make implementing new, evidence-based crime reduction strategies in small, rural, and tribal agencies easier than in larger, urban agencies. Smaller agencies often have less bureaucratic red tape, allowing them to implement changes more quickly. They also tend to have closer ties to their communities, which can facilitate collaboration and acceptance of new strategies. The smaller size means fewer people need to be trained, making the transition smoother and quicker.

Agencies can leverage existing community partnerships and support to increase community-police engagement in several ways:

- Attend community events such as resource fairs, neighbourhood clean-up events, community-police bicycle rides, and faith/prayer walks;
- Conduct listening sessions, roundtables, focus groups, policy review committees, and community advisory groups to identify problems and co-produce tangible solutions;
- Establish strategic partnerships with community-based service providers, substance abuse treatment services, victim services, business associations, faith-based organisations, and educational institutions;
- Keep an open dialogue with the community through neighbourhood briefings, town hall meetings, facilitated police-community dialogues, and public safety roundtables;
- Leverage social media and press conferences to share information;
- Offer citizen police academies, volunteer opportunities (neighbourhood watch programmes, Citizens on Patrol, etc.), and youth engagement activities (Police Athletic Leagues); and
- Survey the community for feedback.

The IACP offers a wealth of community-police engagement resources on community partnerships, bias-free policing, use of force, leadership and culture, recruitment and hiring, community trauma/victim services, and cooperative safety solutions.

According to Novak *et al.* (2020), the evolution toward more targeted policing, including the development of POP, was focused on improving police effectiveness in crime control. Controlling crime is one of the principal goals of the police, and it had become apparent by the 1970s and 1980s that prevailing police strategies were not working well. The state of police-community relations had become unsatisfactory. Efforts began as early as the 1950s to try to

improve how police dealt with the public and how the public perceived the police. In a free society that prides itself on government "of the people, by the people, and for the people", positive police- community relations are important in their own right, a telling reflection of social harmony and democracy.

In more practical terms, if the public does not trust and respect the police, the police's job becomes harder and more dangerous. Ultimately, police can only be successful if they are seen by the public as legitimate. If the community sees the police as an occupying army or a band of heavy-handed strangers, all aspects of policing become more difficult. Changes in society and in the routine nature of police work have tended to create more distance between the police and the public. The advent of police cars, for example, and later air conditioning in those cars, resulted in larger patrol beats for officers and less informal contact with citizens. Similarly, the development of 911 telephone systems made it easier for the public to summon the police in an emergency but also made police patrol units much busier and more closely tethered to their patrol cars, further reducing informal police-public contact.

The reform model of policing viewed the community relationship primarily through legal and bureaucratic lenses. As tensions rose, this model sought to respond to public needs better by diversifying the police force and creating community-relations initiatives. During the 1950s and 1960s, numerous police departments set up community-relations units to address perceived issues in police-community interactions. Initially focused on public relations, these units aimed to convey the police perspective to the community but were soon recognised as one-dimensional. Consequently, they evolved to include forums for community members to voice their perspectives to the police. This two-way police-community relations philosophy underscored the significance of communication and mutual understanding. Police departments frequently established citizen advisory groups, conducted neighbourhood meetings, launched youth engagement programmes, and actively sought to connect with the community (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 103).

In the 1970s, it became apparent that a few police-community relations officers or a small unit were not effective in guaranteeing smooth relations between a community and its police department. It was recognised that a community experiences its police department much more through the actions of patrol officers and detectives than through the speeches made by community-relations specialists. Efforts then began to train regular patrol officers in community relations and crime-prevention techniques and to make them more knowledgeable about community characteristics and problems. In the 1970s and 1980s, the public became increasingly

fearful of crime, especially violence, gang activity, and drug use, all of which were alarmingly portrayed by the media. Many police departments became more legalistic, proactive, and assertive in an effort to deal with these problems and to satisfy public and political pressure. They tended to rely on aggressive patrol, field interrogations, citations, arrests, and increased undercover activities. Although applauded by many minority leaders, this also increased the tension between police and minority citizens, particularly African Americans and Hispanics. The perception that some police officers were discriminating against minority citizens became widespread. This perception was often accurate, particularly as it applied to the police's use of excessive force. The degree to which such behaviour was racially motivated or wilful was much more difficult to determine. These issues, and how best to deal with them, continue today in the context of racial profiling (Fridell, 2001).

Many police-community relations programmes evolved into community crime prevention in the 1970s and 1980s. This approach is based on the assumption that if a community can be changed, so can the behaviour of those who live there. Attempts to change communities often include (1) organising the community to improve and strengthen relationships among residents to encourage them to take preventive precautions and to obtain more political and financial resources; (2) changing building and neighbourhood design to improve both public and police surveillance, which improves guardianship; (3) improving the appearance of an area to decrease the perception that it is a receptive target for crime; and (4) developing activities and programmes that provide a more structured and supervised environment (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 104).

According to Sherman *et al.* (1973) and Schwartz and Clarren (1977, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 104), a major reorganisation effort toward decentralisation and increased community participation, known as team policing, was attempted in several cities in the 1970s. Team policing was an obvious precursor to COP, but it did not succeed at the time. The approach involved reorganising the patrol force to include one or more quasi-autonomous teams, united in the objective of improving police services to the community and enhancing job satisfaction for the officers. Each team was typically stationed in a specific neighbourhood and was responsible for all police services within that area. The expectation was for the team to operate as a cohesive unit and build a close relationship with the community to prevent crime and maintain order. However, most team policing programmes showed little difference from traditional policing in the past, primarily due to resistance within police culture, pushback from the police bureaucracy, and insufficient evidence supporting its effectiveness as a policing strategy. By the

1980s, team policing had largely faded away, but the need for better police-community relations remained. Subsequently, foot patrol emerged. Many observers now believe that the decline of foot patrol in most American police departments by the mid-1900s altered the nature of police work and had a detrimental impact on police-citizen relations. Officers assigned to large patrol car beats do not cultivate the intimate understanding and cordial relationships with the community that foot patrol officers on smaller beats develop. Officers on foot are better positioned to engage with citizens on a personal level compared to those driving by in cars (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 104).

### **2.3.7 Partnerships play an important role in achieving success**

There is growing recognition among law enforcement officials that effective law enforcement requires police-community relations in order to accomplish effective crime control. In other words, effective policing involves the community instead of imposing on it. Throughout American history, three major eras of policing have offered important lessons: the political era (1840s–1930), the reform era (1930–1970s), and the community problem-solving era (1970s–2001). It is evident that the police need community cooperation to be effective. A police presence cannot always be maintained in every neighbourhood, but residents inherently exist there as well. A common citizen is aware of the typical atmosphere of his or her neighbourhood and can notice any irregularities, strange people, or unfamiliar vehicles - factors that indicate that illegal activities are taking place. To earn the community's trust and respect, police must conduct themselves professionally while adhering to the law (Carolyn, 2016, p. 11).

A partnership in this context is defined as the collaboration between two or more organisations for the purpose of achieving a common objective. Individuals or organisations must collaborate in order to deliver satisfactory outcomes for the community and themselves, even if they are normally independent of each other. In order to provide services promptly, different services, agencies and teams of professionals often work together with each other. Two reasons have contributed to the rise in popularity of multi-agency working. Firstly, it offers benefits to the service user, which is one of the reasons behind its popularity. There are many complex community safety issues, comprised of multifaceted issues, which single agencies cannot effectively handle by themselves due to their complexity. According to Goldstein (1990, cited in Kirby and Keay, 2021, p. 123), police enforcement powers are relatively ineffective because they can only treat symptoms of a problem rather than its causes.

Schuller (2013, cited in Kirby and Keay, 2021, p. 123) contends that agencies in collaboration provide more sustainable solutions because they provide those in need with a more tailored approach by using the most appropriate service. Multi-agency responses are often associated with marginalised individuals who are often the focus of numerous agencies, but they can also be used to tackle problem places and events. Moreover, the agencies themselves benefit from merging resources. Public sector budgets are under considerable pressure all over the world, so merging resources prevents duplication and saves money. As a result of crime concentrations around particular people and places, fusing resources is a practical proposition because crime hot spots are consistently linked to areas of unemployment, poor health, and poor education. The individual selected for Schuller's (2013, cited in Kirby and Keay, 2021, p. 123) study had generated scrutiny from a variety of agencies, including police, housing, employment, education, and social services. The sharing of information about people and places that generate activity across multiple agencies is a cost-effective way to reduce duplication, costs, and traffic congestion.

Moreover, other researchers, most notably Sloper (2004), Robinson and Cottrell (2005), Horwath and Morrison (2007), and Barnes (2008, cited in Kirby and Keay, 2021, p. 124) are critical of the idea that the theory of partnership working is simple, as implementing it is more challenging since it involves bringing together agencies with different priorities and cultural practices. This means that partnership working can often lead to procedural conflict rather than a cohesive team response. Taking steps to alleviate this tension requires awareness and compromise, including agreeing on the leader, objectives, and accountability. A clear understanding of logistic issues is also required, such as interoperability, funding, property, training, management support, time devoted to the project, and operational protocols.

There are two types of partnerships: informal and formal (Ratcliffe, 2008). Informal ad hoc partnerships are usually problem-based, formed to address immediate and specific concerns faced by practitioners (Innes, 2006). For example, an officer from the police could work in conjunction with the residents committee, the housing association, and the school to combat anti-social behaviour (Innes, 2006). An informal partnership is flexible, outcome-focused, and relatively inexpensive (Ratcliffe, 2008). The approach to formal partnerships can differ greatly (Ratcliffe, 2008). In this type of partnership, an analyst would provide specific intelligence products concerning the people, places, and times involved in the issue (Ratcliffe, 2008). The expectations of an intelligence analyst are shaped by the strategy and structure of these formal partnerships (Ratcliffe, 2008). As part of strategic partnerships, analysts develop problem and

subject profiles, examine demographic trends, and evaluate initiatives, among other things (Ratcliffe, 2008).

Some partnerships simply come together to respond to complaints more efficiently, while others form to prevent problems from occurring or becoming worse. Prevention is based on three dominant strategies, all requiring different types of intelligence analysis. Primary or upstream approaches aim to prevent or reduce the risk of a problem arising in the first place. In most cases, this involves targeting a broader population, rather than a specific group, with the intervention. It also involves identifying individuals/groups or locations at risk and preventing problems through a secondary approach known as midstream or early intervention. Finally, tertiary or downstream approaches focus on people and places where chronic problems already exist. They provide remedial treatments to reduce their intensity (Kirby and Keay, 2021, p. 124).

In South Africa, crime has been on the rise for many years. The government, community, businesses, and crime prevention specialists must form meaningful partnerships if South Africa is to turn the tide against this crime wave. In order to deal effectively with crime, since SAPS cannot provide enough manpower, skills, or physical resources, forming partnerships is the only way to achieve this.

As part of its collaborative efforts, SAPS has established partnerships with:

- Other government departments and agencies such as:
  - Provincial nature conservation agencies and the Environmental Management Inspectorate (EMI) of the Department of Environmental Affairs which focus on illegal poaching and other environmental crimes; South African Revenue Service (SARS) and the Financial Intelligence Centre;
- Non-profit and community groups; and
- Private business groups that focus on crime prevention.

Participation is crucial in creating an effective national crime fighting strategy because it enables effective communication, coordination and collaboration between law enforcement agencies and their partners (Kirby and Keay, 2021).

Individual and collective safety and property-based security are widely viewed as basic human rights and essential elements for well-being and quality of life. Crime prevention plays a key role and is increasingly integrated into national governments' safety strategies and plans. In the

partnership approach to crime-to-crime prevention, crime is seen as a social rather than a security matter and involves the whole community. Where previously crime prevention was the main responsibility of the police, it is now the joint responsibility of all governments, Non-Government Organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations, and individual members of the community (Smith *et al.*, 2004, p. 80). The concept of partnership is central to the government's crime-prevention strategy. The criterion for successful partnerships is cooperation among all the role-players in a specific area. All role-players involved in creating a safer environment must be determined to do what they can to prevent crime and to create safer communities by promoting partnership between police, local government, and the private and voluntary sectors (Smith *et al.*, 2004, p. 80).

Geldenhuis (2018) supports the position that private security companies and the police collaborate in many ways, including crime prevention, information sharing, resource sharing, and operational partnerships. This view is reinforced by Simonsen (1998), who states that both the police and the private security industry have similar interests, which he states as follows:

- Maintaining law and order: it is generally the task of the police to keep law and order among the members of the public. In places where private security services are employed, they share the responsibility of keeping order in those respective areas where they operate.
- Crime prevention activities: the police are encouraged to develop plans for preventing crime in the community. Similarly, private security service providers also develop plans to prevent crime in the areas they protect. The main issue is for all stakeholders to play a proactive role in terms of crime reduction rather than being reactive to criminal incidents.
- Personal safety: The main responsibility of the police is to ensure the safety and security of all members of public, while it is the responsibility of a private security agency to ensure the safety of all its clients, employees, and visitors in the areas that they protect.

Both aim to reduce crime, maintain order, and protect people. However, private security serves the narrow interests of a contracting organisation or client, whereas police serve the wider public's interests. Security officers are similar to law enforcement officers in that they wear uniforms and drive vehicles (Minnaar, 2004), and sometimes even have access to better resources than law enforcement officers.

The position Geldenhuys (2018) adopts is also supported by Kole (2015), who states that, in order to reduce crime, private security firms and the police should work together in partnership. The main reason for this is that both parties perform a number of duties. Each party cannot claim they are independent of the other, and the partnership benefits the members of the broader community. The private security industry and SAPS perform a number of similar tasks, including patrolling, responding to alarm calls and crime reports, and managing crowds. By establishing perimeter security and other protective barriers and security measures, private security also involves securing assets and people. It is also common for security companies to develop internal investigative capacities, which collect information and evidence, interview suspects, and develop criminal cases that are normally handed over to the authorities for prosecution, as part of the investigation of “incidents” (Minnaar, 2004).

The Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (SAPS, 1998) and the Constitution of 1996 provide provisions and assistance for the police in establishing conditions for improved relations in the communities in which they operate. Partnership policing refers to the collaboration that takes place among police officers, community members, government agencies, and other stakeholders in order to prevent crime (Miller and Hess, 2005, cited in Mabunda, 2018, p. 93). An integral part of this strategy is assisting partners to promote community well-being in the face of crime and other social ills. Partnership policing is implemented to ensure a collaborative relationship between the SAPS and external stakeholders, which include community organisations, businesses, the private sector, NGOs, and civil society. Partnership policing is intended to encourage local communities to participate actively with the SAPS. This is to develop common approaches and objectives to fight crime and to organise partnerships, which is an effective way to confront crime and related issues. In 2017/2018, the SAPS Guidelines for the Establishment of Crime Prevention Partnerships were developed, through consultation with stakeholders, and have since been disseminated to all provinces.<sup>1</sup>

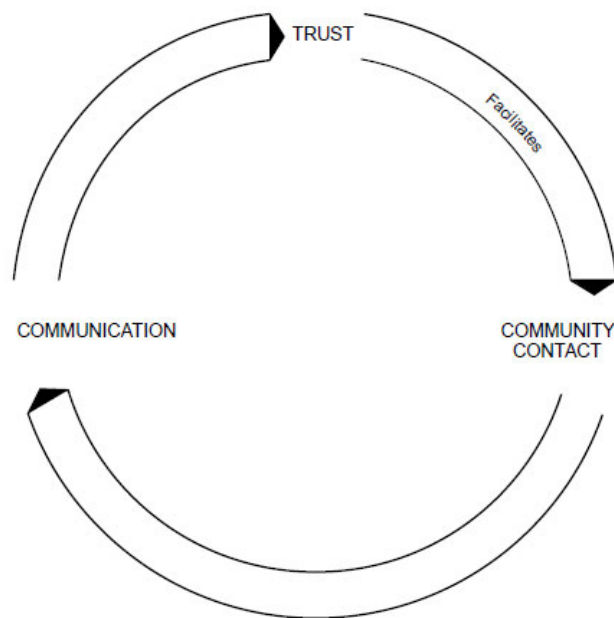
The SAPS has taken a commendable step in addressing the social factors that contribute to criminal activity. To achieve this, SAPS has formed a strategic alliance with a range of organisations that share the same vision of creating a safer and more secure environment for citizens. This partnership is comprised of highly respected members, including South African Breweries, Svenska Aeroplan Aktiebolaget, Digititan, Price Waterhouse Coopers, Business Venture

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<sup>1</sup> ([https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis\\_document/101810/saps-annual-report.pdf](https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/gcis_document/101810/saps-annual-report.pdf)).

South Africa (Menlyn), Cross-Border Road Transport Agency, Moral Regeneration Movement, Tourism Council of South Africa, and the University of South Africa - College of Human Sciences. Through this alliance, SAPS aims to tackle the root causes of criminal activity proactively by addressing the social issues that contribute to it. By working closely with these organisations, SAPS can implement effective strategies that promote social cohesion and upliftment, thereby reducing crime levels. This partnership is a positive step towards creating a better South Africa, and it highlights the importance of collaboration in achieving this goal. SAPS and its partners are committed to making a meaningful difference in the lives of citizens, and this is indeed a commendable initiative (South African Police Service, 2023).

**Figure 2.2: Community Policing Process**



Source: Researcher's illustration

Community policing strategies can be effective in building trust and cooperation between law enforcement and local residents by forming and supporting local security organisations, such as community watch groups, that can help to enforce the law in situations where there are few police resources. Community policing strategies include, creating local safety forums that enable police to meet regularly with community leaders to discuss an array of problems in the community as well as ways for the police to work with residents in solving the problems; working with residents to create conditions where residents themselves enforce norms to control crime by taking local delinquents to task; and developing positive relations with community residents by actively engaging with them on issues beyond crime control, such as transportation

and community events. By involving local residents in the policing process and building relationships based on mutual respect and cooperation, community policing can help to reduce crime and improve public safety while also enhancing police legitimacy and community trust (Arias, 2016, p. 94).

Roycroft and Brine (2021, p. 31) are both of the view that partnerships aid in the implementation of the Crime Prevention Model which is comprised of:

- Primary Prevention (situation and social prevention) is directed at stopping a problem before it happens. This involves reducing the opportunities for crime, addressing social and/or environmental factors that increase risks of offending, and strengthening community and social structures.
- Secondary Prevention seeks to change people, typically those at high risk of embarking upon a criminal career. The focus can be on rapid/effective early interventions (e.g., youth programmes) and/or high risk neighbourhoods.
- Tertiary Prevention focuses on dealing with offending after it has happened. The focus is on intervention in the lives of known offenders in an attempt to prevent them from re-offending.

Cunningham in *Rising to the Top* (Fleming, 2015, cited in Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 31) outlines seven characteristics of effective partnerships:

- Focus on the problem,
- Concentration on Problem Orientated Policing (PoP),
- Trust between the partners,
- Co-location of services,
- Sharing of success,
- Retaining of professional identity.
- A display of leadership.

In particular, the Multi-Agency Safeguarding Hub (MASH) and Multi-Agency Risk Assessment Conference (MARAC) provide triage and multi-agency assessment of safeguarding concerns for vulnerable adults and children. They share information from every agency and agree upon the most effective intervention. Together, they are able to identify risks and make joint decisions in a timely manner. The goal is to assess, manage, and reduce risks by taking coordinated action (Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 31).

### Figure 2.3: Partnership working and multi-agency mechanisms

#### **Fact Sheet**

*The College of Policing under their Partnership working and multi-agency responses/ mechanisms App discusses the merits of multi-agency risk assessment conferences for domestic abuse (MARAC). A MARAC is a meeting where information on the highest-risk domestic abuse cases is shared between representatives of local police, probation services, health, child protection, housing practitioners, IDVAs and other specialists from the statutory and voluntary sectors. Once the representatives have shared all relevant information they have about a victim, potential risks are outlined, and options are discussed to improve the safety of the victim. These are turned into a coordinated action plan. The primary focus of the MARAC is to safeguard the adult victim and children, and ultimately address the perpetrator's behaviour. The MARAC also makes links with other forums, including child protection case conferences, to safeguard children and manage perpetrator behaviour. The underlying principle of MARAC is that no single agency or individual can see the complete picture, but all may have insights that are crucial to the victim's safety. The victim, children or perpetrator do not attend the meeting, but the victim is represented by an Independent Domestic Violence Advisor (IDVA) who speaks on their behalf. There are currently over 270 MARACs operating across England, Wales, and Scotland and Northern Ireland managing more than 64,000 cases a year.*

Source: Roycroft and Brine (2021, p. 32)

The partnership agenda was driven by the Crime and Disorder Act, and the Police Reform and Social Responsibility Act 2011 (section 34), which introduced the Police and Crime Commissioners (PCCs) for England and Wales. The PCCs must engage with local people and each Chief Constable “must make arrangements for obtaining the views of people within each neighbourhood about crime and disorder and make arrangements for providing such people with information about policing in that neighbourhood” (Roycroft and Brine, 2021 p. 32). The Police Reform and Social Responsibility Act 2011 is particularly important because it places a legal responsibility on the Chief Officer to ensure that the police are successfully engaging local communities.

The modernisation of American police forces is said to have begun during the Reform Era (1930–1970) when police administrators implemented strategies and used technology to increase the distance between their personnel and the citizens they served. During this era, many police departments adopted a hierarchical management style based largely on military models and written policies, and procedures were adopted to define and structure the police's role within the community (Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 406).

### **2.3.8 Resource base model for combating rural and urban crime in KwaZulu-Natal compared to international countries**

According to Novak *et al.* (2020, p. 11), around the world, police systems vary significantly. One aspect that differs is the degree to which police systems are unitary or fragmented. Some countries have a single police institution for the entire nation, these are unitary systems. Many other countries maintain more than one police institution, but still only have a few options, such as national police alongside a gendarmerie for rural areas, or a preventive police, investigative police, and border police. On the other end of the spectrum are countries with numerous separate police institutions, often dispersed at the national, state, and local levels of government. Mexico, India, Brazil, Germany, Canada, and England have relatively fragmented police systems. Another important feature of police systems in different countries is their relationship with the military. The modern trend has been toward a clear separation between the police and the military, partly to ensure checks and balances on government authority, but mainly because using military force against a country's own citizens is considered repressive, except in the gravest emergencies. In some countries, however, the police and military remain indistinguishable, or the police are subordinate to the military (Novak *et al.* (2020, p. 11).

Partnerships, at a local, regional, national, and international level, have now become an accepted and essential part of modern policing. They provide many advantages by adding to the early identification of risk at every level of policing and by assisting in information gathering and inducing a coordinated response to critical incidents (Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 29). Partnership working recognises that there is no single-agency solution to crime or social problems. Crawford (2015, p. 75) states that there is “need for social responses which reflect crimes’ multiple etiology” to allow for the “policing of expertise, information and resources”.

Globally, the police represent the most visible part of the state government, which works to ensure the population’s well-being. Politicians, the media, and the public have debated and argued about the function of the police and the nature of policing for decades (Turanjanin, Otašević and Janković, 2024, p. 1). There are several international models for crime prevention. These models focus on a variety of strategies, such as reducing poverty, improving education, and providing employment opportunities. They also emphasise the importance of building strong relationships between the police and the communities they serve. One notable model is the Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) approach, which originated in the United States and has been adopted by numerous countries worldwide. CPTED focuses on

designing urban environments to reduce crime and increase public safety by incorporating elements such as natural surveillance, access control, and territorial reinforcement. Strategically arranging physical spaces, this model aims to deter potential offenders while promoting a sense of community ownership and vigilance (Turanjanin, Otašević and Janković, 2024).

### **2.3.8.1 International countries - models of combating crimes**

The institutional structure of police forces varies greatly. In some countries, such as the United States and Mexico, municipalities retain a substantial amount of control over many public safety issues. In countries like Ireland and Nigeria, a single national force consolidates most policing activities. In between, there are various alternatives. In Argentina and Brazil, state and provincial authorities serve as the primary policing authorities. Just as control of police structures varies, different functional divisions also exist within policing structures worldwide. In France and Spain, for example, policing in rural areas is distinct from policing in urban areas. In Brazil and Germany, investigative forces controlled at the state level are divided into uniformed police who assume first responder and preventative roles, and a plainclothes force that conducts investigations. Many countries also assign the investigation of certain federal or national crimes to a separate agency, such as the Federal Bureau of Investigation in the United States. Policing functions at the national or federal level may be distributed among various forces that address issues like border security, investigations, and national security matters (Vereinte *et al.*, 2011, p. 13).

Moreover, Vereinte *et al.* (2011) state that a number of countries maintain separate local guard forces that may be labelled “local police”. These forces may undertake various preventative and guard activities on behalf of municipal governments when traditional policing responsibilities are delegated to national or regional governments. Brazil and Burkina Faso serve as examples of this strategy. Such forces vary widely across the globe in terms of their structure and roles. They possess different and more limited competencies than regular police forces, as defined by national and subnational laws. However, they present an important opportunity for municipal public safety policy innovation, can play significant preventative roles, and may serve as a critical entity through which local governments can effectively engage with state or national public safety frameworks. Their distinct reporting lines may enable them to contribute significantly to incorporating security into city planning efforts. They provide a channel for mayors and other city leaders, who typically oversee urban planning and management, to address certain security issues and include the perspectives of security officials in local policy planning. In understanding urban policing, government officials must consider the various

types of forces that exist within their national, regional, and municipal contexts. Building effective urban policing entails recognising the contributions that different types of forces can make and integrating the insights of leaders from these various institutions into policing policy (Vereinte *et al.* 2011).

### **2.3.8.2 Models of combating crimes in the United Kingdom**

In the United Kingdom (UK), the Crime and Disorder Act, 1999, was passed to facilitate a multi-agency approach to crime prevention. In this approach, police, local authorities, and other support agencies, such as health authorities, educational agencies, neighbourhood watches and public transport companies, are asked to develop statutory partnerships. These partnerships then set about formulating a crime and disorder reduction strategy. The plan is initially based on an audit of the local community and its safety and security concerns. The audit findings are then analysed, and a strategy is developed, which includes objectives, long and short-term performance goals, monitoring, and evaluation mechanisms. This plan needs to link with the police station plan. To do this the same audit is used to guide the police plan.

Roycroft and Brine (2021, p. 30) favour a more consistence approach when they state that working in partnership has been common in UK police forces for about 30 years. In the 1980s, police officers were not allowed into schools without permission. There was little or no multi-agency working until Section 106 of the Police and Criminal Evidence Act 1984 was proclaimed, which stipulates “*Arrangements for obtaining the views of the community on policing shall be made in each police area for obtaining the views of people in that area about matters concerning the policing of the area and for obtaining their cooperation with the police in preventing crime in the area*”. This was the first time the police had a statutory obligation to work with other agencies. This section was created because of Home Affairs Committee reports (1982 and 1986) into racial attacks and harassment. Partnership working under MARAC provisions provides a statutory framework for protecting vulnerable members of society.

In the 1980s, crime reduction efforts were mainly of the reaction and prevention variety. In 1988, the Home Office launched a five year ‘Safer Cities’ programme in 20 urban areas. A coordinator in each locality had the remit to bring local agencies together, consider methods of crime prevention and bid to carry out projects. The aims of the programme were to reduce crime, reduce fear of crime and create conditions for community life to flourish, using a problem-solving approach facilitated by a wide range of resources, powers, and expertise. The initiative generated a hybrid form of crime reduction which became known as ‘community safety’ and was later mandated by the Crime and Disorder Act 1998. The Act requires the police and

local authorities to establish formal partnerships, and “formulate and implement a strategy for the reduction of crime and disorder in the area”. Within this broad requirement, no particular organisational structures or working protocols are required, allowing a plethora of interpretations. There is no specific expectation in terms of results or cost-benefits. Partnership activity reached its peak in approximately 2010, in tandem with the size of neighbourhood policing teams. In fact, records of activity levels and their impacts are scarce. Since that time, financial cutbacks and burgeoning reactive demand have put this form of policing under increasing pressure (Roycroft and Brine, 2021, p. 30).

In England and Wales, the Environment Agency has initiated a National Enforcement Strategy and supported the introduction of the National Intelligence Model (NIM), a model which has been developed since 1999 by the Law Enforcement Agencies. In 1999 the National Criminal Intelligence Service (NCIS) created the NIM which is based upon the “collective wisdom and best practice” nationally and internationally. It represents a major effort both to promote effective ILP on a national basis and to begin to standardise intelligence-related structures, processes, and practices across all forces. As part of the NIM, intelligence units are encouraged to take a holistic view of the resources they have at their disposal (including human resources) in order to develop actionable products or create new information and intelligence on prioritised subjects. This agency's inclusive approach to intelligence responsibilities, where specific tasks are assigned, for example, to patrol officers and proactive staff members, can play an important role in creating a general 'intelligence culture' and resolving a few difficulties. Previous research has suggested that this type of integrated and refocused approach is an important determinant of the viability of proactive crime management strategies (John *et al.*, 2004, p. 9).

ILP policing strategies are supported by Novak *et al.* (2020, p. 121), who emphasise the use of real-time crime analysis, but also integrate intelligence analysis in the way in which both specialised units and regular patrol officers are deployed under the ILP strategy. Ideally, the resources of a police department should be targeted at the most serious threats and problems that are facing the jurisdiction on a daily basis, based on careful analysis of calls for service, crime data, intelligence, and information from a variety of other sources that provide information to the police department about these issues. This is a far cry from the traditional police strategy of simply deploying one patrol unit to each beat on each shift with no more tactical direction than "be careful out there". The ILP model of policing was first developed in the United Kingdom and Australia with the following characteristics: it is managerially centred and top down in decision-making; it is proactive; it is informant and surveillance focused, with heightened

attention directed toward recidivists and serious crime offenders; and it provides a central crime intelligence mechanism to facilitate objective decision making (Ratcliffe and Guidetti, 2008). It is important to recognise that the ILP approach is not a bottom-up, top-down approach in which patrol officers primarily partner with community members or identify and analyse crime and disorder problems in neighbourhoods. Rather, it is a model in which headquarters use intelligence to figure out which crimes and problems threaten the jurisdiction and then deploy officers and detectives to intercept and eliminate these problems.

ILP tends to demand more centralisation of information and decision making than is common in American policing, as well as more analytical capacity than most U.S. police departments can muster. It has appealed mostly to large departments such as the New York Police Department, the Los Angeles Police Department, and the New Jersey State Police. However, many other police agencies are in the process of upgrading their analysis capabilities, and the different states have developed fusion centres, with encouragement and some funding from the Department of Homeland Security, to provide analysis services and products to local agencies. ILP is likely to become more popular and more widespread as police departments improve the efficiency and effectiveness of their systems for collecting, analysing, and disseminating information and intelligence to field officers and commanders (Scheider *et al.*, 2009; Fuentes, 2006; Rollins and Connors, 2007, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020).

According to Loveday (2008, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 122), there are three factors that seem to account for the development and expansion of ILP since the 1990s: (1) technological improvements in police data systems that have greatly enhanced the capacity to collect and analyse information more quickly; (2) the terrorist events of 9/11, which were viewed as an intelligence failure, leading to significant new investments in police and homeland security intelligence analysis capabilities; and (3) the "new managerialism" philosophy that emphasises top-down direction and control in organisations, including police departments, based on metrics, analytics, and performance measurement. This new managerialism and ILP have developed hand in hand in the United Kingdom and can be understood as the central government's mechanism for controlling the 43 local police forces in the country, as well as the 43 chief constables' efforts to manage their own forces according to central government demands. This alignment of ILP with new managerialism has led to increased accountability and efficiency within police forces, ensuring that resources are allocated based on measurable outcomes and strategic priorities (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 122).

### **2.3.8.3 Models of combating crimes in the United States of America**

In the aftermath of the riots of the early 1980s, and the Scarman Report which followed, significant changes occurred in the public presentation of the nature and limitations of policing. The process was initiated by Sir Kenneth Newman, then commissioner of the Metropolitan Police, who stressed that crime could not be controlled by the police alone and that significant levels of public cooperation were needed if inroads were to be made. His successor as commissioner, Sir Peter Imbert, continued this process of reorientation with his 'Plus Programme' in London. To the extent that the police could realistically ever have been described as primarily a law enforcement or crime control agency in changing the 'public face' of policing, this was a significant movement away from this role. The police started to refer to themselves as services. The intention was to de-emphasise the confrontational, conflictual aspects of policing, rather, to attempt to highlight the more community-oriented, service-oriented aspects of police work. During roughly the same period, there were calls from within and outside policing to increase and improve relationships with local communities. Community policing originally emerged in the United States but had considerable influence on British policing during the 1980s (Newburn, 2017, p. 49).

The concept of community policing was initially associated with the chief constable of Devon and Cornwall, John Alderson. Community policing was not clearly defined at the time but emphasised the importance of developing close relationships between the police and communities, and, in particular, orienting policing so that it responds to community demands, rather than imposing policing priorities on local communities. The following are the most important aspects of community involvement in policing in such a model, according to Tilley (2008, cited in Newburn. 2017, p. :650):

- Defining what constitutes problems or policing needs;
- Shaping forms of local policing by the police service;
- Examining identified local problems alongside the police service;
- Determining responses to identified issues;
- Implementing responses to issues as participants in community policing;
- Working with the police to address community defined problems; and
- Informing or supplementing the operational work of police officers.

Though in many respects the community policing model is better regarded as something the police aspire to than an accurate description of policing practice, these aspirations came to

dominate the philosophies held by chief officers in British policing from the mid-1980s onward. The most recent variant in the UK is called ‘neighbourhood policing’ and represents a substantial attempt by the government to create closer links between the police and local communities. As pressure mounted on police forces, from governments demanding ‘value for money’ and increased effectiveness and from contextual factors such as the increasing calls on police time by the public, another policing model, POP, gained greater visibility (Newburn, 2017, p. 650).

A fundamentally important factor in the U.S is that there are three types of police officers: citizen police officers, private police officers, and public police officers. In a democracy, the citizens of a community are often involved in the policing process. The role of a citizen police is to make arrests when a crime is committed in a citizen’s presence. When a citizen reports a crime and cooperates in the subsequent investigation, they participate in policing. There is also the legal doctrine of *posse comitatus*, whereby individuals can be required to assist police officers, which is another type of citizen involvement. This conjures up an image of the sheriff’s posse or marshal’s posse in Western movies. However, if the need arises, any of these people could be required to assist police officers if they are asked to do so. Citizen participation in law enforcement is another instance of citizen involvement. Vigilantism is another example of citizen participation in law enforcement. Vigilantes were historically members of the community or mob who took law enforcement into their own hands in an effort to protect their community. In order to serve the interests of the vigilantes, the existing law enforcement system was considered insufficient and corrupt, or that it did not serve them. While this type of citizen involvement in law enforcement was more common during the nineteenth century, it is still an issue that occurs today (Novak *et al.*, 2020. p. 9).

There are both public and private police. Public police are employed, trained, and paid by a government agency; their purpose is to serve the general interests of all citizens. Private police are employed and compensated to serve the specific purposes, within the law, of an individual or organisation. A municipal police officer represents a public police officer, while a guard at a bank or department store serves as a private police officer. Public police may also serve in a private capacity when off duty and hired to provide security, such as at a nightclub or shopping centre. Public police agencies fit into the governmental structure in various ways. Most police chiefs report to an elected official (mayor) or appointed official (city manager) within the executive branch of government, although a few may report directly to a city council or quasi-

independent police commission. Sheriffs, on the other hand, are elected by the voters and generally report only to themselves. There is one important caveat to the independence of sheriffs: they must usually apply to a county council for a portion of their annual budget. Therefore, although sheriffs are directly elected officials, they are typically dependent on other elected officials for the resources they need to operate. This serves as another example of checks and balances in policing (Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 11).

Public police organisations are part of the CJS, which includes the courts and correctional institutions. The police function as the "gatekeepers" of the CJS because they determine who will be cited or arrested. The judicial branch and its representatives, including prosecutors, defense attorneys, and judges, process the accused to determine guilt or innocence and to sentence those who are convicted. The correctional part of the system supervises, rehabilitates, and punishes convicted criminals. The police system in the United States is distinctive with regard to both of these comparative features. Police in the United States are clearly separate from, and independent of, the military. Even at the federal (national) level, where most military resources and assets are situated, the military is in the Department of Defense, whereas law enforcement agencies are mainly in the Department of Justice (DOJ) and the Department of Homeland Security.

Reaves (2011, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 12) postulates that the most distinctive feature of American policing is that it is fragmented and local. There are almost 18,000 public police agencies in the United States, far more than can be found in any other country. Almost 90% are local, whereas the rest are federal, state, or special-purpose law enforcement agencies. The structure of U.S. policing aligns closely with the geographical and political framework of the federal government. Each level of government possesses police powers and may maintain its own police forces. At the federal and state levels, there are often several specialised law enforcement agencies. In contrast, county and municipal governments usually operate a single police force tasked with providing a broad array of police services. Law enforcement entities vary based on their legal jurisdictions, which dictate the criminal matters they oversee. For example, the jurisdiction of the Internal Revenue Service (IRS) Criminal Investigation Division is restricted to federal tax law violations. On the other hand, the FBI serves as the federal government's most versatile law enforcement body, responsible for investigating all federal laws not assigned to another agency. Local police enforce applicable laws, including state legislation and local ordinances, within the defined geographical boundaries of their city or county. Their

jurisdiction is primarily determined by geography, while federal agencies operate nationwide but are limited to specific federal statutes.

According to Novak *et al.* (2020, p. 12), the federal government has more than 60 agencies with law enforcement and investigative powers. State governments, in addition to having a state police or highway patrol department, often have other agencies with police powers to address such matters as revenue collection, parks and recreation, and alcoholic beverage control. At the county level, the most common type of law enforcement agency is the sheriff's office, but some counties also have investigators who work for prosecuting attorneys and public defenders.

Table 2.2: Ten Largest Federal Agencies with the Authority to Carry Firearms and Make Arrests

<b>AGENCY</b>	<b>FULL-TIME OFFICERS</b>
U.S. Customs and Border Protection	36,863
Federal Bureau of Prisons	16,835
Federal Bureau of Investigation	12,760
U.S. Immigration and Customs Enforcement	12,446
U.S. Secret Service	5,213
Administrative Office of the U.S. Courts*	4,696
Drug Enforcement Administration	4,308
U.S. Marshals Service	3,313
Veterans' Health Administration	3,128
Internal Revenue Service, Criminal Investigation	2,636

Note: Excludes employees based in U.S. territories or foreign countries.  
 \* Limited to federal probation officers employed in federal judicial districts that allow officers to carry firearms.

Source: Novak *et al.* (2020)

Counties have their own police departments. In the case of county police departments, the sheriff's department generally operates the county jail, assists the courts, but does not engage in extensive police work. The city or municipality generally has its own police force as well. Sheriffs and police departments are usually involved in patrolling, responding to calls for service, and conducting investigations in their county. However, a significant number of resources are also invested by sheriff's departments in managing jails and assisting with court procedures.

In the United States of America (USA), criminal justice coordinating committees are being experimented with to coordinate the various components of the CJS and local government. Many formal and informal forums exist, at present, throughout the country. In identifying an ideal forum Cushman (2001, cited in Smit *et al.*, 2004, p. 83) suggests that it should include:

- Broad representation of state and community,
- Staff and administrative support,
- Inter-governmental agreements, and
- Administrative independence.

Both British and American models highlight two different crime-prevention approaches (Crawford, 1998; Garland, 2001). The American approach focuses primarily on the interaction between the Criminal Justice Department and other representative bodies (Garland, 2001). The British model focuses on crime prevention at the level of local government (Crawford, 1998). In South Africa we tend to use the British model with elements of the American model in our approach to crime prevention (South African Police Service, 2017). Adopting international models locally allows communities to implement proven strategies that have been successful in other regions (Crawford, 1998). This can lead to more effective crime reduction and enhance public safety by drawing on a wider range of experiences and innovations (Garland, 2001). Further, it encourages cross-cultural collaboration and the exchange of best practices, fostering a more comprehensive approach to addressing crime (Crawford, 1998). Nevertheless, each model must be adapted to fit the cultural, social, and legal context of the country in which it is implemented (Garland, 2001). This can lead to challenges such as resistance from local authorities, lack of resources, or inadequate training for law enforcement (South African Police Service, 2017). Differing priorities and levels of community engagement can hinder the effectiveness of these models (Crawford, 1998).

Postulations by Rosenbaum (2002) and Roycroft and Brine (2021, p. 30) assert that a U.S. theoretical perspective on multi-agency models of crime reduction identifies seven potential benefits of *effective partnership working* including the maxim that partnerships are better able to develop creative and targeted interventions. Partnerships bring more resources and new ideas to the problem-solving arena. Furthermore, multiple interventions are likely to maximise the impact on any particular issue. The UK is witnessing a phenomenon of “County Lines Policing Crime”. This phenomenon involves OCGs employing young people and using modern technology to deal drugs in small provincial towns away from major cities where the police have

less resources. This illustrates the modern complexity of OCGs who use modern communications and vulnerable people to deal drugs on a country wide basis. These problems require comprehensive solutions.

Technology is transforming policing in fundamental respects. New and emerging technologies are playing an increasingly crucial role in the daily work of frontline police officers, equipping them with enforcement and investigative tools that have the potential to make them better informed and more effective. The first technological advances that changed policing in the United States were the telephone, the two-way radio, and the automobile. There are two basic currents in new police technologies: information technology and “hard” technology (Cox, Marchionna and Fitch, 2017, p. 369).

Considerations in the allocation of resources revolve around personnel, including the scheduling of officers, and the use of vehicles. Personnel represent the largest expense in a police department’s budget. In an era of shrinking budgets, agencies must allocate their personnel as efficiently as possible and explore non-traditional methods for doing things. Most departments have re-examined their roles and tasks, questioning whether certain jobs need to be performed, how they might be improved, and who should undertake them. Many departments have increased their reliance on civilians for non-hazardous positions such as evidence technicians, accident investigators, property technicians, call takers, and front desk attendants. This enables sworn officers to focus on more hazardous duties and increases the number of officers on the streets to combat crime and enhance residents' safety (Dempsey, Forst and Carter, 2019, p. 281).

Scheduling officers poses a significant challenge. Departments want to avoid having too many officers on duty at once, preventing them from overwhelming each other in responding to calls, yet they also want to ensure they are not understaffed during a major emergency. Unfortunately, law enforcement is an unpredictable field. It can be extremely quiet and boring for one minute, but in the brief moment it takes for an alert tone to sound over the radio, the day or night can become chaotic. Scheduling is particularly crucial if the department aims to conduct directed patrol activities to address specific crime issues. Traditionally, departments implemented equal staffing for every shift. In other words, there were 10 officers assigned to days, 10 officers for evenings, and 10 officers for midnights. Officers and administrators recognised that the workload was not uniform, but quantifying it was challenging before computers. Now, abundant data is available as long as departments understand how to gather and analyse it. Departments can assess workload by types of calls and areas of the city, facilitating the design

of beats or zones to ensure a more balanced distribution of work among officers. They can also analyse what types of calls occur during specific hours, how much time certain calls require, and whether they can be managed by one officer, two officers, or potentially even more (Dempsey *et al.*, 2019, p. :281).

A zone or beat in a large mall might be extremely busy during the day due to shoplifting calls, stolen vehicles, vehicle burglaries, robberies, and more. This may require one, two, or even three officers during certain hours. During the midnight shift, the mall area could be included in another zone or managed by an officer who also oversees the adjacent zone. Similarly, in specific areas of town, service calls may increase significantly at night because of local drinking establishments, people loitering on the streets, or gang activity. These beats or zones might require more than one car or potentially two-officer vehicles. Departments also implement staggered shift changes and briefings. Besides the evident issue of the criminal element quickly learning when shift changes occur by observing all the patrol cars arriving at the end of a shift, there is also the issue of responding to emergency calls that come in during shift changes. How this situation is managed will impact the overtime budget and personnel costs. If the patrol cars are all near or in the station when a call comes in, for example, 20 minutes before a shift change, the response time will be delayed even if a car responds immediately (Dempsey *et al.*, 2019).

Furthermore, according to Dempsey *et al.*, (2019, p. :281), a decision must be made regarding who should handle the call. Could an officer finishing their shift handle the call on overtime, or should an oncoming unit be dispatched before the incoming beat car arrives? If several calls come in, it is possible that most units from a new shift could be occupied as soon as they hit the street. By staggering shifts and briefings for half the force by an hour, these problems can be resolved. Cars can be dispersed around the city to respond to emergencies, overtime costs can be minimised, and oncoming units will not be immediately occupied with calls. In the past, conducting more than one briefing per shift was a great concern. However, now, with the use of computers and mobile digital terminals, this concern has diminished because officers can brief themselves if necessary.

According to Dempsey *et al.* (2019, p. 282), most departments use fleet vehicles, that is, patrol vehicles that different officers use around the clock. This allows the jurisdiction to get the most use of its vehicles and have fewer vehicles needed to patrol the streets. This system is viewed as an efficient use of resources when all officers report to the same location for the start and end of their shifts. However, agencies that cover a bigger geographical area, such as sheriffs'

departments and state patrols, often find this system impractical. They issue officers their vehicles, which the officers then take home with them at the end of every shift. This allows officers to enter service from their homes and respond to calls immediately. Officers also have all of their equipment already loaded and stowed in the vehicle. The vehicle loading and inspection time is greatly reduced for these officers, and their in-service time is maximised.

Some cities with a central shift change area have also considered taking home vehicles. They last longer because they receive less wear and tear than fleet vehicles that operate 24 hours a day. Furthermore, it is believed that officers care for these vehicles better when they are their own; they keep them in good shape, and they drive them carefully when they are their own. The ability to attract quality candidates with the additional benefit of a take-home car and increased police visibility, when these vehicles are driven around town, to and from work, and parked in neighbourhoods, are added incentives for cities to undertake such programmes. It is also believed that improved community relations might result from officers (with vehicles) running a fitness trail or coaching Little League teams, making citizens realise officers are people just like everyone else, and part of their community. The allocation of police vehicles is an important part of the police budget, so determining how to accomplish it best is an important decision. The use and maintenance of motor vehicles are a major part of most police department's operations, regardless of the plan chosen (Dempsey *et al.*, 2019, p. 284).

Although most police patrol today is performed by uniformed officers in radio-equipped patrol cars or on foot, police also patrol on motorcycles, scooters, boats, planes, helicopters, horses, and bicycles. Some patrol in golf carts or all-terrain vehicles, and in 1997, Philadelphia started a patrol unit using officers on in-line roller skates. Many police departments began experimenting with patrols using the battery-operated self-balancing vehicle, the Segway, and today many departments utilise two- and three-wheeled personal transport vehicles, such as the Segway and T-3, in crowded areas. These vehicles are stable, quiet, and efficient, and allow citizens increased access to officers. Departments have been willing to explore new ways of providing their services, especially methods that will help them be among the people, respond more quickly, and, in this time of escalating fuel costs, save money on fuel.

The use of specialised vehicles for patrol provide versatility:

- The police motorcycle's manoeuvrability and acceleration make it ideal for traffic enforcement, escort details, and crowd control.
- Bicycles are quiet and efficient and provide a bridge between motorised vehicles and foot patrol. They provide efficient transportation to areas that are normally available only by

walking, such as parks, public housing developments with limited street access, tourist areas, college campuses, business plazas, and sports arenas.

- Electric bikes provide all of the advantages of the pedal bicycle but require less physical effort by the rider.
- Scooters are more manoeuvrable than cars yet offer many of the features of a car in a compact space. They also may provide shelter from the weather and enable officers to carry more equipment than bicycles do. They are especially suited for parking enforcement and specialised patrol on college campuses and business premises.
- Multi-terrain vehicles are useful when officers are required to travel into remote areas such as mountains and beaches. Their low-pressure, high-flotation tires, motorcycle-type engines, and handlebar steering provide manoeuvrability in traversing rough terrain. They can often be used for search and rescue missions.
- Mobile substations or precincts can be driven to a specific area to provide a base of operations for beat officers and to facilitate community interaction. They can function as self-contained community policing headquarters and be used in daily community policing programmes. They can also be used as a command centre at the scene of a crime or disaster.

Police officers use bike patrols as part of their everyday operations in various jurisdictions around the country, and it is a common method of transportation among them. There was a time, not so long ago, when police officers were less likely to be seen on bicycles than they are today. A bicycle "police package" has been introduced to help officers who use bicycles for patrol, and training programmes are held throughout the country to teach new bike officers the techniques they need to become proficient at policing bicycles as well as how to stay safe on the road (Dempsey *et al.*, 2019, p. 289).

A large part of the intelligence analysis in American policing has traditionally focused on drug cartels, gangs, and terrorist groups, as well as other forms of organised crime. The purpose of this kind of intelligence work is primarily to identify the individuals responsible for these crimes, their methods, and their plans so that specialist police units can intervene and disrupt their criminal activities. This approach is mainly emphasised by ILP to extend to the entire organisation of the police, rather than just a few specialist units. Several initiatives are being supported by the federal government, including the Smart Policing Initiative (SPI) of the Bureau of Justice Assistance, and the Data Driven Approaches to Crime and Traffic Safety (DDACTS) programme of the National Highway Traffic Safety Administration. These two major national initiatives emphasize the value of employing data-driven police deployment and

tactics as well as the use of sophisticated analytical methods such as risk terrain modelling and social network analysis to inform police deployment and tactics (Kennedy, Caplan, and Piza, 2011; Johnson *et al.* 2013, cited in Novak *et al.*, 2020, p. 122).

#### **2.3.8.3.1 Police-Corrections Partnerships**

Parent and Snyder (1999, cited in Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021, p. 188) conducted one of the earliest examinations of police-corrections partnerships. They identified five distinct roles that police played in partnerships with corrections, which are described, as follows:

1. Enhanced supervision partnerships, in which police and probation or parole officers perform joint supervision or other joint functions related to offenders in the community.
2. Fugitive apprehension units, in which police and correctional agencies collaborate to locate and apprehend persons who have absconded from probation or parole supervision.
3. Information sharing partnerships, in which corrections and law enforcement agencies institute procedures to exchange information related to offenders.
4. Specialised enforcement partnerships, in which police and correctional agencies, as well as community organisations, collaborate to rid communities of particular problems.
5. Interagency problem-solving partnerships, in which law enforcement and correctional agencies confer to identify problems of mutual concern and to identify and implement solutions to them (Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021, p. 188).

Each of these roles tends to bring together the concepts of enforcement and information sharing as the primary contributions that police will likely make in a re-entry programme. Therefore, Parent and Snyder (1999, cited in Albrecht and Den Heyer, 2021) envision the police essentially playing the role they already hold within their jurisdictions but in tandem with community supervision agencies. While this approach is certainly common sense and practical in its implementation, it does not add anything of substance to a re-entry perspective. Rather, the primary benefit from correctional perspectives is that another set of eyes and ears is more closely watching those at risk for recidivism. Additionally, one could argue that community supervision agencies save some money when police assume enforcement functions that probation or parole officers might typically handle. Otherwise, not many other benefits would likely be observed.

#### **2.3.8.4 Models of combating crimes in Nigeria**

Nigeria's National Police Force (NPF) served over 170 million Nigerians with a total area of 923,768 square kilometres in 2016. The force is estimated to have 317,000 officers. The police population ratio comes to 1:536.28; the United Nations recommends a ratio of 1:500. The NPF is created by the Constitution and requires that the “police service shall be equipped and maintained to perform its traditional role of maintaining law and order” (Section 214, Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1999). Further providing a broad framework for the police, the Constitution enshrines the protection and promotion of human rights into Nigeria’s legal fabric (Uzuegbu-Wilson, 2020, p. 3).

The Police Act (Cap 359) Laws of the Federation of Nigeria enshrines the right to life, liberty, and security of the person and protects the Nigeria people from torture and cruel, inhuman, or degrading treatment or punishment and also prohibits arbitrary arrest, detention, and exile. As a federal institution, the Nigerian Police Force recruits’ officers from across the country. New recruits are posted to any one of the thirty-six state commands. Under a strict system of rotation officers are transferred to a new post every few years and therefore communities are policed by officers who may be from different ethnic or religious backgrounds to their own. Serving alongside the regular police force are the Mobile Police, a specially trained anti-riot unit, numbering 30,000 officers. Known locally as The Nigerian Mobile Police (MOPOL), they were originally created to contain civil disturbance or large-scale conflict but today are also deployed to carry out various other policing duties.

Mobile Police are organised into state and zonal commands and are led by a commissioner of police at force headquarters, who operates under a parallel authority structure. While crime trends are notoriously difficult to analyse or interpret in Nigeria, it is clear that the public perception is that crime rates are extremely high, particularly armed robbery that is linked with rising poverty, high unemployment, and a breakdown of traditional social structures that the Nigerian police have failed to address. Several other national agencies are responsible for law enforcement and have the authority to arrest and detain suspects. The National Drug Law Enforcement Agency (NDLEA), Customs and Immigration Service, and Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) are three agencies that investigate financial crimes such as money transfer fraud and money laundering. There are also two principal intelligence agencies, the State Security Service (SSS) and the Directorate of Military Intelligence (DMI), that deal with criminal matters (Uzuegbu-Wilson, 2020, p. 3).

When the police are incapacitated, Private Security Companies (PSCs) are able to help reduce security deficits by performing tasks that otherwise would not be performed, such as guarding private and residential properties. If the police were to perform such tasks, such as guarding critical national infrastructure like airports, they would further overstretch their already limited resources. The PSC complements the police by relieving them of some routine duties so that they can focus on their core policing responsibilities, such as gathering intelligence. However, PSC operations have a downside in that they are urban-focused and profit-driven, and as only the wealthy can afford them, crime is invariably displaced from wealthy neighbourhoods to poorer communities, further accentuating existing socioeconomic inequality (Uzuegbu-Wilson, 2020, p. 4).

It is now obvious that private security guards are everywhere, both in the public and private sectors. The biggest challenge, however, is to determine the effectiveness and efficiency of these PSCs in discharging their primary duties to their clients. Singer (2003) supports Uzuegbu-Wilson's (2020, p. 4) claim that private security companies play important roles in detecting crime at different levels. He argues that the effectiveness of the PSCs could be seen in the roles they play as undercover agents outside the formal authorities. This is especially true in industrialised countries. The PSCs have assisted in reporting and suppressing cult activities in some of the tertiary institutions across the country's universities. The involvement of these PSCs has in no small measure helped in curbing the menace of cultism on Nigerian campuses. Uzuegbu-Wilson (2020, p. 5, cited in Dambazau, 2006) argues that the presence of a security guard is effective to the extent that it is capable of retarding criminal activities. Therefore, a secure or guarded target may not always be a victim of crime.

#### **2.4. THE DEVELOPMENT OF CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS TO BEST COMBAT RURAL AND URBAN CRIMES**

Recent research conducted by Hammond and Wellington (2020, p.36) found that the idea of a conceptual framework varies according to the purpose of the research and the researcher's underpinning epistemological assumptions. In a deductive approach, a conceptual framework provides the basis for a hypothesis which can then be tested. For example, in this study, SAPS members have shown that the lack of adequate resources has the potential to be a contributing factor in the increase of crime. Therefore, a resource model-based conceptual framework needed to be developed in order to ensure that SAPS has a structural model that involves other stakeholders in crime prevention and crime reduction, which also enhances the limited re-

sources that SAPS has. This framework aims to optimise resource allocation, improve coordination, and encourage collaboration among stakeholders, ultimately addressing the root causes of crime and enhancing the effectiveness of SAPS's efforts in maintaining public safety.

The concept of conceptual frameworks can, however, take a much broader approach and may serve as a scope for ways to comprehend a topic, as an alternative to a conceptual framework being developed at the beginning of a research project. Conceptual frameworks can also be developed at the end of a research project rather than at the beginning. Whether an explicit conceptual model is produced or not, most researchers will read widely and consider how the key issues related to a topic relate to each other, regardless of whether they have produced one explicitly. This sounds like a literature review and many researchers will avoid the idea of a conceptual framework in favour of a looser review of key issues and key concepts. However, it is obvious that the possibility exists of generating a conceptual framework if that is considered useful later in the project. There is a lot of overlap between a conceptual framework and a theoretical framework, and they can sometimes be accommodated together. However, a conceptual framework is often more closely aligned with the key concepts in a particular field; a theoretical framework might use more generalised concepts developed at a distance from a particular topic and have more to say about underlying epistemological assumptions. For example, Bourdieu's ideas of capital, habitus, and field are more likely to be discussed as part of a theoretical rather than a conceptual framing of a study (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 37).

This study is a significant contribution to the body of knowledge, as it has both theoretical and conceptual implications. The study was based on the Social Structure and Social Learning Theories, which have been used to guide the research process. The study has a conceptual framework consisting of five components that address selected crimes in the KwaZulu-Natal Province, providing a comprehensive understanding of the relationship, patterns, nature, and extent of rural and urban crimes in this region. The primary aim of the study was to present a comparative analysis of rural and urban crimes, indicating high prevalence crimes and demographic differences in the KZN context. In order to achieve this aim, the researcher opted for locations with high crime rates, which have been analysed to provide a clear understanding of the prevalence of crime in these areas.

The study's findings are beneficial to a range of stakeholders, including the local SAPS, community policing structures, academics, universities, and other interested parties. The findings provide valuable insights into the nature of crime in rural and urban areas, which can help inform policy and law enforcement strategies. The researcher believes that the limited number

of studies on the correlation between crimes committed in rural and urban areas should lead to more research in this area. This study is important because it highlights the need for a curriculum agenda that addresses this issue in our postmodern society. This study is a much-needed contribution to the social sciences, as it sheds light on the relationship between rural and urban crimes in KwaZulu-Natal Province. The study provides a comprehensive analysis of the prevalence of crime in this region and offers valuable insights into the nature of crime in rural and urban areas.

#### **2.4.1 The developed conceptual framework adding to the new body of knowledge**

A five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province has been developed to contribute on the new body of knowledge:

1. Responding to the nature of rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province - this component was designed to understand whether or not crime occurrence characteristics within these two different populations, rural and urban, are uniform or differ, and to determine if SAPS employs similar and effective strategies to curb such crimes. Crime occurrence in rural areas is often characterised by lower overall crime rates compared to urban areas. However, rural areas may experience higher rates of specific crimes such as agricultural theft and illegal hunting. On the other hand, urban areas tend to have higher rates of violent crimes and property crimes such as burglary and robbery. Understanding these distinct characteristics is important in evaluating the effectiveness of SAPS strategies in addressing crime in both settings.
2. Resources to enhance initiatives of the local South African Police Service in combating rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province - this component was designed to encourage SAPS to engage, educate, and implement many community initiatives. This is to ensure that they build trust with the community they serve and that the community believes in their existence. Building trust between SAPS and the community is crucial for effective law enforcement. When there is trust, community members are more likely to cooperate with the police, provide information about crimes, and support their initiatives. This collaboration leads to a safer and more secure environment for everyone.
3. Identifying challenges faced by rural and urban police officials in combating crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province - this component was designed to assist

SAPS in challenges they encounter within their policing precincts where the study focused and be able to bring the most effective tool to minimise the particular type of challenge each police precinct faces. By providing a customised tool for each police precinct, SAPS can address the specific challenges that are unique to each location. This tailored approach allows for more efficient and effective policing as officers are equipped with the tools and resources that directly address the issues they face daily. Basically, this leads to improved safety and security within each precinct and a more targeted and responsive approach to law enforcement.

4. Using a specific theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province - this component was designed to assist in the configuration of the most suitable theory that can best describe the phenomenological parameters of events that may result from the key elements the study highlighted and be able to provide the best suitable solution for SAPS and other stakeholders to live in a safe and conducive environment. The component provides a comprehensive overview of the various elements of an event that can cause harm and suggests solutions to mitigate them, thereby reducing the risk of occurrence. It also provides the necessary guidance to implement the necessary solutions.
5. Enhancing strategies for facilitating resources to combat rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province - this component was designed to ensure that SAPS are always on par when it comes to crime combating. They are well equipped with resources that are up to date and suit their geographical demarcations. Some of the specific resources that SAPS is equipped with include advanced communication systems, surveillance technology, forensic laboratories, and specialised vehicles. These resources enable them to gather and analyse information efficiently, respond quickly to emergencies, and conduct thorough investigations, ensuring effective crime combating within their geographical demarcations.

For the purposes of this study with regard to the five-point resource-based framework, more detailed presentations are made in section 5.5. of Chapter Five to showcase the study's contribution to a new body knowledge.

## 2.5. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theoretical and scientific research are interrelated and form a cycle as part of the collective dialogue of the scientific enterprise. Theory is a unified explanation of observations, some of which may otherwise appear contradictory if they were not explained. Typically, a theory will try to explain a relationship between two or more actions or things by using rigorous criteria so that it aligns with logic and empirical evidence (Patten *et al.*, 2018, p. 30). In addition to this, theory and research are very closely interrelated, especially in two ways: on the one hand, theory guides research by providing guidelines and basic assumptions; on the other hand, research provides a way of establishing, formulating, strengthening, and revising a theory. It is this second form of relationship that is of interest here, namely, how research can or does help to formulate a theory (Sarantakos, 1993, p. 8). A theory describes and explains social phenomena through a set of logically interrelated propositions presented in a systematic manner. These statements contain logically constructed summaries, organise knowledge, and can be tested, revised, and reformulated as needed. Theories are formulated after the information has been gathered to give a better understanding of the functioning of society and human behaviour. Theory explains and gives reasons for the occurrence of crime and why some actions are criminalised, and some are not.

A good theory has certain key characteristics, namely parsimony, whether the theory explains a given phenomenon; scope, how much of a phenomenon is explained, a narrow simplistic scope or a wide complicated scope; logical consistency, the extent to which a theory makes sense in terms of the concepts and propositions it explains; testability, the extent to which the given theory can be tested and retested to verify it empirically; empirical validity, how well the theory is supported by empirical verification and validity; and policy implications, the extent to which the theory provides realistic, useful guidance for the authorities to deal with a phenomenon. A useful theory will have all these characteristics and could eventually inform legislature to change or formulate a policy to address the issue at hand (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p. 139).

The position adopted by Bezuidenhout (2020) is supported by Häder (2022, p. 14) who states that theories are viewed as a network or system of consistent statements that help explain facts and ultimately predict them by ordering knowledge about a range of facts. The term system of statements refers to the fact that each statement in a system is logically consistent with the previous statement. For example, the voting behaviour of certain social groups is subject to a variety of different determinants. The benefit expected from a decision in favour of a certain

party or the commitment of a person to that party are taken into account. A key difference between method and theory is that the latter does not contain instructions for action. Learning theories state that behaviour occurs more often when it has been rewarded in a certain way previously. In theory, there are no instructions for actions, but methods do contain instructions for action.

A theory is a tool that helps explain reality to uncover the reasons for certain phenomena, such as voting for a particular party. Finally, it is expected that theories can also be used to predict the future. As a result, according to learning theory, a particular behaviour that is rewarded is expected to be repeated more often in the future than one that is not rewarded. Theoretical concepts are also characterised by the fact that they are already proven in practice. Thus, these theories have a certain empirical truth, but that does not necessarily mean that they are also error-free. The goal of research and science should be to refine such theories, test them, and finally improve them.

For the purpose of this study, Social Structure Theory is used to explain the phenomenon under investigation by foregrounding the broader social, economic, and environmental conditions that shape crime patterns in rural and urban areas. The theory highlights how poverty, unemployment, inequality, rapid urbanisation, inadequate infrastructure, and weakened social institutions contribute to social disorganisation and diminished informal social control. Within the context of KwaZulu-Natal, this theoretical lens explains the spatial concentration of crime in communities characterised by limited resources and constrained policing capacity. Social Structure Theory therefore provides a structural explanation of how inequality and uneven resource distribution create conditions that heighten vulnerability to crime.

Social Learning Theory complements this structural perspective by explaining the mechanisms through which criminal behaviour is acquired and sustained through social interaction. The theory emphasises that criminal conduct is learned through association with peers, family members, and organised groups, where values, attitudes, and techniques favourable to crime are transmitted and reinforced. In the rural and urban settings examined in this study, Social Learning Theory accounts for the persistence of crime in contexts where repeated exposure, weak deterrence, and normalisation of criminal behaviour prevail. It thus explains how individuals in structurally disadvantaged environments may internalise and reproduce criminal behaviour over time.

Taken together, Social Structure Theory and Social Learning Theory provide an integrated explanation of the phenomenon under investigation. Social Structure Theory explains the conditions that generate crime-prone environments, while Social Learning Theory explains how individuals within those environments learn and perpetuate criminal behaviour. The integration of these theories strengthens the study's conceptual foundation by linking structural inequality, community dynamics, behavioural processes and resource constraints, thereby providing a coherent theoretical basis for the development of a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime.

### **2.5.1 Social Structure Theory**

Historically, Social Structure Theories (SSTs) have their roots in the work of Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), a French sociologist. According to Durkheim, crime is a result of a particular kind of social order rather than a psychological phenomenon. According to Durkheim, societies without shared values and norms will not function well. A society's conscience or value system provides a shared worldview or value system that defines acceptable and unacceptable behaviours in society, which are regulated by shared norms, beliefs, rituals, and customs. Interactions in society are shaped and regulated by this framework. In Durkheim's view, small-scale societies, such as horticultural or agricultural communities, with a low level of social differentiation and a minimal division of labour, where most people share similar life experiences, have the strongest and most durable conscience collectives, leading to the lowest levels of crime and deviance. Considering that industrial capitalist societies are characterised by a large and diverse division of labour, their collective conscience is more difficult to sustain as a result of the vast disparities in wealth and social opportunity and the great social and cultural differences. As a result of a breakdown in shared values caused by the growing division of labour - Durkheim called it anomie, a condition of normlessness - crime, deviance, and suicide rates increase (Durkheim, 1893/1984; Durkheim, 1897/1951).

Criminologists have been working hard to understand the underlying causes of poverty and income inequality in order to develop effective strategies to combat crime. By studying these issues, criminologists hope to provide policymakers with insights and recommendations to help reduce crime rates and create a safer, more just society. Siegel (2016, p. 158) posits that crime data from different sources indicate that crime rates are highest in neighbourhoods that are characterised by poverty and social disorder, which is not lost on criminologists. Crime is sometimes committed by members of the middle and upper classes, but most of these crimes

are nonviolent, such as embezzlement and fraud, which pose little danger to the general population.

On the other hand, lower-class crime is often violent, destructive, and primarily the product of youth gangs, marginalised young adults, and unemployed young adults. As a result of this phenomenon, criminologists have developed social structure theories, which, as a group, suggest that the main determinants of criminal behaviour patterns are economic and social forces operating in disorganised lower-class areas. People are affected by social forces while still relatively young and continue to be affected throughout their lives. Youthful offenders are not necessarily criminal adults, but those exposed to the incivility of deteriorated inner-city neighbourhoods are more likely to become criminals as adults.

Social Structure Theories is explained crime by reference to the economic and social arrangements in society. This type of theory emphasises relationships among social institutions and describes the types of behaviour that tend to characterise groups of people rather than individuals. The pattern of social organisations and the interrelationships among institutions are characteristic of a society. Social structure theories all stress that crime results from the breakdown of society's norms and social organisation. They trace the roots of crime to problems in the society itself rather than to biological or psychological problems inside individuals. By doing so, they suggest the need to address society's social structure in order to reduce crime. Several social structure theories exist. Crime rates decrease when families receive supplemental income through public assistance programmes. This means that the improvement of community structure can reduce crime. These theories view disadvantaged economic class as a primary cause of crime.

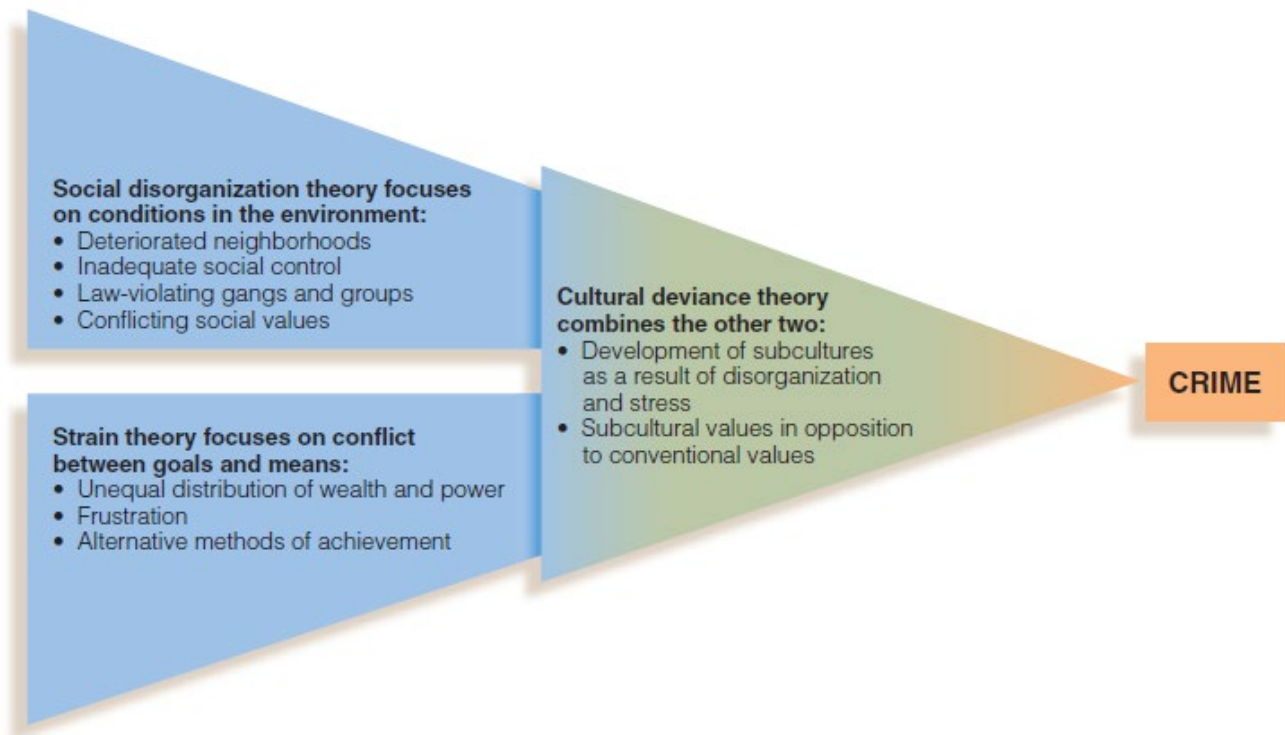
The social structure genre provides the purest sociological explanation of crime and delinquency. It links the key troubles of individuals to the social structural origins of these difficulties (Mills, 1956, cited in Brown, Esbensen and Geis, 1996, p. 235). Theories that are most appropriately characterised as social structural depict crime as a product of the characteristics of society. Structural features that contribute to poverty, unemployment, poor education, and racism are viewed as indirect or root causes of high crime rates among members of socially deprived groups. Theories of this variety are not intended to imply that only poor people commit crimes, nor do they mean that people located in the lower levels of the social structure have no choices or are devoid of responsibility for misconduct. This assumes that crime is primarily a lower-class problem and points to flaws within the social structure that increase the odds of a person within that social stratum resorting to illegal behaviour. Social structure theorists draw

attention to the primarily lower-class status of the clientele of our CJS. This perspective also is frequently used to explain the disproportionate involvement of minorities in crime and delinquency and the effect of unemployment and other economic hardships on crime rates (Brown, Esbensen and Geis, 1996, p. 236).

Citing the theoretical framework of Social Structure, Brown, Esbensen, and Geis (1996, p. 236) indicate that social structure theories are macro-theories. Social structure theories were developed to address the higher rates of crime that are thought to exist in the lower echelons of American society. Criminologists have debated whether these theories can only be properly tested with group-level data or if individual-level data can adequately reflect the group problems that social structure theories aim to address. These theories reflect a belief in the social system, while also seeking to identify structural flaws that contribute to the creation of crime. Social structure theorists are usually liberal-minded individuals who seek ways to improve the system without drastically altering its basic structure. They assume that there is a consensus regarding the legitimacy of laws and strive to make adjustments that ensure fairness for all.

Crime, according to social structure theorists, is not the result of individual characteristics or choices. Rather, people within equivalent social environments behave similarly. It is important to acknowledge that the environment can have a significant impact on human behaviour, including criminal behaviour. By understanding this relationship, we can work towards creating better living conditions for everyone and reducing crime rates. There are social forces at play in disadvantaged urban areas that contribute to higher crime rates. In addressing these underlying social factors, we can create a safer and more equitable society for all (Siegel, 2010, p. 182). The social structure perspective divides into three different but overlapping branches: social disorganisation, strain theory, and cultural deviance theory.

**Figure 2. 4: Branches of Social Structure Theory**



Source: (Siegel, 2010, p. 183)

- Social disorganisation theory focuses on the factors that influence crime rates in urban environments. Institutions of social control, such as the family, commercial establishments, and schools, that no longer function as they should are considered disorganised. Disorganisations in society are characterised by high unemployment rates, school dropout rates, deteriorated housing conditions, low-income levels, and the presence of many single-parent families. This leads to experiences of conflict and despair, thereby fostering antisocial behaviour.
- According to strain theory, crime is the result of a conflict between people's goals and the means to achieve them. Strain theorists insist that class affects the ability to achieve wealth, material possessions, power, prestige, and other life comforts, even though these goals are shared by people in all social strata. It is difficult for low-income individuals to achieve these symbols of success using conventional methods. Strain is characterised by feelings of anger, frustration, and resentment. Citizens in lower economic classes have two choices: either accept their situation and live a socially responsible, but unrewarding, life, or they can choose criminal activity as an alternative method for achieving success.
- Cultural deviance theory is the third variation of structural theory that combines the elements of strain and social disorganisation. As per this theory, in disorganised

neighbourhoods, a unique culture develops due to strain and social isolation. These independent subcultures maintain a distinct set of values and beliefs that may differ from conventional social norms. Criminal behaviour is an outcome of conforming to lower-class subcultural values and traditions rather than an act of rebellion against conventional society. Cultural transmission is the process through which subcultural values are passed down from one generation to the next. This theory offers valuable insights into the complex interplay between social factors and criminal behaviour in disorganised neighbourhoods.

According to Siegel (2010, p. 183), each of these theories is distinct in critical aspects: each approach has at its core the view that socially isolated people, living in disorganised neighbourhoods, are the ones most likely to experience crime-producing social forces.

### **2.5.1.1 Criticism of Social Structure Theory**

One common criticism of SST revolves around its potential to label marginalised communities as inherently deviant or criminal based on their social position. This critique suggests that SST could overlook the structural inequalities and social disorganisation experienced by certain groups, such as low-income neighbourhoods and racial minorities, and instead attribute criminal behaviour solely to individual characteristics. However, it is important to clarify that SST does not claim these communities are inherently criminal. Relatively, it emphasises that social disorganisation and inequality within these communities can contribute to higher crime rates.

Another critique of SST is that it is perceived to neglect individual agency, meaning that it overlooks the role of personal choices and actions in shaping criminal behaviour. While acknowledging that individuals have agency and make choices, SST argues that these choices are heavily influenced by broader societal factors such as poverty, education, and access to resources. It suggests that examining crime and deviance requires consideration of both individual agency and social structure. This balanced approach allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the complex dynamics underlying criminal behaviour.

### **2.5.2 Social Learning Theory**

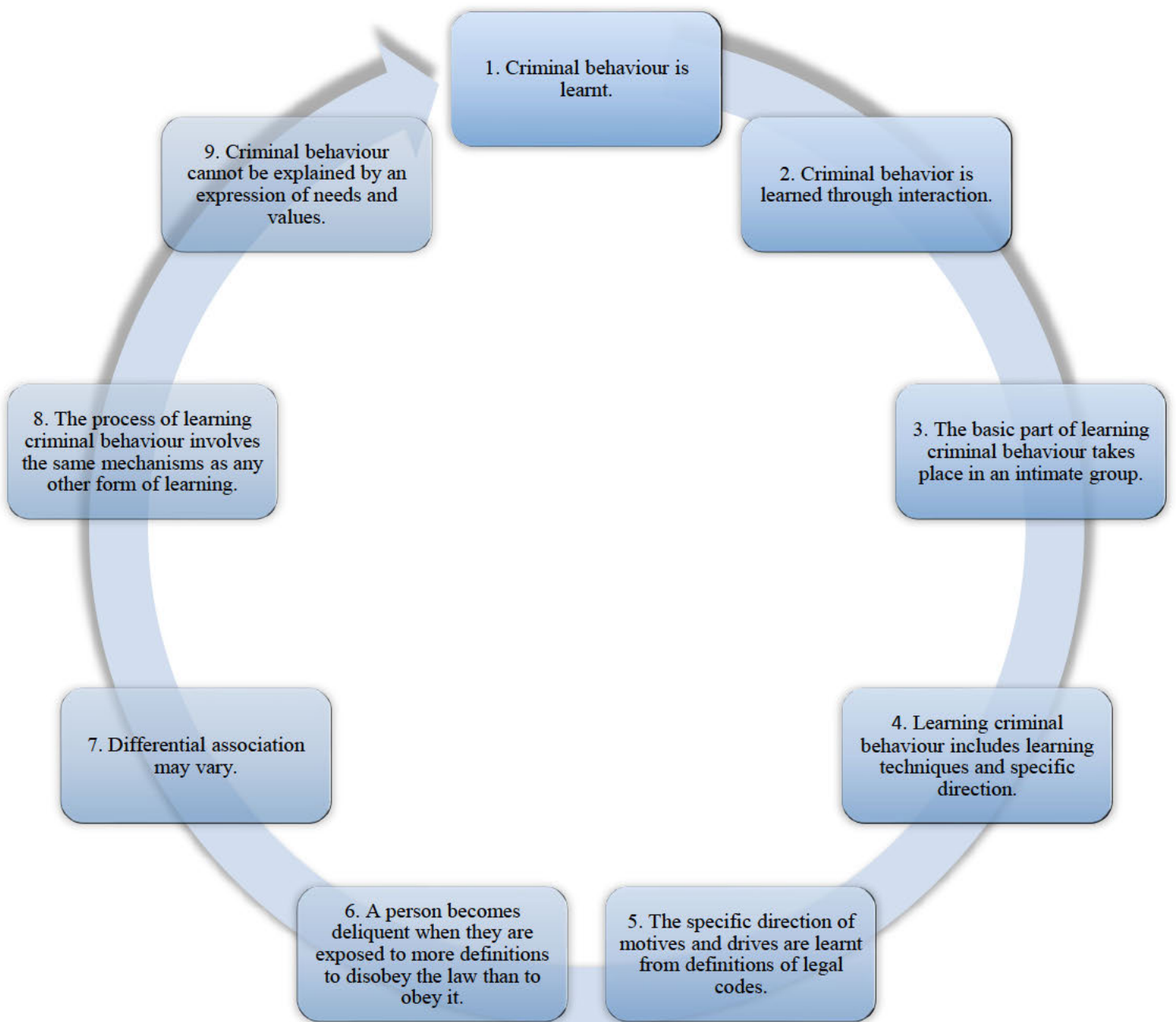
Emanating from the criticism of Social Structure Theory, as indicated in section 2.5.1.1 of this thesis, another theory was introduced, namely Social Learning Theory. As a general rule, Social Learning Theory (SLT) states that the same learning process produces both conforming and deviant behaviour when it is influenced by social structure, interaction, and situation. It is in the direction of the process in which these mechanisms operate that makes them different.

The balance is usually stable over time, but it can also become unstable and change with time. It is believed that all mechanisms in this process contribute to the learning of conforming and deviant behaviour. The theory proposes that the principal mechanism lies in the part of the process in which differential reinforcement and imitation (observational learning) result in overt behaviour and cognitive definitions that serve as discriminative stimuli (Akers, 2017, p. 50).

Social Learning Theory was developed when Sutherland's Differential Association Theory was combined with behavioural psychology principles that were more general in nature. In order to illustrate his theory of differential association, Sutherland (1947, cited in Akers and Jennings, 2015) proposed nine propositions:

1. Criminal behaviour, just like any other behaviour, is learned;
2. Criminal behaviour is learned in interaction with other persons in a process of communication;
3. The principal part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs within intimate personal groups;
4. When criminal behaviour is learned, the learning includes (a) techniques of committing the crime, which are sometimes very complicated, sometimes very simple; and (b) the specific direction of motives, drives, rationalisations, and attitudes;
5. The specific direction of motives and drives is learned from definitions of the legal codes as favourable or unfavourable;
6. A person becomes delinquent because of an excess of definitions favourable to violation of law over definitions unfavourable to violation of the law;
7. Differential associations may vary in frequency, duration, priority, and intensity;
8. The process of learning criminal behaviour by association with criminal and anticriminal patterns involves all of the mechanisms that are involved in any other learning;
9. Although criminal behaviour is an expression of general needs and values, it is not explained by those general needs and values, because noncriminal behaviour is an expression of the same needs and values.

**Figure 2. 5: Sutherland’s cyclical theory of nine propositions**



Source: Bezuidenhout (2020)

Based on Bezuidenhout's (2020, p. 171) interpretation of the nine propositions, it can be said that they encompass three major interrelated concepts: culture, differential association, and differential social organisation. According to Sutherland, delinquents learn antisocial behaviour from significant others in their social environment, which is believed to be the source of the antisocial behaviour in the first place. Accordingly, criminal behaviour can be learned, and the extent to which an individual interacts with criminals influences the learning process. People that associate with such individuals are more likely to adopt criminal values and behaviours as a result of the interactions they have with them. A person who does not engage in socially

unacceptable behaviour has been socialised to accept society's rules, laws, values, norms, beliefs, and values and to be socially responsible. As a result, those who have become deviants or delinquents and committed criminal acts have been socialised to reject the accepted norms and means of society and eventually become disorganised on a personal and social level.

The sixth principle, which Burgess and Akers (1966, cited in Akers and Jennings, 2015) derived from this original serial list, is the principle of differential association, which Sutherland argues is not complicated. Specifically, individuals learn two kinds of definitions of a particular behaviour: a favourable definition of the behaviour and an unfavourable definition of it. As a result of this principle, as applied to crime and deviance, being exposed to definitions favourable to violating the law in excess of definitions that are unfavourable to violating it increases a person's chances of engaging in criminal or deviant acts. Using this principle, Burgess and Akers modified Sutherland's original serial list in an effort to better understand how learning occurs. In Burgess and Akers' (1966, cited in Akers and Jennings, 2015, p. 231) revised serial list, we see the following:

1. Criminal behaviour is learned according to the principles of operant conditioning (reformulation of Sutherland's principles 1 and 8);
2. Criminal behaviour is learned both in non-social situations that are reinforcing or discriminative and through the social interaction in which the behaviour of other persons is reinforcing or discriminative for criminal behaviour (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 2);
3. The principal part of the learning of criminal behaviour occurs in those groups which comprise the individual's major source of reinforcements (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 3);
4. The learning of criminal behaviour, including specific techniques, attitudes, and avoidance procedures, is a function of the effective and available reinforcers, and the existing reinforcement contingencies (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 4);
5. The specific class of behaviours which are learned, and their frequency of occurrence, are a function of the reinforcers which are effective and available, and the rules or norms by which these reinforcers are applied (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 5);
6. Criminal behaviour is a function of norms which are discriminative for criminal behaviour, the learning of which takes place when such behaviour is more highly reinforced than noncriminal behaviour (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 6); and,
7. The strength of criminal behaviour is a direct function of the amount, frequency, and probability of its reinforcement (reformulation of Sutherland's principle 7).

Burgess and Akers' attempt to incorporate behavioural psychology principles into Sutherland's differential association theory was met with some theoretical criticism when it was first developed. Akers later refined and modified his theories in light of these criticisms, moving away from the revised list of Sutherland's principles. The four core theoretical elements of Social Learning Theory (Akers and Sellers, 2013) were cited as the basis for his definition of Social Learning Theory as it stands today: differential association, differential reinforcement, and imitation. The Social Learning Theory, originally proposed by Burgess and Akers and then polished and refined by Akers, can be defined as follows:

The probability that persons will engage in criminal and deviant behaviour is increased and the probability of their conforming to the norm is decreased when they differentially associate with others who commit criminal behaviour and espouse definitions favourable to it, are relatively more exposed in-person or symbolically to salient criminal/ deviant models, define it as desirable or justified in a situation discriminative for the behaviour, and have received in the past and anticipate in the current or future situation relatively greater reward than punishment for the behaviour (Akers, 1998, cited (in Akers and Jennings, 2015, p. 232).

The hypothesis created by Akers and Jennings (2015) and later by Akers (2017) was comprehensive and included all possible variables that, when balanced in a way that increases conforming behaviour and decreases deviant behaviour, the probability of conforming behaviour increases. Testable hypotheses can be presented for each of the four main components of this statement. Individuals are more likely to commit violations when:

1. He or she differentially associates with others who commit, model, and support violations of social and legal norms.
2. The violative behaviour is differentially reinforced over behaviour in conformity to the norm.
3. He or she is more exposed to and observes more deviant than conforming models.
4. His or her own learned definitions are favourable toward committing the deviant acts.

Social Learning Theory represents a general theory of behaviour. It is one approach to understanding human behaviour and its major constructs and principles are far-reaching and expressed in broad terms. The name "social learning" theory has been given to theories of human behaviour that have been proposed by several prominent psychologists (Maisto, Carey and Bradizza, 1999, p. 107). Social Learning Theory may be defined as an approach that synthesises principles of learning with those of cognitive psychology. It is a systematic effort to explain how the social and personal competencies that are often referred to as "personality" develop from the social context in which such learning occurs (Maisto *et al.*, 1999, p. 107). The

position adopted by Maisto *et al.* (1999) is supported by Morris and Higgins (2010, p. 471) who state that Social Learning Theory proposes that an individual's differences in criminal behaviour are influenced by various learning principles. The theory suggests that individuals are more likely to engage in deviant activities if they associate with people who engage in such behaviour, are exposed to models of criminal behaviour, view the act as desirable or justifiable, and anticipate rewards rather than punishment for their actions.

Akers (2002, p. 136) indicates that in social learning theory, it is posited that the same learning process, when used in a context of social structure, interaction, and situation, produces both conforming behaviours as well as deviant behaviours. This difference lies in the direction in which these mechanisms function as they do. Conforming and deviant behaviour is learned by all of the mechanisms in this process, but the theory proposes that the principal mechanisms are in that part of the process in which differential reinforcement and imitation produce both overt behaviour and cognitive definitions that function as cue stimuli for the behaviour.

The theory of social learning is divided into four major concepts, namely differential association, differential reinforcement, imitation, and definitions. The central proposition of Social Learning Theory of criminal and deviant behaviour is that criminality and deviance are more likely when these four main variables combine to initiate and strengthen non-conforming over conforming behaviours (Akers, 2002, p. 136). Social learning occurs on the basis of casual or directed observation of behaviour as it is performed by others in everyday situations. Citing the theoretical framework of social learning behaviours, Pratt *et al.* (2010) claim that in a sequence that unfolds over time, individuals first initiate criminal acts and then learn either to cease or to persist in their offending.

#### **2.5.2.1 Criticism of Social Learning Theory**

Two main criticisms have been levelled against Social Learning Theory: (1) the reinforcement proposition is tautological; and (2) the temporal sequencing of peer association and delinquency is poorly specified. The argument states that reinforcement occurs when behaviour is strengthened. This is true by definition and cannot be disproved; if behaviour has not been strengthened, it has not been rehabilitated. Akers counters this criticism by asserting that the social learning proposition is non-tautological because “the theory would be falsified if it was typically the case that positive social approval or other rewards for delinquency more often reduce than increase its occurrence” (Akers, 1990).

Regarding the temporal ordering criticism, Akers points out that the theory presumes reciprocity between associating with delinquent friends and delinquency. In some cases, individual delinquency will precede association with delinquent friends, while in others the association will come before initiation into deviance. He insists that this criticism would have merit only if delinquency occurred before the association with delinquent friends in the majority of cases. Research has supported the social learning hypothesis concerning the temporal sequencing issue. First, association with delinquent peers or with those who tolerate deviance occurs. Next, definitions favourable to illegal activity are learned. Then, nonconforming behaviour is positively reinforced by others, and finally, the individual engages in the learned behaviour. Research on Social Learning Theory in general has produced consistent support for the propositions, and when competing models have been tested using the same data sets, the social learning model receives the most empirical support (Krohn *et al.*, 1985; Sellers and Winfree, 1990; Winfree *et al.*, 1993, 1994; Menard and Elliott, 1994; Akers and Lee, 1996; Akers and Cochran, 1985; Deschenes and Esbensen, 1999; Elliott *et al.*, 1985; Esbensen and Deschenes, 1998; Matsueda and Heimer, 1987, cited on Brown *et al.*, 2010, p. 284).

Social Learning Theory has performed well in explaining youthful marijuana use and theft (Bauer, 2009) and partner violence. It closely reflects the intergenerational nature of family violence. Recently, Social Learning Theory has also been applied to account for police deviance. In summary, Social Learning Theory and other versions of the learning framework have been successfully applied to a wide range of behaviours (Brown *et al.*, 2010, p. 284).

### **2.5.3 The linkage between Social Structure and Social Learning**

The Social Structure and Social Learning (SSSL) model of criminal behaviour was developed by Akers (1998) based on the structural variation originating from macro-level predictors of offending while simultaneously accounting for the individual or group level variation in crime causation as explained by the principles of Social Learning Theory. According to Akers (1998, cited in Akers and Jennings, 2015, p. 471), SSSL is based on the idea that individual differences in social organisation (i.e., aggregate correlates), one's location within a social structure, structural theories of crime, and one's position in the social structure contribute to variations in crime and deviance. According to Social Learning Theory, these differences are mediated by principal components. Therefore, the factors representing one's position in the social structure indirectly affect the processes associated with learning deviant behaviour as defined by Social Learning Theory.

According to SSSL, social learning is the primary mechanism through which social structure is linked to human behaviour. This study proposes that variations in crime rates can be explained by differences in the social structure, culture, and location of individuals and groups within the social system, principally because of how these factors influence individual differences in social learning variables. It is important to understand the relationship between structural variables and offending because they represent macro- and micro-level correlates which, according to SSSL, are affected by social learning variables.

*Differential social organisation* in SSSL includes a variety of structural correlates of crime for a specific social system which are expected to influence crime rates and deviance rates in a specific system. These correlates may include differences in ecology, community, or geography. It is these characteristics that describe how social groups are structured, regardless of whether it is referring to the general population, a particular culture, a particular community, or even a specific subculture.

As defined by SSSL, *differential location* in social structures refers to "direct indicators of how groups or categories of people are located in social structures". These variables represent an individual's characteristics and how they are positioned within society. There are many characteristics included in this category, including age, gender, race, social class, religion, and marital status.

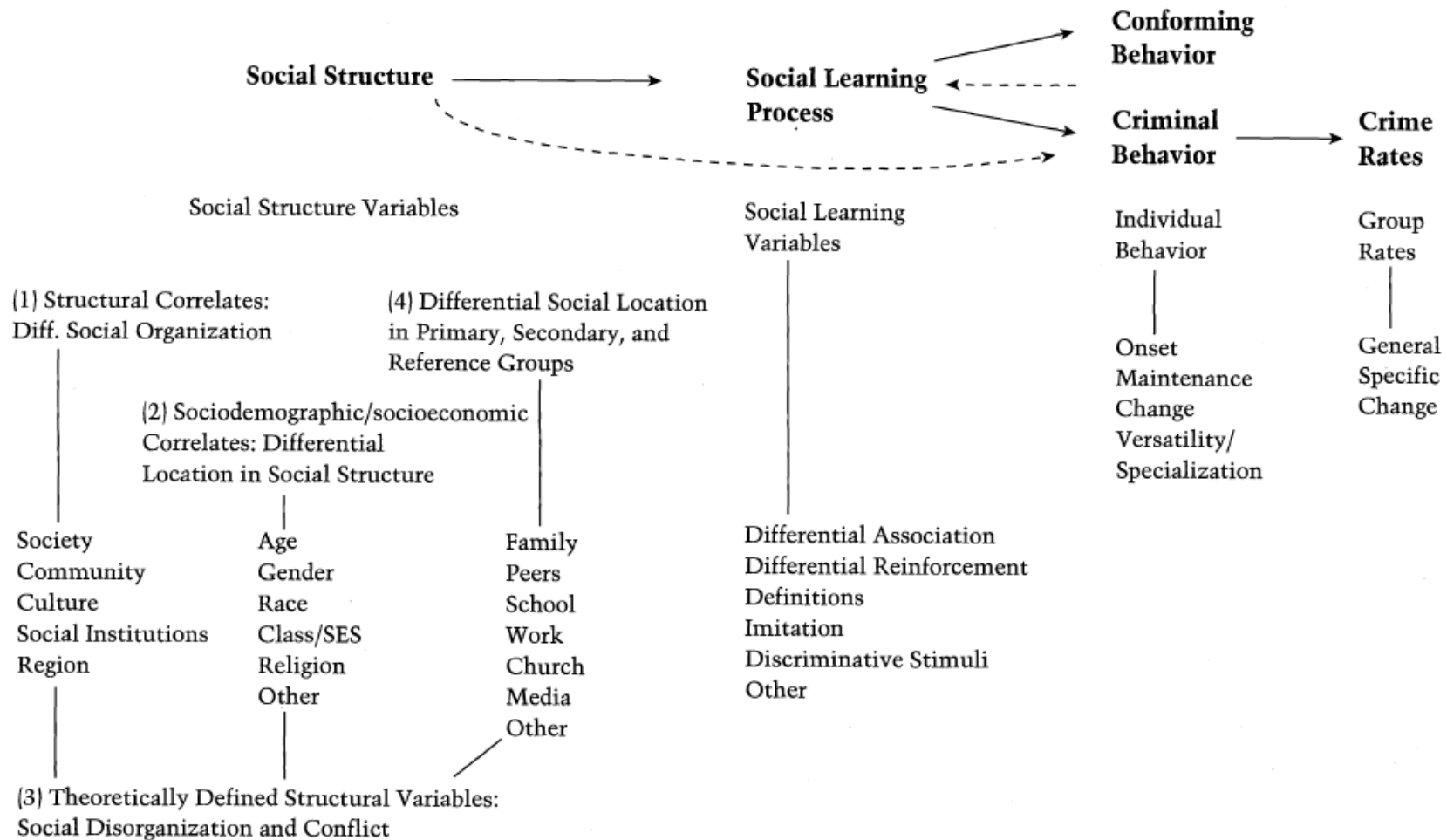
The third component of SSSL reflects *theoretically defined structural causes*. There are several structural theories of crime and delinquency, such as social disorganisation, anomies, institutional anomies, conflict, feminist, and Marxist or critical, each of which describes one or more abstract category of criminogenic conditions relating to groups, communities, or societies. Structural mal-integration, a lack of social cohesion, class inequalities, disorganisation, group conflict, patriarchy, and others are a few examples. There are several ways to measure the factors that contribute to crime, some of which involve structural correlates. It is important to keep in mind that not all of these factors have been established as major causes of crime through empirical research, and some of them are difficult to measure. However, it is constructive to note that if the structural conditions or variables proposed by the theories result in variations in rates of crime and deviance, they are likely to impact variations in the social learning variables. By taking these factors into account, we can develop a better understanding of the complex nature of crime and develop more effective strategies for addressing it (Morris and Higgins, 2010, p. 238).

In SSSL, the final component concerns differential social location in groups. This dimension plays a crucial role in shaping an individual's immediate social context, including their primary, secondary, and tertiary reference groups such as family, friends, colleagues, and peers. It provides the social context for the interaction of the other dimensions of SSSL for the individual. Incorporating this dimension allows for a more nuanced understanding of the variables involved in Social Learning Theory. This is important because it reflects the social conflict and differential social organisation of larger society, thereby creating the basis for varying social roles that are determined by individual characteristics. Overall, a deeper understanding of differential social location in groups can help us better appreciate the complexity of social structures and how they impact our lives (Akers and Jennings, 2015, p. 471).

Morris and Higgins (2010) support the position taken by Akers and Jennings (2015) that the SSSL theory proposes that social learning variables have a key role in connecting structural factors in crime and delinquency rates to individual behaviour. By understanding how differences in macro and meso-level social structures influence the content, value, and direction of social learning variables, we can better understand the factors that increase or decrease the likelihood of deviant behaviour among individuals. This understanding can help us to develop more effective interventions and strategies to prevent crime and promote positive behaviour in society.

The SSSL model is shown in Figure 2.3. In the SSSL model, social processes and individual behaviour are expected to be related to four dimensions, contexts, or elements of social structure. There are two main types of social correlates or structural covariates of crime: the widely studied, well known distributions of crime across age, gender, community, inequality, density, composition, and so on (Land *et al.*, 1990, cited in Akers, 2017, p. 332). It is possible and has been possible to identify these on purely empirical grounds without regard to their theoretical relevance for describing crime. It is common for them to be used as non-theoretical control variables in theoretical model tests. Third, sociological theories of social disorganisation, anomie, and conflict hypothesise that crime is caused by conceptually defined features or conditions of social structure. Lastly, small groups play a significant role in social structure.

Figure 2. 6: The SSSL Model: Social Structure and Social Learning in Crime



Source: (Akers, 2017, p. 331)

## 2.6. CONCLUSION

A literature review examined how new studies are built on previous ideas, helping the researcher identify unexplored areas and understand how knowledge grows. In this research, the literature review provided an overview of existing publications on policing rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN. The researcher analysed this information and reviewed the work of other researchers to place the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. The sources of information included academic books, journal articles, legislation, policy documents, and internet sources.

In the study, the information obtained from literature research was integrated into data from interviews and compared with data gathered by other researchers. The police in South Africa have shifted their focus to community policing, with the community more involved in police matters and developing a strong relationship between the police and the public. A new paradigm of policing emphasises that the police must engage in community-based processes related to the production and maintenance of local, human, and social capital. Four themes were identified: building a strong relationship with the community, combating community problems on a broader front, changes in the way police view their work and methods, and changes in internal working relationships.

Crime rates in rural areas can be lower, leading to the neglect of safety issues in these areas. However, rural crime is often linked to Organised Crime Groups. Other crimes, such as murder, rape, and robbery, can occur in both rural and urban areas. The rise of violent crime requires a comprehensive response from law enforcement and communities. Factors like unemployment, poverty, and drug use contribute to violent crime. Rapid urbanisation in developing countries leads to the growth of slums, further exacerbating security and crime challenges. Strategies for crime prevention and safety in cities should be comprehensive, integrated, and gender-sensitive, involving stakeholders and government support. This chapter had several subsections, including the rural and urban crime nature, resources in police stations, and the theoretical frameworks to understand and combat crime. The researcher read whatever was published on the topic for study orientation.

In the subsequent chapter, the researcher discusses the research design and methodology, which played an important role in providing the researcher with a guide for how to conduct a study and investigate a particular phenomenon in order to make more informed decisions.

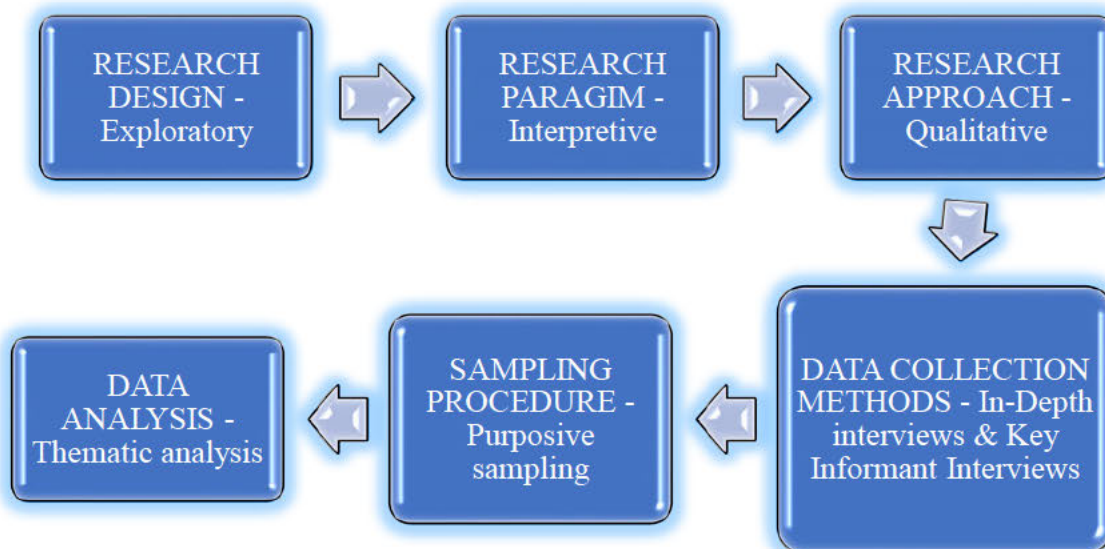
## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1. INTRODUCTION

The research methodology plays a critical role in guiding researchers on how to conduct a study and investigate a particular phenomenon. The research methodology serves as the foundation that determines the structure and approach of the research process. In this chapter, the focus is on the research methodology that the study adopted and the approach used to unpack the problems related to the study. The research design outlines the overall plan of how the study was conducted, including the research questions, data collection methods, and analysis techniques. The methodology used in a study is very important in ensuring the validity and reliability of the research findings. The methodology refers to the overall approach and techniques used to collect and analyse data. It involves defining the research problem, selecting appropriate research methods, and determining the sampling strategy. The research approach also includes data analysis techniques, such as thematic analysis or content analysis, which help the researcher to make sense of the collected data. Overall, the research design and approach are influential components of any research study as they provide a clear and structured approach for conducting research and ensuring the validity and reliability of the findings.

**Figure 3.1: Diagrammatic structure of the research design and approach**



Source: Researcher's illustration

### 3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Cresswell (2009), an important component of research design is that it lays out a plan and outlines how the research will be carried out, spanning decisions from broad assumptions to the details of data collection and analysis. As part of this plan, several decisions will be required, and they do not necessarily need to be taken in the order that makes sense to the study or the order in which they will be presented. The overall decision determines the design for the study. This decision is influenced by the worldview and assumptions that the researcher brings to the study, the procedures of inquiry, as well as the specific methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation that are employed by the researcher. It is also important to consider the nature of the research problem or issue, the researchers' experiences, as well as the audience for the study when choosing a research design.

Research design is concerned with turning a research question, a hypothesis, or even a hunch into a manageable project. The design process generally includes the initial formulation of the research question; a consideration of what kind of data needs to be collected and how it will be collected; planning and reflecting on the sample and the access and ethical issues associated with sampling; deciding how the proposed data should be analysed; and considering how the research is to be presented and disseminated. Research design provides the link between a general idea and the day-to-day or week-by-week planning with its associated timelines and Gantt charts. The starting point for design is the questions that the researcher would like to address. Research questions encapsulate epistemological positions, and they suggest certain methodological approaches. However, a particular methodology does not determine a particular method or methods: there is a one-to-many relationship between methods and methodology. Research design also needs to consider practical and ethical problems. Access lies at the heart of all real-world research, and many projects which, in principle, are well designed have not got off the ground because of problems of access. Most empirical projects require gatekeepers, those who will let the researcher into the organisation, and many require key informants. A key issue for all design is the flexibility of the project (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 164).

This study used an exploratory research design to answer the research questions and provide an in-depth understanding of all stakeholders involved in the field of policing and the police department. An exploratory research design provides thick description of a phenomenon that is contextually embedded in order to capture full insights about the phenomenon that might otherwise be missed in structured surveys or experiments (Tracy, 2013).

The research design is based on the purpose of the research, the paradigm chosen, the context in which the research is conducted, and the research techniques used to collect data (Steyn, 2013, p. 17). Selltiz *et al.* (1962, cited in Kothari, 2004, p. 31) define research design as “the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure”. Similarly, Kerlinger (1986, cited in Kumar, 2012) defines research design as a plan, structure, and strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions or problems. The plan is the complete scheme or programme of the research. It includes an outline of what the investigator will do, from writing the hypotheses and their operational implications to the final analysis of data. It is a process by which the researcher asks questions and answers them validly, objectively, accurately, and economically. In a research design, you decide for yourself what study design to use and communicate your decisions to others regarding the manner in which you will collect information from your respondents, the method by which your respondents will be chosen, how the information collected will be analysed, and how your findings will be communicated. A research design should also explain the rationale behind each decision affecting the 'how' of your research (Kumar, 2012).

It is important to understand that the research problem influences the researcher's design choices (Creswell, 2014). Ideally, the research design should incorporate a methodology to interpret the analysed data in order for the research findings to be valid (Dulock, 1993). It is generally considered that there are three types of research approaches: quantitative research design, qualitative research design, and mixed methods research design. Qualitative and quantitative methods are not simply different ways of doing the same thing. Instead, they have different strengths and logics and are often best used to address different kinds of questions and goals. According to Greene (2007, cited in Maxwell, 2013) many research approaches textbooks are based on a quantitative “mental model” for research, privileging quantitative approaches and minimising or dismissing the key strengths of a qualitative approach. A key difference between the two approaches is the distinction between “variance theory” and “process theory” as two approaches to explanation. Quantitative researchers tend to see the world in terms of variables; they view explanation as a demonstration that there is a statistical relationship between different variables. Process theory, in contrast, tends to see the world in terms of people, situations, events, and the processes that connect these; explanation is based on an analysis of how some situations and events influence others (Maxwell, 2013, p. 51).

Furthermore, a study conducted by Newman and Benz in 1998, as cited by Creswell (2009), showed that there are three types of research approaches, namely, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. The three approaches, however, are not as discrete as they seem at first glance. Qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be viewed as polar opposites or dichotomies. Instead, qualitative and quantitative approaches represent different ends on a continuum. The mixed methods approach to research falls in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates the characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is often framed as using words (qualitative) instead of numbers (quantitative) or employing closed-ended questions (quantitative hypotheses) rather than open-ended questions (qualitative interview questions). A more comprehensive way to view the differences between them is through the basic philosophical assumptions researchers bring to their studies, the types of overall research strategies used, and the specific methods applied in conducting these strategies.

### **3.2.1 Quantitative research design**

Quantitative research is a means of testing objective theories by examining the relationships between variables. The variables in question can then be measured, usually on instruments, so that numbered data can be analysed by statistical procedures based on the relationships between the variables. In order to write a final written report, you must follow a set structure consisting of an introduction, a literature review, a method, a result, and a discussion. Quantitative researchers are also assumed to make assumptions when conducting this type of research, such as testing theories deductively, eliminating bias, controlling for alternative explanations, as well as generalising and replicating the findings (Creswell, 2009).

Data refers to all information gathered using social science methods. A distinction can be made between two types: one can quantify an issue, such as life satisfaction, using numbers. For instance, a value of one indicates that a person feels very dissatisfied with their life, while a value of seven indicates that a person feels very satisfied. It is possible to gather more nuanced verbal information from an individual about their satisfaction with life, for example, by asking them to describe how they are feeling. In this case, we should still refer to it as data. “The set of all characteristic measurements is called (quantitative) data of an investigation. If characteristics or characteristic values are described verbally, one speaks of qualitative data” (Häder, 2022, p. 15).

Quantitative research methods are based on the assumption that extensive data collection using a wide range of systematic, regulated, and unified measurements is crucial for obtaining information, as research questions can be answered based on this approach. Quantitative research tends to be deductive; researchers typically gather data from large samples to verify their hypotheses and theoretical statements. Sample selection is a vital aspect of quantitative research because reliable results are achieved only with samples that accurately represent the studied population. In this type of research, mathematical and statistical methods are essential, as the large samples and research findings are published in numerical form while considering statistical reliability requirements. The primary research tool is the questionnaire-based survey, alongside other methods such as structured interviews and structured observations. In health sciences, quantitative research is employed in areas like satisfaction studies, needs assessments, or investigations of health status and its influencing factors (Boncz, 2015, p. 22).

In quantitative design, the aim is usually to determine the relationship between variables. Variables have attributes that can vary and take on different values. Examples of variables are race, age, gender, employment, and socio-economic status. Two basic types of variables exist. These are independent variables and dependant variables. For example, poverty might be an independent variable, with theft or shoplifting being the resultant dependant variable. The independent variable, also known as the predictor variable, has to precede the dependant variable. The independent variable causes, determines, or precedes the dependant variable in time. The independent variable is usually indicated by the letter X. A dependant variable, also known as an outcome variable, is the variable that the researcher attempts to predict. The dependant variable is usually indicated by the letter Y (Bezuidenhout, 2020, p. 51).

A quantitative approach is usually applied to study certain behaviours or attitudes that need to be investigated. In the above example, the aim is to determine the relationship between being poor, having no money for food, and shoplifting bread to eat. The so-called causal relationship between the variables of cause and those of effect is investigated and analysed in an exact and structured manner. Quantitative research takes the form of a systematic, empirical investigation of measurable variables and the relationships that exist between them.

### 3.2.2 Mixed methods research design

Mixed methods may be defined as research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches or methods in a single study. Research is not restricted by the use of traditional approaches to data collection but is guided by a foundation of enquiry that underlies the research activity. A mixed methods study is one that includes a qualitative and quantitative dimension, but difficulties often arise when the researcher attempts to articulate how the two elements relate to one another. There is an inconsistency among researchers about what constitutes mixed methods research. Some interpretations view mixed methods as the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. More contemporary writings in this area have sought to develop an understanding of the importance of complete integration of the two approaches (Creswell, 1994; Hanson *et al.*, 2005; Bryman, 2007; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009, p. 176). Tashakkori and Creswell (2007, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009, p. 176) argue that as mixed methods research is still evolving, the discussion of what it actually is should be kept open. Furthermore, Johnson, *et al.* (2007, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009, 176) suggest that the definition of mixed methods research will change over time as this research approach continues to grow.

Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 127) agrees that mixed methods, in their broadest sense, refer to a combination of approaches for data collection that offer complementary and sometimes contrasting perspectives on a phenomenon. Typically, mixed methods involve a blend of quantitative and qualitative techniques, with many researchers integrating observational data with survey or interview data. Logically, any combination of two or more methods can constitute mixed methods. This type of research has distinct benefits, providing confirming, complementary, and contrasting data sources, often as part of a triangulation strategy. It allows for more precise and in-depth reporting. In principle, there seems to be no reason a mixed methods approach cannot be pursued; however, researchers may choose to rule out certain tools.

Mixed methods research has gained acceptance among research designs as the third mainstream alongside purely qualitative and purely quantitative methods. Mixed methods research is an inquiry approach that combines both qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves collecting and analysing both quantitative and qualitative data. Mixed methods design offers researchers across various disciplines a rigorous way to answer research questions. In the context of holistic analysis of complex systems, such as mega-projects, this approach is particularly

relevant. Combining these two forms of data as a distinct research design or methodology is a relatively new concept. Consequently, the idea of integrating data, specific types of research designs, notation systems, terminology, and procedural diagrams and the challenges associated with using different designs are features that have emerged over the past few decades. (Aramo-Immonen, 2013, p. 33).

Many reasons have been identified for conducting a mixed methods research study. Greene *et al.* (1989) are supported by Bryman (2006) and later by Doyle *et al.* (2009, p. 178) who identify five purposes for conducting mixed methods research designs. These are triangulation, complementarity, development, initiation, and expansion. The main rationales or benefits proposed for undertaking a mixed methods study are as follows:

- Triangulation: this allows for greater validity in a study by seeking corroboration between quantitative and qualitative data.
- Completeness: using a combination of research approaches provides a complete and more comprehensive picture of the study phenomenon.
- Offsetting weaknesses and providing stronger inferences: many authors argue that utilising a mixed methods approach can allow for the limitations of each approach to be neutralised while strengths are built upon thereby providing stronger and more accurate inferences.
- Answering different research questions: Creswell and Plano Clark (2007, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009) argue that mixed methods research helps answer the research questions that cannot be answered by quantitative or qualitative methods alone and provides a greater repertoire of tools to meet the aims and objectives of a study. Sale *et al.* (2002, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009) identify how a combination of research approaches is useful in areas such as nursing because of the complex nature of phenomena and the range of perspectives that are required.
- Explanation of findings: mixed methods studies can use one research approach to explain the data generated from a study using the other research approach. This is particularly useful when unanticipated or unusual findings emerge.
- Illustration of data: using a qualitative research approach to illustrate quantitative findings can help paint a better picture of the phenomenon under investigation.

- Hypotheses development and testing: a qualitative phase of a study may be undertaken to develop hypotheses to be tested in a follow-up quantitative phase.
- Instrument development and testing: a qualitative study may generate items for inclusion in a questionnaire to be used in a quantitative phase of a study.

These points identify the usefulness that a mixed methods research approach can have in answering a particular research question(s). However, it has been noted that mixed methods research may have more practical benefits in terms of attracting research funding (Giddings, 2006, cited in Doyle *et al.*, 2009, p. 179).

A more logical approach was adopted by Venkatesh *et al.* (2013) and supported by Caruth *et al.* (2013) who present seven purposes for mixed methods research. The seven purposes are: complementarity, completeness, developmental, expansion, corroboration or confirmation, compensation, and diversity. The purposes are described as follows:

1. Complementarity - to obtain mutual viewpoints about similar experiences or associations.
2. Completeness - to ensure total representation of experiences or associations is attained.
3. Developmental - to build questions from one method that materialise from the implications of a prior method, or one method presents hypotheses to be tested in a subsequent method.
4. Expansion - to clarify or elaborate on the knowledge gained from a prior method.
5. Corroboration/Confirmation - to evaluate the trustworthiness of inferences gained from one method.
6. Compensation - to counter the weaknesses of one method by employing the other.
7. Diversity - to obtain opposing viewpoints of the same experiences or associations (Caruth *et al.*, 2013, p. 113).

Mixed methods research can be characterised from other approaches according to the following: a) they offer a rationale for the design as researchers provide the reader with a justification for the use of both quantitative and qualitative designs; b) they include gathering quantitative and qualitative data and researchers clearly communicate that both quantitative and qualitative data was used in the study; c) they consider priority and the researchers indicate which method design's data carries more emphasis; d) they consider sequence - the researcher explains the data gathering order (sequential or concurrent) for the reader; e) they match the data analysis to a specific design type - this can be difficult because researchers are not limited to convergent, explanatory, exploratory, or embedded design types; and f) they diagram the procedures used

in the study to provide the reader with some type of visual of the procedures used (Caruth *et al.*, 2013, p. 115).

Further, Caruth *et al.* (2013) accentuate the research undertaken by Cronholm and Hjalmarsson in 2011 in which they highlighted both strengths and weaknesses of mixed methods research. Some strengths of a mixed methods research design include: a) they point out that words, photos, and narratives can be used to add meaning to numbers while numbers can add precision to words, photos, and narratives; b) they can handle a wider range of research questions because the researcher is not limited to one research design; c) they can present a more robust conclusion; d) they offer enhanced validity through triangulation; e) they can add insight and understanding that might be missed when only a single research design is used; and f) they can increase the capability to generalise the results compared to using only qualitative study designs. Some weaknesses of mixed methods research include: a) they can be difficult for a single researcher, especially when the two designs are best used concurrently, in this case the study might require a research team; b) they can be more time consuming and expensive when concurrency is involved; c) they require that the researcher(s) learn multiple methods to combine them knowledgeably, defend the use of multiple methods, and utilize them professionally; and d) they are not without conflict because methodological purists maintain that researchers should work within either a quantitative or a qualitative research design never mixing the two designs in a single study.

### **3.2.3 Qualitative research design**

The most basic definition of qualitative research is that it uses words as data collected and analysed in all sorts of ways. The term qualitative research is used to refer both to techniques (of data collection or data analysis) and to a wider framework for conducting research, or paradigm (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 1). Qualitative research is not just about data and techniques, it is about the application of qualitative techniques within a qualitative paradigm, which is quite different from a quantitative paradigm.

Qualitative research gains strength from its orientation toward the world, and the inductive approach emphasises descriptions rather than numbers in order to focus on specific situations or people. Qualitative studies are ideal for five types of intellectual goals. These intellectual goals can significantly contribute to three practical goals. The intellectual goals are as follows:

1. Understanding the meaning, for participants in the study, of the events, situations, experiences, and actions they are involved with or engaged in. The word “meaning” is used in a broad sense, including cognition, affect, intentions, and anything else that can be encompassed in what qualitative researchers often refer to as the “participants’ perspective.” These perspectives are part of the reality that you are trying to understand. According to Schwandt (1997, cited in Maxwell, 2013, p. 50), many qualitative researchers reject this position, holding that people’s beliefs, values, and so on are their constructions, rather than part of any reality. Some qualitative researchers view these constructions as existing entirely separately from the “real” world, while others deny that there is any real world outside of our constructions. This focus on meaning is central to what is known as the “interpretive” approach to social science - a fundamental aspect of most qualitative research and a key difference between qualitative and quantitative research.
2. Understanding the particular context within which participants act, and the influence that this context has on their actions. Qualitative researchers typically study a relatively small number of individuals or situations and preserve the individuality of each of these in their analyses, rather than collecting data from large samples and aggregating the data across individuals or situations. Thus, they are able to understand how events, actions, and meanings are shaped by the unique circumstances in which these occur (Maxwell, 2013).
3. Understanding the process by which events and actions take place. Merriam (1988, cited in Maxwell, 2013) states that “The interest [in a qualitative study] is in process rather than outcomes”. While this does not mean that qualitative research is unconcerned with outcomes, it does emphasise that a major strength of qualitative research is in understanding the processes that lead to the outcomes, processes that experimental and survey research are often poor at identifying.
4. Identifying unanticipated phenomena and influences, and generating new, “grounded” theories about the latter. Qualitative research has an inherent openness and flexibility that allows you to modify your design and focus during the research to pursue new discoveries and relationships. This flexibility derives from its particularistic, rather than comparative and generalising, focus, and from its freedom from the rules of statistical hypothesis testing, which require that the research plan not be significantly altered after data collection has begun.
5. Developing causal explanations. The traditional view that only quantitative methods can be used to draw credible causal conclusions has long been disputed by some qualitative

researchers. Miles and Huberman (1984) argue that much recent research supports a claim that we wish to make here: that field research is far better than solely quantified approaches at developing explanations of what we call local causality, the actual events and processes that led to specific outcomes (Maxwell, 2013).

There are three additional kinds of practical goals that qualitative research can address while still meeting its intellectual objectives, and it can do so with an inductive, open-ended approach:

1. Generating results and theories that are understandable and experientially credible, both to the people you are studying and to others. Patton (1990) and Bolster (1983, cited in Maxwell, 2013, p. 53) give an example of how the responses to the open-ended items on a questionnaire used to evaluate a teacher accountability system had far greater credibility with, and impact on, the school administration than the quantitative analysis of the standardised items. Further, they make a more general argument that one of the reasons for the lack of impact of educational research on educational practice has been that such research has largely been quantitative and does not connect with teachers' experience of everyday classroom realities. He argues for a qualitative approach that emphasises the perspective of teachers and the understanding of particular settings, as having far more potential for informing educational practitioners.
2. Conducting research that is intended to improve existing practices, programmes, or policies, what is often called "formative evaluation", rather than simply to assess the impact or value of these. In such research, it is more important to understand the processes by which, and the specific contexts in which, things happen, and how these are understood by participants, than it is to compare this situation with others rigorously or to establish that a change in outcomes occurred as a result of a change in practice (Maxwell, 2013).
3. Engaging in action, participatory, collaborative, or community-based research with participants in the study. The face credibility of qualitative research, and its focus on particular contexts and their meaning for participants in these contexts, make it particularly suitable for collaborations with these participants.

Sorting out and assessing the different personal, practical, and intellectual goals that you bring to your study can be a difficult task. In addition, this is not something you should simply do once, when you begin designing the study, and then forget about. Some of your goals may not

become apparent to you until you are well into the research; furthermore, they may change as the research proceeds.

**Table 3. 1: Comparing qualitative and quantitative designs as fundamentally different processes**

<b>Quantitative</b>	<b>Qualitative</b>
Numbers used as data.	Words – written and spoken language – (and images) used as data.
Seeks to identify relationships between variables, to explain or predict, with the aim of generalising the findings to a wider population.	Seeks to understand and interpret more local meanings; recognises data as gathered in a context; sometimes produces knowledge that contributes to more general understandings.
Generates ‘shallow’ but broad data – not a lot of complex detail obtained from each participant, but lots of participants take part (to generate the necessary statistical power).	Generates ‘narrow’ but rich data and ‘thick descriptions’ – detailed and complex accounts from each participant; not many take part.
Seeks consensus, norms, or general patterns; often aims to reduce diversity of responses to an average response.	Tends to seek patterns, but accommodates and explores difference and divergence within data.
Tends to be theory-testing, and deductive.	Tends to be theory generating, and inductive (working up from the data).
Values detachment and impartiality (objectivity).	Values personal involvement and partiality (subjectivity, reflexivity).
Has a fixed method (harder to change focus once data collection has begun).	Method is less fixed (can accommodate a shift in focus in the same study).
Can be completed quickly.	Tends to take longer to complete because it is interpretative and there is no formula.

Source: Braun and Clarke (2013)

The results obtained from quantitative research, which rely heavily on numeric data, are particularly valuable for verifying hypotheses across various fields, including social sciences, healthcare, and education. However, a significant limitation of quantitative research is its tendency to capture only surface-level information. This superficiality restricts the understanding of more complex issues, processes, and human behaviour. To address these limitations, researchers often turn to qualitative research methods. Qualitative research is designed to provide a deeper qualitative insight into phenomena by actively collecting and analysing subjective opinions, attitudes, and beliefs from participants. This approach aims to uncover the underlying motivations, meanings, and contexts that shape human experiences. Unlike quantitative studies that often use large samples for generalisation, qualitative investigations typically focus on

smaller, more targeted groups where representativeness is not a primary concern. Instead, the richness of detail gleaned from in-depth exploration is prioritised.

One of the defining characteristics of qualitative research is its flexibility. Studies adopting this methodology often employ an inductive approach, allowing findings to emerge organically rather than being forced into predetermined categories. This reflexivity enables researchers to adapt their lines of inquiry based on participants' responses, fostering a more organic dialogue. Unlike quantitative surveys that typically feature fixed questions, qualitative research provides a framework of broad themes while encouraging the exploration of unique individual characteristics and experiences. Common qualitative methods include observation, controlled experiments, in-depth interviews, expert interviews, focus groups, and case studies. These approaches are particularly useful in understanding complex issues such as people's beliefs regarding illnesses, the challenges faced in doctor-patient relationships, and the various motivations influencing patient cooperation. Through qualitative methods, researchers can capture the nuanced perspectives and lived experiences of individuals, providing a richer understanding of the topics at hand. Using qualitative research techniques, scholars and practitioners can delve deeper into the phenomena they study, revealing insights that quantitative methods might overlook. This comprehensive exploration can inform more effective practices, policies, and interventions across many sectors.

### **3.2.4 Research approaches: quantitative and qualitative 'battle'**

According to Imre (2015, p. 24), there is always a debate about the validity and applicability of both methods in research methodology for acquiring relevant scientific knowledge. A major part of the research problems cannot be quantified because they can only be measured at a normative level, which is not conducive to advancing scientific knowledge. According to qualitative researchers, a significant part of these research problems cannot be quantified. As an example, they do not believe that attitudes or beliefs can be measured by scales, which they refer to as engineered instruments that simplify reality without making it more accessible to the public. Despite the fact that questionnaire scales are standardised, it has been found that respondents may interpret them in extremely different ways, even though the researchers have assumed that the 'object' of the measurement is the same regardless of the scales being used.

The quantitative method has another weakness as a result of the fact that the information obtained through research is limited in its content, and it does not reflect any other important

components that might influence respondents' answers (e.g., mood, situation, environmental factors), causing respondents to answer incorrectly. Though quantitative methods have all these problems, the method is widely used, and numerical expression is often an indispensable condition in many cases, and the number of cases is a fundamental element of the scientific method. A good example of this is the concept of evidence-based practice, which requires a sufficient number of objective and numerical results so as to qualify as evidence-based of the highest category of competence.

It is also common for qualitative research methods to be criticised because of their limitations and shortcomings. The problem most often raised is the lack of generalisability of qualitative results due to the relatively small number of cases. Thus, it is very difficult to obtain scientific results using this method. Another issue listed among the difficulties with the method is that researchers working with qualitative techniques tend to fail to meet the criteria for objectivity, validity, and reliability during their studies. A growing number of researchers, however, are combining the advantages of the two basic methods in today's health science research as well as eliminating their disadvantages. In the context of validation of various scales and questionnaires, as well as in the assessment of new interventions, it is necessary, for example, to conduct this type of study.

### **3.2.5 Qualitative and quantitative research: what are the key differences?**

According to Patten *et al.* (2018, p. 52), quantitative and qualitative research differs in many ways. The names reflect the key difference in how research results are presented. Quantitative research results are expressed as “quantities” or numbers, which are typically, but not always, shown through statistical analysis. Qualitative research results are primarily articulated through words, most commonly generated by interviewing individuals or observing settings and analysing the data through reviewing interview transcripts and field notes. In qualitative studies, researchers often identify themes in the data. They must recognise concepts that are consistently highlighted, along with the range of responses related to those themes, which are discussed in the analysis of the phenomena under investigation. To achieve different outcomes, quantitative and qualitative studies start with distinct plans and face different challenges in the design of a study that will yield credible results. Most research topics can be framed into quantitative or qualitative research questions, but each approach presents its strengths and weaknesses, and ultimately, each type of research provides answers to different kinds of questions. Quantitative researchers prioritise studies that aim to generalise and employ methods with the

goals of objectivity and standardisation. Qualitative researchers focus on questions where observation or interview responses come from participants engaged in an interpretive process.

Qualitative researchers often approach planning inductively and take an exploratory approach to questions that have not been adequately identified. This study explored the resources that are relevant for both rural and urban contexts in assisting and enhancing SAPS's activities to ensure that they combat or curb the level of crime, taking into consideration their various initiatives as well as the role of stakeholders. They start by observing or formulating some well-designed questions to ask those involved in the area under study. From this initial data collection, the researcher may develop additional questions as themes emerge, allowing them to ask more refined questions about specific dimensions that turn out to be important. The strengths of qualitative research are in its ability to provide insights into interpretation, context, and the meaning of events, phenomena, or identities for those who experience them. Results from qualitative work are often expressed in a narrative format because respondents provide answers in their own words or results can be observed in real settings over a period of time, instead of being limited to specific choices in a survey, poll, or experiment. Qualitative research is good for research on topics or in settings where little is known, few theories exist, or the population is hard to reach (Patten *et al.*, 2018, p. 54).

Quantitative researchers often plan their studies deductively. The most common approach involves evaluating existing theories on a topic and attempting to apply those theories to new or different scenarios to determine if the theories hold or need adjustments under different conditions. Quantitative research can help extend the generalisability of findings obtained through exploratory research. Most quantitative research methods aim for generalisability to a larger population but generally cannot reach every group member, resulting in findings based on a sample. The sample and measures must adhere to procedures that enhance the confidence with which results can be generalised to a broader group. Qualitative and quantitative researchers analyse previously published literature and include reviews of it in their research reports. However, quantitative researchers use literature as a foundation for planning their research, while qualitative researchers tend to downplay the literature at the research's outset, placing greater emphasis on preliminary data.

Patten *et al.* (2018) further states that when deciding on measures to use, quantitative re-searchers prefer those that generate data easily reduced to numbers. This includes structured questionnaires or interviews with closed-answer or quantifiable questions, such as multiple-choice questions. In contrast, qualitative researchers favour measures that yield words or capture complex interactions and behaviours through rich descriptions. This type of data collection is typically obtained by employing measures such as unstructured interviews or direct, unstructured observations. Although it is always possible to reduce qualitative data to numerical data, quantitative data cannot usually be expanded to provide qualitative insights. Even though qualitative data can be converted to numbers, it may not be particularly useful because it may not meet the criteria used in the statistical analysis of quantitative data. Quantitative researchers often strive to select large samples for participation. They can work with large samples because objective measures, such as anonymous and objective questionnaires, are generally easy to administer to many participants in a short time. Quantitative researchers also tend to ask more targeted questions, hoping to generalise the results from the sample to a larger population, which may not include all individuals but could define a subgroup, such as all public-school teachers in a specific district. Statistics can analyse a sample and estimate how well it represents a population. Because most quantitative research relies on samples and statistical analysis, the sampling process is crucial to the study's credibility.

The qualitative researcher, on the other hand, uses a smaller sample and spends more time with each participant in their study during the course of their study by engaging them in extended, in-depth, and unstructured one-on-one interviews, as well as observing them in more detail. In qualitative research, the purpose of the study and the approach to analysis are very different, and that means that the criteria for selecting samples are also different. Therefore, qualitative researchers are more likely to select a purposive sample of individuals. Research may include selecting key informants and finding participants who are representative of the whole population being studied. As an example, if qualitative researchers were to study public school teachers, it would be helpful if they would consider several dimensions that affect their experiences as teachers, such as what school district the teacher teaches in, what grade the teacher teaches, what subject the teacher teaches, or how long the teacher has been teaching. As a result, each of these categories should be adequately represented in the interviews or observations that are collected. It is common practice to provide participants with verbatim responses as evidence of the analysis as part of the results (Patten *et al.*, 2018).

The qualitative researcher may choose to provide relevant details about their own personal background (for example, having a mother who was a police officer) to their research because the relationship between qualitative research and their context and background is more intensive and sometimes participatory. In order to explain their position in relation to their research and account for possible sources of bias, it is necessary to explain their position in relation to their research and to determine how the participants responded to their point of view. There are times when qualitative research designs can allow for the adjustment of measures, which can include rewording questions, adding questions, and adjusting the measures according to the responses of the participants, while working with them. It is rare for quantitative researchers to make such adjustments during the course of conducting a research project. In quantitative research, researchers plan their research in detail and stick closely to their plan throughout the study as midstream deviations might be viewed as adding subjectivity to the study. When it comes to the analysis of data, quantitative researchers usually use statistics to sum up all responses and rarely report on the responses of individual participants. On the other hand, qualitative researchers tend to cite the responses of individuals in the results section of a research report (e.g., by quoting the responses of individual participants). Furthermore, quantitative researchers tend to generalise their findings to a number of populations, while qualitative researchers tend to limit their conclusions to only individuals whom they have directly studied (Patten *et al.*, 2018, p. 55).

### **3.3. RESEARCH PARADIGM**

According to Braun and Clarke (2013, p.1), a paradigm refers to the beliefs, assumptions, values, and practices shared by a research community, and it provides an overarching framework for research. A paradigm is a basic orientation to theory and research. There are many definitions of paradigm. In general, a scientific paradigm is a whole system of thinking. It includes basic assumptions, the important questions to be answered or puzzles to be solved, the research techniques to be used, and examples of what good scientific research is like (Neuman, 2014, p. 96). Kumatongo and Muzata (2021, p. 17) support the position that research paradigms are a set of common beliefs and agreements shared by scientists about how problems can be understood and addressed. Paradigms are general viewpoints or ideologies. In scientific research, paradigms refer to how scientists respond to the three basic questions of ontology, epistemology, and methodology. There are six major research paradigms: positivism, interpretivism, post-positivism, critical theory (ideology), constructivism, and pragmatics.

Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 141) presents a paradigm as the dominant framework within which research takes place. It defines how problems are identified, epistemological and methodological assumptions are made, and the objectives of the study. The term is seen as derived from Kuhn (1962), whose ground-breaking work challenged widely held views on both the objectivity and cumulative nature of scientific knowledge. Kuhn (1962) argues that ‘normal’ science is required. A paradigm might not fit all the material facts of a natural phenomenon, but it does fit the facts that matter at that time. When a paradigm fails to explain a new data set or an existing set of data in a new light, a new framework is needed.

This is supported by Rehman and Alharthi (2016, 51) when they further state that a paradigm is a basic belief system and theoretical framework with assumptions about 1) ontology, 2) epistemology, 3) methodology, and 4) methods. Particularly, it is our way of understanding the reality of the world and studying it. The philosophical underpinnings of social science research methodology follow two main paradigms: the positivist and the anti-positivist schools of thought. The positivist paradigm supposes explanation and prediction. This paradigm uses hypothetical inferences to verify theories in research (Kumatongo and Muzata, 2021; Polkinghorne and Given, 2021; Rebetino, Kohtamäki and Federica, 2021).

This point is argued strongly by Wahyuni (2012, p. 69), who stresses that ontology and epistemology are two philosophical dimensions that distinguish existing research paradigms. They relate to the nature of knowledge and the development of that knowledge. Ontologically, if one can perceive that the existence of reality is external and independent of social actors and their interpretations of it, one is an objectivist (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2009) or realist (Neuman, 2011). On the other hand, subjectivist or nominalist adopter theory believes that reality is dependent on social actors and assumes that individuals contribute to social phenomena. Ontology influences research methodology by determining how researchers approach the study of reality. For instance, researchers with an objectivist ontology may use quantitative methods to gather data that can be measured and analysed statistically. In contrast, those with a subjectivist ontology might employ qualitative methods to explore the meanings and interpretations individuals ascribe to social phenomena.

The research paradigm of focus in this study is interpretivism. According to interpretivists, reality is a subjective experience of the external world experienced by individuals. A true interpretivist believes that objective knowledge cannot be independent of reasoning or thinking

and that there is no single correct route or particular method of knowledge; hence, they attempt to derive their constructs from the field by an in-depth examination of the phenomenon of interest (Kumatongo and Muzata, 2021, p.18). Interpretation is the basis of interpretivism, which contests the idea that knowledge and meaning can be objectively observed. The premise of interpretive research is that access to reality is only through social constructions such as language, consciousness, and shared meanings, which implies that it is how people interpret what they have seen or experienced. It is about a full description of a phenomenon with all its variables that are well identified, interpreted, and described so that the whole truth can be said or seen.

The idea of a paradigm has immediately appealed to social scientists for several reasons. First, it seems to work in explaining seismic shifts in how social questions are explored. In research, for instance, the positivist view that has been influential for decades was not rewritten or adapted by an interpretivist one, but entirely turned around. As a second point, arguing for new research approaches, new fields of study, or cross-departmental research is encapsulated by fighting against a dominant paradigm. In spite of leaving the question open for debate, Kuhn provides a deeply original and engaging understanding of natural science (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 142).

The researcher wanted to get in-depth, detailed information directly from SAPS on the ground, based on their experiences with the available resources that SAPS has in curbing the level of crime within the selected areas of KZN, about how SAPS uses those resources in collaboration with various stakeholders in their surrounding areas to reduce the crime rate and what initiatives SAPS has undertaken to make the community keen to collaborate with SAPS for crime combatting within the selected areas of KZN. The researcher also wanted to identify the challenges that SAPS faces in their efforts to reduce crime in the selected areas of KZN. Further, the researcher wanted to assess the effectiveness of those initiatives. Efficient resource allocation can significantly impact crime rates by ensuring that law enforcement has the necessary tools and personnel to respond effectively to incidents. When resources are strategically deployed, police presence can be increased in high-crime areas, deterring criminal activities and enhancing community safety. Additionally, proper resource management enables better collaboration with local stakeholders, fostering community trust and support in crime prevention efforts. As shown below in Table 3.1, the researcher considered other paradigms before settling on interpretivism.

**Table 3. 2: Paradigms of social science research**

<b>Fundamental Beliefs</b>	<b>Research Paradigms</b>			
	<b>Positivism (Naïve realism)</b>	<b>Postpositivism (Critical Realism)</b>	<b>Interpretivism (Constructivism)</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
Ontology: the position on the nature of reality	External, objective and independent of social actors	Objective. Exist independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence, but is interpreted through social conditioning	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple	External, multiple, view chosen to best achieve an answer to the research question
Epistemology: the view on what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law-like generalisations, reducing phenomena to simplest elements	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on explaining data within a context or contexts	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon the details of situation, the reality behind these details, subjective meanings and motivating actions	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research, integrating different perspectives to help interpret the data
Axiology: the role of values in research and the researcher's stance	Value-free and etic  Research is undertaken in a value-free way, the researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance	Value-laden and etic  Research is value laden; the researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing	Value-bond and emic  Research is value bond, the researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated and so will be subjective	Value-bond and etic-emic  Values play a large role in interpreting the results, the researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view
Research Methodology: the model behind the research process	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Quantitative and qualitative (mixed or multi-method design)

Based on Saunders *et al.* (2009, p. 119), Guba and Lincoln (2005), and Hallebone and Priest (2009)

Source: Wahyuni (2012, p. 70)

### 3.4. METHODOLOGY

Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 127) argue that methodology generally refers to the rationale that researchers present for applying specific research methods. It occupies a central place in the hierarchy of considerations when conducting research. At the top of this hierarchy are the epistemological and ontological assumptions regarding social research and the specific research questions posed. At the bottom are the research methods, which are tools for data collection. Methodology is positioned in the middle. Methodological considerations shape the application of particular methods, but methodologies themselves arise from specific research questions. The distinction between methodology and methods is fairly clear; methodologies provide the framework, while methods offer the means to collect data. There exists a one-to-many relationship between methodologies and methods. For instance, a single methodology like ethnography can utilise diaries, interviews, and observations. However, the distinction between methodology and epistemology is less clear than that between methodology and methods. More broadly, methodology raises questions of positionality, the practice of reflexivity, and awareness of ethical issues.

For the purposes of this study, epistemology is empirical and exploratory in nature, and the study explored how the relevant resource based model can be developed in enhancing collaboration between SAPS and other stakeholders to ensure crime prevention. This was achieved by creating a questionnaire that aligned with the study's aims and objectives. The expected outcomes of the study included identifying key factors that facilitate effective collaboration between stakeholders and SAPS. The study aimed to propose actionable strategies that can be implemented to enhance crime prevention efforts. Ultimately, the findings were anticipated to contribute to a more cohesive and efficient approach to crime reduction.

Research methodology is one of the key aspects of research because an empirical study requires exploring a phenomenon using scientifically accepted methods. The philosophical concept provides the foundation for a sequential organisation of components under research methodology. Research methods may be understood as all those methods or techniques that are used for the conduction of research. Research methodology is a way to solve the research problem systematically. It may be understood as a science of studying how research is done scientifically. In it we study the various steps that are generally adopted by a researcher in studying his/her research problem along with the logic behind them. It is necessary for the researcher to know not only research methods or techniques but also methodology (Kothari, 2004, p. 8).

Researchers not only need to know how to develop certain indices or tests, how to calculate the mean, the mode, the median or the standard deviation or chi-square, how to apply particular research techniques, but they also need to know which of these methods or techniques are relevant and which are not, and each indicates and why. Researchers also need to understand the assumptions underlying various techniques and they need to know the criteria by which they can decide that certain techniques and procedures will be applicable to certain problems and others not. All this means that it is necessary for the researcher to design his/her methodology for his/her problem, as the same methodology may differ from problem to problem (Kothari, 2004, p. 8).

### **3.4.1 Study location**

The study was conducted in KZN, it took place in six police precincts, Hibberdene police precinct; Inanda police precinct; and Pinetown police precinct; Berea police precinct; Durban Central police precinct; and Margate police precinct. These precincts were selected based on the high rates of crimes such as assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm, common assault, robbery with aggravating circumstances, burglary at non-residential premises, burglary at residential premises, as well as theft of motor vehicle and motorcycle. The Hibberdene police precinct, located in a rural setting, primarily serves a community with a mix of agricultural workers and small business owners. In contrast, the Inanda police precinct, also in a rural area, deals with a densely populated township characterised by high levels of unemployment and poverty. Meanwhile, the Pinetown police precinct, a semi-urban area, features a diverse demographic with a blend of industrial workers and middle-income families. The Berea precinct in the urban landscape is known for its affluent residents and commercial establishments. Durban Central is a bustling urban precinct with a mix of business professionals and a transient population. Lastly, Margate police precinct, although urban, is a coastal area popular with tourists and retirees, leading to a unique demographic composition.

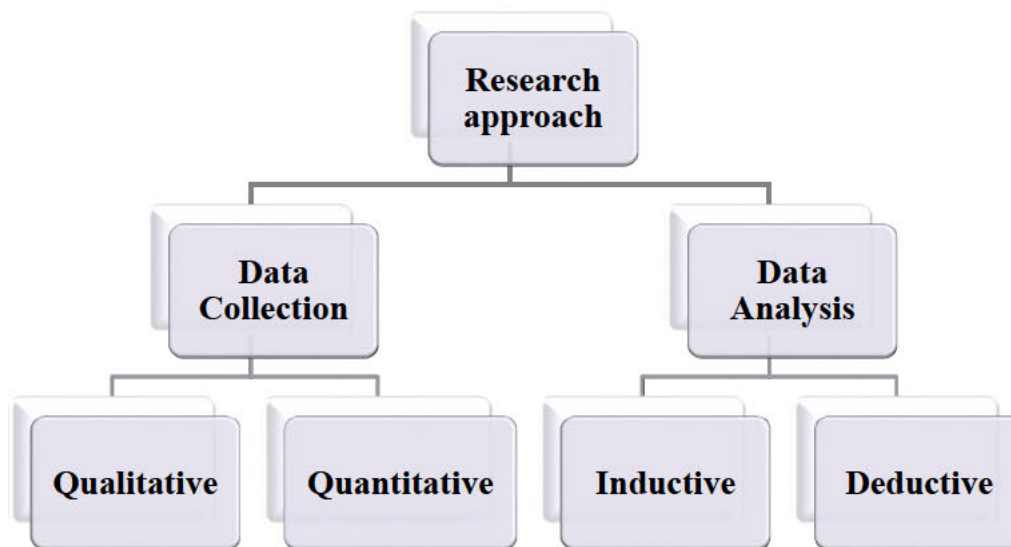
### **3.4.2 Research approach**

The research approach encompasses a range of steps from broad assumptions to detailed data collection, analysis, and interpretation methods that are part of the research process. There are several decisions involved in this plan, and they do not need to be taken in the order in which they are presented here. The overall decision relates to choosing the method of study. Researchers should consider their philosophical assumptions, their research designs, and the specific

methods for collecting, analysing, and interpreting data that will be used to inform their decision-making. Choosing a research approach also depends on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences, and the audiences to be studied (Creswell, 2014). Methods are a component of empirical social research. Methods represent systems of instructions and rules in order to be able to realise certain findings, or to achieve certain results, or to collect specific information. Methods thus always serve to achieve a certain goal, such as the acquisition of social information (Häder, 2022, p. 12).

The research approach is a plan and procedure that consists of the steps of broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. It is based on the nature of the research problem being addressed. Research approach is divided into two categories, namely: the approach of data collection, and the approach of data analysis or reasoning. (Chetty, 2016,).

**Figure 3.2: Components of the Research Approach**



Source: Chetty (2016)

A lengthy discussion of the forementioned components is given in this chapter in the sections below, which are in line with the above diagram. A qualitative approach has been taken in this study, which allows the researcher to uncover salient issues that can be studied more rigorously in the future (Tracy, 2013). Moreover, research in qualitative methods helps people gain a deeper understanding of the world, their society, and their institutions.

Qualitative research is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures: data is typically collected in the participant's setting; data analysis is inductively built from particulars to general themes; and the researcher makes interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final written report has a flexible structure. Those who engage in this form of inquiry support a way of looking at research that honours an inductive style, a focus on individual meaning, and the importance of rendering the complexity of a situation (Creswell, 2014).

### **3.4.3 Sampling framework**

According to Salkind (2010, cited in Casteel and Bridier, 2021, p. 343), for a study, the population of interest is the group of individuals, dyads, groups, organisations, or other entities that are of interest to the researcher and to whom study results can be generalised or transferred; this is the primary group of interest. A population defines the scope of a study and gives the reader information about the environment and context. To allow the researcher to focus on the research instead of presenting one-size-fits-all results, such boundaries provide natural delimitations. By clearly defining boundaries, the researcher can also clearly identify subpopulations, such as the target population, the sampling frame, and the sample, ensuring that these groups are aligned.

For the purposes of this study, the researcher used members of SAPS as the population, which was relevant to respond to the aim and the objectives of the study and give rich information that is in line with the purpose of this research. The targeted population was, specifically, the SAPS on the ground where Commander of Crime Prevention Units and SAPS members attached to Crime Prevention Units were the relevant population to the study because they are the ones who deal with the crimes highlighted in the study and, therefore, have a clear understanding of what challenges they are facing in dealing with these crimes in the selected areas where the study was conducted.

The target population is the specific, conceptually bounded group of potential participants to whom the researcher may have access that represents the nature of the population of interest. To be successful in defining the target population, one must examine all the boundary considerations in an iterative manner to ensure that the end description of the target population is inclusive enough to provide sufficient data to the study. The target population must also be

exclusive enough to avoid having participants who do not represent the study's needs, which will misrepresent the population of interest. Much like the population of interest, the boundaries of the target population must be defined such that the researcher and other stakeholders understand the nature and extent of the group to be studied. Such considerations are important not only for ensuring the efficacy of the research but also to assist in budgeting resources for investigating the research problem. A well-defined target population describes inclusion and exclusion criteria for who or which entities may participate in the study. The target population must be a complete subset of the population of interest; members of the target population must also be described by the boundaries of the population of interest. The target population is further restricted such that the researcher may clearly operationalise the boundaries for participation. It is from the target population that the sampling frame is developed (Kalleberg, *et al.*, 1990, cited in Casteel and Bridier, 2021, p. 344).

This was also highlighted by Boncz (2015, p. 26) who advise that, prior to sampling, the characteristics and properties that may distort results or affect the equality of the sample should be determined. In many cases the details of the inclusion criteria also determine those excluded, but it may also happen that only a few exclusion criteria are given. Inclusion criteria often include age group, diagnosis of illness, stadium, form of treatment, geographic distribution of subjects, etc. Exclusion criteria may be, for example, difficulties in reading and writing.

#### **3.4.4 Sampling procedures**

The basis of the issue of sampling is that, in most cases, the examination of the entire population is not possible. Consequently, a smaller group (sample) must be selected, and generalisations about the larger population can be made by studying this group. Thus, sampling involves determining and selecting the circle of those to be observed. The sample includes all the elements, the basic units, about which information is collected and used as the basis of the analysis. These elements are usually people, but they can also be lifeless things, for example, tools used in healthcare or community infrastructure. Population is the theoretically determined totality of elements to be examined, i.e., persons. The target population is a narrower circle, meaning all the persons or things from which the actual sample is taken. While sampling, one has to ensure that the sample represents the population (Boncz, 2015). Brough (2019, p. 15) supports the sentiments submitted by Boncz (2015) that taking a sample that is representative of the population about which you want to make inferences is critical to scientific research. Sampling can also get complex very quickly, and there are a large number of ways that you can design your

sampling strategy or analyse your data to help increase the reliability and predictive validity of your estimates.

Sampling procedures can be classified in two groups fundamentally: random and non-random sampling. In random or probability sampling, every member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. The sample thus chosen represents the population sufficiently. Consequently, the conclusions drawn can be considered well-founded. In research, one should try to use probability sampling; however, this is often difficult due to, amongst other challenges, reasons of data protection, funding, or because no list of the population to be examined is available for selection. Sampling can be done in several ways:

- In the case of a simple random sample, members of the sample are selected randomly from an available list of the population. The elements of the list are assigned ordinal numbers, and then they are selected with the help of a random number table or a computer.
- In a systematic random sample, every  $k$ th element of a complete list is selected. For example, if the population consists of 1000 ( $N$ ) and a sample of 200 ( $n$ ) elements is needed, every 5th ( $k$ ) element of the list shall be selected for the sample ( $k=N/n$ ). If the elements in a list are arranged according to some system, it is not advisable to choose this method.
- In a stratified random sample, the population is divided into homogeneous subgroups and a sufficient number of elements is then selected from each. The strata may be created, for example, according to sex, age, or place of residence. This strategy can be used if the ratio of the particular strata is known in the population.
- In stratified random sampling with proportionate allocation, the sample is selected proportionately to the population. The elements are chosen with a systematic method from the groups created.
- In cluster random sampling, not individual elements but groups are randomly chosen. This strategy can be really useful if a complete list of the population is difficult to prepare.
- In multi-stage sampling, groups are selected first, then lists are made of the members of the groups and then the sample is taken from the lists randomly. This form of sampling is often used in epidemiological and multicentric studies.

Nonprobability samples cannot guarantee representativeness. Thus, conclusions drawn from them are limited. Individual elements have smaller or greater chances of being included in the sample.

- Accidental or convenience sampling means when one relies on subjects easily available for the research among their acquaintances or colleagues. It may be used if the researcher is actually interested in those being present at the given moment or other procedures are not feasible. It is suitable for testing questionnaires and preparing larger representative research.
- In the case of using a purposive or purposeful sample the researcher looks for subjects with desired characteristics or qualities. This method is mostly used in qualitative research.
- Snowball sampling is applicable if finding the members of the population is difficult, e.g., homeless people, migrants. The researcher collects data from some people they can find in the population under examination and then he/she asks them for the contact details of their acquaintances belonging to the population. The word ‘snowball’ refers to gradual growth; people contacted suggest further people. It is used for exploratory purposes primarily.
- Quota sampling is the non-random method of stratified random sampling mentioned earlier. The population is divided into subgroups (which might even be proportional to the population) from which, however, elements are not chosen randomly. It is a more reliable procedure than simple non-random sampling, but it does not guarantee representativeness (Parahoo, 2006; Lehota, 2001; Lázár, 2009; Pakai and Kívé, 2013; Babbie, 2008, cited in Boncz, 2015, p. 26). Further, quota sampling is one alternative to and a more cost-effective approach than a probability sample, which was developed by the market research industry. Under this approach, researchers set targets, or quotas, based on certain demographic characteristics of the population, such as age, gender, or region. The job of the researcher thus changes from trying to maximise the survey response rate to trying to achieve a specific target quota. Once a target is achieved, all other respondents in that specific group are screened out and not interviewed. Although this approach is often less expensive, there are some potential cons, these are:

- Because you do not know in advance who is going to be screened out, there is no way to calculate the probability of selection or margin of error. Sampling theory does not apply.
- This approach assumes that the people screened out of a quota are similar to the people who were interviewed. This may not be the case, as people screened out are those contacted later in the field work period, and people who are harder to reach may differ in many ways (Brough, 2019, p. 23).

Sometimes, however, it is simply not possible or practical to conduct a probability survey. This includes situations where the target population is a very small proportion of the overall population or where a very low response rate is inevitable. In these situations, quota sampling is a pragmatic approach.

Three police precincts from rural areas (Hibberdene; Inanda; and Pinetown) and three police precincts from urban areas (Berea; Durban Central; and Margate) with the highest rates of crimes such as assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm, common assault, robbery with aggravating circumstances, burglary at non-residential premises, burglary at residential premises, as well as theft of motor vehicle and motorcycle were selected and investigated to determine the causal cause and whether the services within the chosen precincts are sufficient to curb the rate of selected crimes within those precincts. In the selection of these precincts, a crime statistical analysis was run to configure police precincts in terms of the high rate of the mentioned crimes.

Sample size is determined partly by professional considerations and partly by statistical methods. From a sampling perspective, it is critical to assess how important the obtained results are and what purpose they will serve. For decisions with long-term consequences affecting many people, larger samples are necessary. However, if the effects of the examined variables are strong and cause significant changes, smaller samples may suffice. For instance, if the variable being examined affects individuals in the study differently, the more strata are influenced by the effect present in the population and the larger the sample needs to be to mitigate the ‘distorting’ effects of those in the sample. A larger sample is also required in cases of population heterogeneity and a high number of variables being investigated. The method to be used (questionnaire: higher number of elements; observation: higher number of elements) and the time and costs involved in the research are also crucial factors.

The extent of the relationship between the police and the community in terms of fighting crimes was assessed. In each of the selected police precincts, the researcher interviewed 10 police officials per precinct who are within the Social Crime Prevention Unit (SCPU). With the help of the Station Commanders, the participants were selected accordingly. Further within these policing precinct zones, five community members were also selected. This was done through key informant sampling to hear their views on the role they can play in collaborating with SAPS to combat crimes within their areas. This study used purposive sampling to provide valuable SAPS participants. Purposive sampling was the most appropriate in this study to select relevant stakeholders until the point of information saturation, and data review and analysis were done in conjunction with data collection to ensure that all information was covered.

### **3.4.5 Research instruments**

Research instruments refer to various methods through which a researcher obtains data from respondents for his or her work. The term data refers to all forms of information that researchers obtain from the participants of the study (Japheth, 2014). Research instruments are simply devices for obtaining information relevant to the research project, and there are many alternatives from which to choose (Birmingham and Wilkinson, 2003, p. 3). Adedokun (2003, cited in Japheth, 2014: n.p.) asserts that data refers to “any fact, observation or facts relating to the subject of the study”. There are different types of research instruments that can be used by researchers for their studies, depending on the nature of the research that is to be carried out.

According to Aina (2004, cited in Japheth, 2014), research instruments are instruments that are used to collect data from participants of the study. They are important for collecting data in all types of research methods. They are mainly used by researchers to collect reliable data, which will later be analysed. They include questionnaires, interviews, observations, focus group discussions and experiments. For the purposes of this study, in-depth interviews and focus groups discussions were used.

#### **3.3.5.1 Interviews**

Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 109) presents a detailed explanation of interviews, stating that interviews can be defined as conversations between the researcher and those being researched, variously termed ‘participants’, ‘subjects’, or simply ‘interviewees’. Interviews are unnatural kinds of conversations as they generally involve making explicit the rules of the conversation, for example, what is being discussed, how long it will be discussed, and the role each party is

expected to take. Interviews are governed by ethical rules concerning consent for the interview in the first place, for recording, for preserving the subject's anonymity, and respecting confidentiality. The value of the interview is that it allows the researcher to probe an interviewee's account of an event as well as their thoughts, values, feelings, and perspectives more generally. Interviews go into depth, allowing the researcher to see an event or context from the point of view of the people he or she is researching; interviews are interactive, allowing for clarification of questions and identification of unexpected themes. In contrast, surveys are better suited to revealing the broad picture.

Interviews are often assumed to be immediate face-to-face encounters, but this need not be the case. Telephone interviews have been common for many years, and teleconferencing now allows face-to-face contact at a distance. However, for the purposes of this study, it was a challenge to conduct interviews of this nature, because, among other reasons, although at times it was cost effective, the technological devices created a barrier as a resource challenge to some police precincts. This meant that the research needed to travel and have an in-contact meeting with the participants. Many experienced researchers prefer face-to-face interview, perhaps because of its familiarity, worries over technology interfacing, or because travelling to an interview and entering an interviewee's own home, place of work, and so on shows a symbolic commitment to accessing participant voice. However, it is an open question as to how much difference this makes in practice. With internet technology, it is also possible to carry out text-based online interviews, although these do pose challenges. For example, interviewees need to be comfortable with keyboard entry and with using the internet in general. Text is almost always produced more slowly than speech and will be less spontaneous. However, some may find a text-based environment less intrusive and that it provides better opportunities for reflective responses (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 110).

Creating an interview schedule involves turning an area of enquiry into a set of questions which are meaningful for the interviewee. Interviews involve careful use of language, the avoidance of jargon, and clarity in phrasing. Interviews are often broken down by type. The structured interview may be little more than a face-to-face questionnaire, but it can be of value when a large number of interviewees are involved in market research. At the other extreme, an unstructured interview will be far less predictable. There is no set list of questions or rigid order, though in many cases it may be productive to start with a planned key question to act as a trigger. The path that any interview takes depends on the rapport between the interviewer and

the interviewee and the social skills of the interviewer. Semi-structured interviews are often used as they are more manageable than unstructured ones while avoiding the inflexibility of the fully structured approach (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 110).

As further explained by Hammond *et al.* (2020), the interview needs to be considered in relation to the aims of the research and its aptness for the research question. Most researchers do this, but there are some assumptions about the veracity of the process which are taken for granted or only raised in relation to special circumstances, such as interviewing children and vulnerable people. The interview, or at least the more open interview, is often imagined to be a kind of ideal speech situation in which the interviewee is allowed to question assumptions made by the interviewer and to express his or her attitudes without internal or external constraints. However, it is very difficult to offer judgements about the openness of the interview except from the point of view of the interviewer. Furthermore, while many researchers are more than willing to deal with procedures such as member checks and participant validation, they are less keen to consider the interview as something that is constructed out of a particular dynamic between interviewer and interviewee.

The difficulties inherent in interviewing do not rule it out as a method of data collection, but they do make us more sensitive to the circumstances of the interview and more flexible in our concept of what an interview is. It should not be assumed that interviewing is best done in one-to-one situations. Group interviews or focus groups in which a researcher talks with (say) three, four, or more people together can often have advantages. The interviewees may feel more secure and at ease if they are with their peers. They are also more likely to relax and jog each other's memories and thoughts. The disadvantages are also clear: the group can be swayed by its more dominant members, and it can be difficult to deduce the degree of agreement in the group unless this is expressed explicitly. A focus group, and indeed a one-to-one interview, can be built around activity (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 112).

An interview is a measurement instrument, otherwise known as an oral questionnaire. It involves a process through which a researcher solicits information from respondents through verbal interaction. A researcher would have previously prepared a schedule list of structured questions pertinent to the study before meeting respondents for their opinions on a subject matter (Japheth, 2014). The researcher poses questions, and records the answers. Materials that could be used during interviews include tape recorders, paper, and pens. The major advantage

of this method is that it produces high response rates. Besides, it tends to be representative of the entire population of the study and personal contact between the researcher and respondents enables the researcher to explain confusing and ambiguous questions in detail (Aina, 2004; Popoola, 2011, cited in Japheth, 2014).

The interview, as a method of qualitative data collection, involves two people discussing a specific human or social issue. Using interview techniques, the researcher commonly aims to obtain the perspective of the interviewee by interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena. This flexible technique allows the interviewer and interviewee to elaborate on the topic to pursue an idea or response in greater detail (Alamri, 2019, p. 65). It is disadvantageous to allow the interviewer's bias, insecurity in accessing wealthy respondents, and the amount of data that can be collected through this method, which is usually limited compared to the questionnaire method, to influence the data collected through an interview. Interviews can be conducted personally or through telephone or electronic mailing systems.

Interviews can be structured, semi-structured, or unstructured. The structured interview format compels the researcher to use precisely the same questions for all participants. In contrast, the semi-structured interview format allows the researcher to add or omit any aspect of the pre-planned questions. The semi-structured interview consists of several key questions that help define the areas being explored in the research. The researcher uses semi-structured interviews to enable the interviewee to elaborate on certain issues. Conversely, unstructured interviews require no question guide. Generally, interviewing is considered the most popular qualitative method used by researchers. Moreover, interviews can also be readily combined with other approaches in a multi-method design. Some researchers combine interviews with another research method to test and verify the truthfulness of the collected data (Alamri, 2019, p. 65).

The main function of an interview is to facilitate the interviewees (participants) in sharing their experience, stories, and perspectives regarding a particular social phenomenon being observed by the interviewer. The participants, who are the practitioners in their field, will pass on their knowledge to the researcher through the conversations held during the interview process. The interview method is most often selected as the main method for collecting empirical data about the relevant practices (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 73). SAPS on the ground were able to share their stories, perspectives, and experiences regarding the possibility of developing a resource-based

model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province, looking at the initiatives that are possible in cooperation with other stakeholders.

#### **3.3.5.1.1 Key Informants Interviews**

Key Informant Interviews (KII) involve interviewing a select group of individuals who are likely to provide needed information, ideas, and insights on a particular subject. Two characteristics of key informant interviews need special mention. First, only a small number of informants are interviewed. Such informants are selected because they possess information or ideas that can be solicited by the researcher. Depending on the nature and scope of an inquiry, the researcher identifies appropriate groups from which the key informants are drawn and then selects a few individuals from each group. Such interviews should not, however, be confused with formal and informal surveys in which a relatively large number of people are interviewed.

Second, key informant interviews are essentially qualitative interviews. They are conducted using interview guides that list the topics and issues to be covered during a session. The interviewer frames the actual questions in the course of interviews. The atmosphere in these interviews is informal, resembling a conversation among acquaintances. The interviewer subtly probes informants to elicit more information and takes elaborate notes, which are developed later. If all the relevant items are not covered in a session, the interviewer goes back to the key informant. It is the unstructured nature of the interviews that invests them with special meaning and relevance in the present discussion (Kumar, 1989, p. 1).

In this study, in-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with SAPS members as key informants, on the ground where the Commanders of Crime Prevention Units, along with SAPS members attached to the Crime Prevention Units, were the most relevant participants as they are the ones that are responsible for addressing the crimes highlighted by the study and have a clear understanding of the challenges they face in dealing with the crimes selected for the study. The researcher developed an interview schedule, with relevant questions to guide the interview discussions, based on a thorough literature review to identify gaps and focus the questions. The interview schedule was carefully designed to ensure comprehensive coverage of topics related to crime prevention. Questions were formulated to explore not only the challenges faced by the Crime Prevention Units but also the strategies they employ to address these issues. The schedule was refined through consultations with subject matter experts to ensure clarity and relevance.

### **3.3.5.2 Focus group discussion**

This data collection instrument refers to a process whereby researchers obtain data from small to large groups of people at the same time. This method is different from the interview method, in which the researcher focuses on one person at a time. In a focus group discussion, the researcher obtains data from a larger number (group) of people for his/her research activity. Focus group discussions are very popular when carrying out research in the field of behavioural science, library and information science, archival science, records, and information technology. It could be noted here that a need may arise for a researcher to use more than two or three approaches to obtain data for his/her research activity. This depends on the supervisor and the nature of the research or problem to be investigated.

In focus group discussions, a researcher identifies key informants that may be contacted to elicit the required information on variables of interest in a study. It is very important to note that in an evaluator study or when assessing the performance of a system or a project or when working at a policy and its impact on a particular operation in a society or organisation, focus group discussion methods could be employed. The approach is used to generate qualitative data in explaining a phenomenon under study or investigation. Membership of the focus group discussion should not exceed 10 members at a time. Focus groups are like mini conferences where members of a group are assembled in a conducive location. It is a prerequisite for the researcher to have obtained their consent to take part in the study.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher used the following material for this method of data collection:

- Pen and paper;
- Tape recorder and cassette;
- Research assistants; and
- Light refreshments to entertain the participants.

The major advantage of this method is that it adds credibility and originality to the research activity while also presenting challenges that include to costs to the researcher to carry out the focus groups, it takes a lot of time to conduct, and some of the respondents may not be free to contribute extensively, especially if their boss is invited to such a gathering.

### **3.4.6 Data collection methods**

Data is collected in form of primary and secondary data. The primary data is usually collected using semi-structured interviews with the experts in the topic of interest from the case organisations. As suggested by Parker (2003., cited in Wahyuni, 2012, p. 73), qualitative researchers should get involved in communication with the practitioners in the organisational coal-face in order to understand the current state of real-world practices better. The secondary data constitute internal publications provided by participants to the researcher and publicly available data which are relevant to the topic being observed. This method of collecting data from multiple sources, termed data triangulation (Patton, 2002), assisted the researcher not only to collect more comprehensive relevant information but also to cross-check their consistency in order to enhance the robustness of findings.

For the data collection process, this study used an in-depth interview method. In-depth interviews are very effective in research questions using human understanding. Researchers employed in-depth interviews with participants to enable them to express their views and experiences. In this study, participants were invited to share their views and experiences of developing a resource-based model to combat rural and urban crime in KZN Province. An in-depth understanding of the phenomenon was provided by participants' responses. In-depth interviews are advantageous to both the participants and the interviewer because, for example, they allow the participants to express themselves using unstructured accounts of their understanding. Furthermore, in-depth interviews are also good for interviewers as it allows participants to trust them which encourages thick description from participants. In-depth interviews are designed to elicit a vivid picture of the participant's perspective on the research topic (Mack *et al.*, 2005). This method considers participants as experts in a given topic and their understanding as a means to answer research questions. Moreover, this study attempted to establish the local SAPS responses to crimes in the selected areas. Furthermore, cooperative relationships between the identified policing strategies and challenges were examined by the researcher.

### **3.4.7 Data analysis methods**

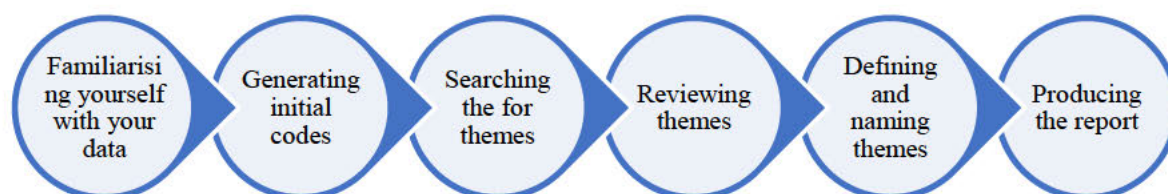
Wahyuni (2012, p. 75) argues that data analysis involves the drawing of inferences from raw data. Data analysis can involve multi-methods that are applied sequentially. Multi-method application in conducting research is called methodological triangulation. The method of data analysis used in this study was thematic analysis. Thematic analysis "is a qualitative analytic

method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data". It visibly organises and describes data in rich data. King (2004) defines thematic analysis as a process of analysing data by analysing key ideas and words in a way that connects related themes and views by reading through the data and categorising it into linked themes and views. Taking note of patterns and themes that emerge in the data strengthens qualitative interpretation. Providing logical explanations that address the study's objectives is the only way that the researcher can accomplish this. Because the researcher has to go back and forth in the interpretation of the data, this step is both systematic and rotational. The researcher can only move on to the reporting of the general findings of the study once he or she has derived a holistic explanation from the bits and pieces of linking information.

In this study, researchers used a qualitative approach with a thematic analysis technique to analyse themes and patterns in the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). According to de Farias *et al.* (2021, p. 157), the methodological and epistemological flexibility of thematic analysis suggests appropriate steps for technical analysis to answer a study's questions. De Farias *et al.* (2021) incorporate Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis procedure into their technical analysis, particularly when explaining the use of logical similarities and levels of thematic complexity.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), not only does thematic analysis describe or organise data, but it also goes further and interprets a range of aspects of the research topic. The six steps prescribed by Braun and Clarke (2006) to carry out thematic analysis are guidelines and should not be used as prescriptive, linear, and inflexible rules when analysing data. They should rather be used in relation to the research question and the available data.

**Figure 3.3: Six steps of Braun and Clarke’s Thematic Analysis combined with The Logical Procedure of Similarity and Levels of Thematic Complexity**



Source: Braun and Clarke (2006); De Farias *et al.* (2021)

The six steps are as follows:

*Familiarising yourself with your data*, the first step is to recognise the data obtained through in-depth interviews by inputting them into a Microsoft Excel sheet for easy reading, analysis, and data coding. This step requires the researcher to be fully immersed and actively engaged in the data by first transcribing the interactions and then reading (and re-reading) the transcripts and/or listening to the recordings gathered during the data collection process. Initial ideas should be noted down. It is important that the researcher has a comprehensive understanding of the content of the interaction and has familiarised him-/herself with all aspects of the data. This step provides the foundation for the subsequent analysis. After the data was collected from members of SAPS who were participants in this study, the researcher reviewed the notes taken and the recordings that were done. The researcher intensely read and listened to the raw data repeatedly so that it could be aligned with the relevant information needed for this study. The researcher transcribed the data himself which was advantageous in familiarising “myself” with the data to have a comprehensive understanding of it.

*Generating initial codes*, the second step is to code the data using highlighted segments and memos (Kuckartz and Radiker, 2019). The coded highlighted segments are used to identify and label the data, and the memos are used to document each step of the coding process. This allows

for more accurate and organised data coding. Once familiar with the data, the researcher must then start identifying preliminary codes, which are the features of the data that appear interesting and meaningful. These codes are more numerous and specific than themes but provide an indication of the context of the conversation. In order to collect data relevant to each code, the researcher systematically codes important aspects of the data across the entire data set. To code the transcribed data, the researcher writes interesting codes systematically across the entire set of data, compiles data relevant to each code, and notes key themes emerging. As the analysis progresses, these initial codes are reviewed and refined to capture the nuances in the data better. This involves merging of similar codes, discarding redundant ones, and developing more specific sub-codes are necessary. The researcher continually revisits the data to ensure that the refined codes accurately reflect the patterns and themes identified.

*Searching for the themes*, the third step in the process is the start of the interpretive analysis of the collated codes. Relevant data extracts are sorted (combined or split) according to overarching themes. The researcher's thought process should allude to the relationship between codes, subthemes, and themes. Based on the researcher's interests and codes collected, potential themes are developed according to their relevance to the research question. These themes help provide a structured framework for analysing the data and identifying patterns or trends. They enable the researcher to draw meaningful conclusions and offer insights that are directly aligned with the objectives of the study. The themes facilitate a deeper understanding of the underlying issues related to the research question.

*Reviewing themes*, a deeper review of identified themes follows where the researcher needs to question whether to combine, refine, separate, or discard initial themes. Data within themes should cohere together meaningfully, while there should be clear and identifiable distinctions between themes. This is usually done over two phases during which the themes need to be checked in relation to the coded extracts (phase one), and then checked in relation to the overall data set (phase theme). A thematic 'map' can be generated from this step. After the themes were developed, they were then reviewed to see if they were relevant and to see if the entire data set had been covered by the themes, allowing a thematic 'map' of the data to be created. The researcher meticulously organised the themes into categories that accurately represented the data's key patterns and insights. They then visually arranged these categories in a coherent structure, highlighting the relationships and connections between them. This process ensured

that the thematic map effectively captured the overarching narrative and intricacies of the data analysis.

*Defining and naming themes*, this step involves ‘refining and defining’ the themes and potential subthemes within the data. Ongoing analysis is required to enhance the identified themes further. The researcher needs to provide theme names and clear working definitions that capture the essence of each theme in a concise and punchy manner. At this point, a unified story of the data needs to emerge from the themes. It was the researcher's responsibility to look at each theme and clean it up, refine it, and come up with clear definitions and appropriate names for each theme based on his analysis. Clear theme definitions are crucial because they ensure that everyone involved in the research has a shared understanding of the key concepts. This shared understanding facilitates effective communication and collaboration among team members. Also, well-defined themes enhance the reliability and validity of the research findings by providing a consistent framework for analysis.

In the fifth step, the researcher applied the principle of different levels of thematic complexity for code naming. This process involved identifying three distinct levels of analytical complexity: description, analysis, and thematic statement. The descriptive thematisation level included semantic relationships between categories and grouping them into themes to describe the more general aspects of the content. Then, the thematic statement level consisted of a theme presentation thoroughly identified in a theoretical statement that could be verified or falsified (De Farias *et al.*, 2021). The sixth step was to produce an analysis report (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

*Producing the report*, finally, the researcher needs to transform his/her analysis into an interpretable piece of writing by using vivid and compelling extract examples that relate to the themes, research question, and literature. The report must relay the results of the analysis in a way that convinces the reader of the merit and validity of the analysis. It must go beyond a mere description of the themes and portray an analysis supported by empirical evidence that addresses the research question. The process entails a thorough review of the data collected from various sources. This step includes identifying and extracting key examples that are instrumental in supporting the findings outlined in the final report. Following this extraction, the data is meticulously presented and explained, providing a clear analysis that correlates with the research questions posed. A comprehensive examination of the relevant literature discussed in the report is conducted to ensure that all findings are well-supported and contextualised within

the existing body of work. This detailed approach not only clarified the research questions but also enhanced the overall understanding of the data's significance and implications

### **3.5. METHODS TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS**

Researchers now use the term trustworthiness to describe the strength of their claims to knowledge. It is important to take a trustworthy account seriously. In using the term 'trustworthiness', researchers are rejecting the positivist connotations of the word 'validity', as it is a term that is mainly used in qualitative and interpretivist research. An individual's trustworthiness is determined by his or her integrity. In order to establish trust, people have to act as they said they would in the past, and we have come to expect that they will do the same going forward. The inference made by Lincoln and Guba's (1985) research is supported by Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 189), who point out that, as a reader, we might think an account is trustworthy if we have confidence in the text and we are willing to argue with it. Establishing trust between researcher and reader is not straightforward, as it must be done at a distance. An account that is trustworthy is worth paying attention to. Trustworthiness can be established by marshalling evidence. Specifically, a trustworthy account is one that is substantiated, credible, transferable, and reliable.

The trustworthiness of qualitative research generally is often questioned by positivists, perhaps because their concepts of validity and reliability cannot be addressed in the same way in naturalistic work (Shenton, 2004, p. 63). Trustworthiness becomes a matter of persuasion whereby the scientist is viewed as having made those practices visible and therefore auditable. Validity in qualitative studies should be linked not to the truth or value as they are for the positivists. A study is trustworthy if and only if the reader of the research report judges it to be so. Trustworthiness has been further divided into *credibility*, which corresponds roughly with the positivist concept of internal validity; *dependability*, which relates more to reliability; *transferability*, which is a form of external validity; and *confirmability*, which is largely an issue of presentation (Gunawan, 2015, p. 10). However, reliability or dependability is regarded as a threat to validity or credibility, and questioned many of the usual qualitative reliability tests, such as member checking or peer checking as ways of ensuring that the researcher has analysed the data correctly. But Guba and Lincoln (1989, cited in Gunawan, 2015, p. 10) regard member checks as "the single most critical technique for establishing credibility".

### **3.5.1 Method to ensure reliability**

The concept of reliability refers to a stable, repeatable measurement, which is shared by many contexts. In relation to questionnaires, reliability can be determined by repeating surveys of the same respondents, i.e., whether the responses are similar. Questions that address similar topics should be answered in a similar manner in a reliable questionnaire. Qualitative analyses of interviews and other data can also be assessed for reliability, for example, through the use of inter-rater reliability measures, and triangulation is based on the search for greater reliability. It is important to value reliability, but to treat it critically as well. Although a questionnaire may be statistically reliable, if it does not address one's research question, it is not valid: no matter how accurately a watch displays time, it is not suitable for measuring temperature (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 163).

#### *Conformability*

To ensure that the results reflect the understandings and experiences of observed participants, rather than the researcher's own preferences, others need to be able to confirm the findings. Further, triangulation methods suggest conducting an inquiry audit in order to increase confirmability. In the research working book, data and progress of research should be carefully documented in the form of research memos and interim summaries. The research record serves as an audit trail that enables a thorough examination of both the research process and research results by tracing the research process step by step. It may also be possible to cross-check the coding development and application for confirmability through peer assistance (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 78). The researcher gathered the raw data from the participants during data collection.

#### *Dependability*

This concept corresponds to the notion of reliability, which promotes reproducibility and repeatability. Dependability refers to taking into account all changes that occur in a setting and how they affect the way research is conducted. To achieve dependability, researchers must explain the research design and process in detail so that future researchers can follow a similar research framework. Future researchers should be aware that applying the research model does not necessarily result in a similar outcome. In order to enhance dependability, detailed explanations of the research processes undertaken, as well as the main instruments used to gather empirical data, for example, interview questions, can be provided. In this study, a detailed description of the research design, data collection, and data analysis method, including the sampling procedures was followed and has been provided. In addition, dependability considers the

process of data collection, data analysis, and theory generation, and is often evidenced by an audit trail.

### **3.5.2 Method to ensure validity**

The validity of a study can have a wide range of meanings in social research, and may be used as a general term to describe the fit between the interpretation of data and the actual data, or it may be used in a more technical sense as a measure of the correlation between the predicted and actual data. The concept of validity has been used in comparison to reliability. Reliability refers to how consistent a measurement is, whereas validity refers to its appropriateness (Hammond *et al.*, 2020).

#### *Credibility*

This concept deals with the suitability of data to reflect the observed social phenomena. In simple terms, credibility is concerned with whether the study actually measures or tests what is intended. The careful selection of case organisations is considered as the first practical step toward credibility in case study research. In subsequent meetings with the practitioners, the interim results from the previous interview can be discussed as a method of respondent validation (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 73). The researcher used data collected through a one-on-one IDI during which the participants were asked open-ended questions aided by an interview guide. Further, it allowed the participants to express themselves using unstructured accounts of their understanding. Credibility is strongly related to confirmability, for example credibility is enhanced if the researcher has had prolonged engagement with participants.

#### *Transferability*

Transferability refers to the level of applicability to other settings or situations. As Lincoln and Guba (1985, cited in Wahyuni, 2012, p. 73) suggest, a rich and thick explanation of research sites and characteristics of case organisations should be provided to enhance transferability. While it is certain that the data from a qualitative study is not reproducible, it is not impossible to apply a qualitative study in a different setting. With some careful adjustments to the setting, such research findings that are drawn from rich descriptions of the current state of observed practices have the possibility of being transferred into a different study of other industries within or across jurisdictions. Further, transferability refers to the degree to which the findings of one's enquiry can apply beyond the bounds of the project and may be used as a comparison in other studies.

Transferability was gained by the use of purposive sampling. The researcher provided thick description of methodology, context, and research processes for replication in subsequent studies. In ensuring transferability, the researcher has given a deep and rich understanding of the phenomenon of this study and has given the participants the platform to engage and interpret the study phenomenon.

### **3.5.3 Informed consent**

Voluntary informed consent is an ongoing two-way communication process between the participants and the researcher regarding a specific agreement about the conditions of the research participation. Informed means that the participant knows what a reasonable person in the same situation would want to know before giving a consent. This involves not only what the study is about but also what the participant will have to do. Consent means explicit agreement to participate. Process consent entails the researcher revisiting the participant's consent during and after the data collection and even before the publication of the data (Sieber and Tolich, 2013, p. 115). The position adopted by Israel and Hay (2006) is supported by Sieber and Tolich (2013, p. 115) who state that informed consent should be a relatively straightforward exercise but many researchers have found it difficult to gain informed consent in practice. Sieber and Tolich (2013) further state that much of the problem with informed consent stems not from the two-way interaction between researcher and the participants but from the three-way interaction when the IRB (Institutional Review Board) reviews the consent form.

The researcher of this study agrees with the submissions of Sieber and Tolich (2013) above because this was the case when the UKZN Ethics Committee wanted an indication of how the participants were going to be informed about the final product of this research, for them to grant a final approval. At the initial stage of application to the UKZN Ethics website, there was no clear indication for that information. Thus, the informed consent stems primarily from the three-way interaction when an IRB reviews the consent form.

There is no doubt that informed consent is one of the most important ethical issues in epidemiological genetic research conducted in clinical settings and in communities. Voluntary informed consent is universally accepted as a precondition for scientific research involving human beings. National and international guidelines for ethical conduct in research outline specific requirements for obtaining informed consent (Nosenzo and Tufano, 2017, p. 307).

For the purposes of informed consent, the researcher gave research participants sufficient information about the nature and effect of the research, in particular the effect of the research on the participants, including its consequences, risks, and benefits, to enable them to make an informed choice about their participation. The researcher gave research participants the information they asked for and needed about their research participation. The researcher gave information to research participants in a language that they understood and in a manner that considered the participant's level of literacy, understanding, values, and personal belief systems.

Patten *et al.* (2018, p. 75) support the notion that those who participate in research must be informed of the risks and the benefits of participating and consent to participate, knowing that they also can refuse to answer specific questions or withdraw at any time. This represents the principle of autonomy, in which all individuals are free to make choices and participate in research voluntarily. A key to promoting ethical values is informed consent. To obtain informed consent, researchers must tell the participants (1) the general purpose of the research, (2) what will be done to them during the research, (3) what the potential benefit(s) to them and others might be, (4) what the potential for harm to them might be, and (5) the fact that they may withdraw at any time without penalty, even midstream. This information is typically provided to participants in writing, and the participants (or their guardians) sign an informed consent form to indicate that they understand what they will be doing and freely agree to participate. For the informed consent form provided to all participants in this study giving all this information, please refer to APPENDIX E. When those being researched have limited autonomy, additional safeguards are usually necessary to empower individuals fully in these populations to exercise autonomy in the context of their research participation. The researcher was fortunate enough that the participants in this study had no limited autonomy.

#### **3.5.4 Anonymity**

A research project guarantees anonymity when the researcher cannot link a given response to a given respondent. This implies that a typical interview-survey respondent can never be considered anonymous because an interviewer collects the information from an identifiable respondent. Anonymity is achieved in a research project when neither the researchers nor the readers of the findings can identify a given response with a given respondent (Babbie, 2016, p. 65).

The researcher made research participants aware that all their personal information and the comments they made during the interview would not be disclosed to any other individual. It will not be used against them, and their confidentiality will be kept by using pseudonym rather than the participants' real names in this study.

### **3.5.5 Confidentiality**

The use of study codes is an effective method for protecting the confidentiality of research participants. Study codes may be used on data collection instruments in place of identifying information to protect participants' responses or data when data documents are stored or out in the open. After completion of the study and consultation with the supervisor, the data will be stored and protected in a secure facility at UKZN, Howard campus for a period of five years. Thereafter, data destruction of sensitive data will be performed to ensure confidentiality by destroying data saved on tapes, hard discs, or any form of electronic media to the point that the data is completely unreadable and cannot be used for unauthorised purposes.

### **3.5.6 Voluntary participation**

Individuals can freely decide whether or not to engage in cooperative activities in many naturally occurring environments in which voluntary participation is allowed. A typical example of a collective action problem is a voluntary association, collective, community group, or collaborative institution in which agents can participate or opt out of the activities. It has sometimes been suggested that voluntary participation is a key factor in explaining the success of collective action groups (Nosenzo and Tufano, 2017, p. 307).

Participation in research at all times should be voluntary and not coerced. The researcher informed research participants of their right to abstain from participating in the study, or to withdraw from participating in the study – by revoking their consent – at any time, without suffering prejudice or reprisal. When all these steps had been followed, the researcher could begin with the study and start conducting the interviews.

### **3.5.7 Data reduction strategy**

The main aim for conducting this research was to add to the existing body of knowledge; therefore, my research will not be complete until it is disseminated. As a researcher, I plan to publish an article based on the research topic.

### **3.5.8 Protecting the researcher and the participants from Corona Virus Disease (COVID-19)**

The researcher wore a mask and gloves all the time when conducting the interviews with the participants. The researcher provided sanitizers and masks to the participants. The physical distance of 1.5 metres between the researcher and the participants was always kept during the interviews.

### **3.6. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Ethics and morality are associated with each other in most dictionaries and in common usage, and both refer to right and wrong. However, what constitutes right and wrong? Why do we make this distinction? Religions, political ideologies, or pragmatic observations of what works and what does not work may all be sources of morality for individuals (Babbie, 2016, p. 62). Among dictionaries, *Webster's New World Dictionary* defines ethical conduct as "conforming to the standards of conduct of a particular profession or group". The definition of morality and ethics in everyday life is a matter of agreement among members of a group, not a matter of absolutes. Different groups also have different codes of conduct, so it is not surprising that they agree on different codes. Social research communities are no different in terms of how they know what is ethical and what is not. Therefore, anyone engaged in social science research should be aware of the general principles agreed upon by researchers concerning what constitutes ethical and inappropriate conduct (Babbie, 2016, p. 62).

This point is argued strongly by Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 72) who stress that although morals underpin ethics, the two terms are not quite synonymous. An ethic is a moral principle or a code of conduct. The term 'ethics' usually refers to the moral principles guiding conduct, which are held by a group or even a profession. The conduct of research should be not only ethical in the particular sense that relevant procedures have been followed, but also ethical in spirit in the respect shown to others, its benefits, and how it is reported. Questions arise if:

- The design or planning of the research involves treating particular individuals or groups unfairly, for example by using an experimental and a control group and unethically rewarding or mistreating one.
- The methods employed involve subterfuge, for example, using covert terms of access or if consent is forced.

- The analysis (or manipulation) of the data ignores certain results or observations or selectively filters out qualitative data if it does not fit a hypothesis.
- The presentation or reporting of the research is disrespectful, for example revealing names or portraying a group of respondents using inflammatory language.
- The findings or conclusions of the research go beyond the data in order to reflect the researcher's own opinions and values (Hammond *et al.*, 2020, p. 73).

In social research, the most troubling accounts of unethical behaviour often concern observer participation, for example in ethnographic studies. Ethical codes have changed over time. Most, if not all, research is governed by professional associations and institutional guidelines and these can be particularly helpful in understanding legal and ethical requirements especially when working with young or vulnerable people. Perhaps the overriding rule is that honesty and openness should prevail in the relationship between researchers and those who participate in research. Nearly all researchers are very aware of ethical codes and procedures and follow them. In our experience, they avoid the key pitfalls and have only the best intentions in creating a report that is trustworthy and useful.

However, they are less conscious of some of the subtleties which may be raised by more prosaic questions such as: What counts as secure storage of data and when exactly should interview recordings be destroyed? Should an experimental trial be stopped once it is realised that a control group is disadvantaged? What level of payment can you give to a research participant to encourage diary keeping? Is anonymity in reporting always the right course to follow; in an internet age is it even possible? What should an interviewer do if the interviewee breaks down in tears in a way that probably has nothing to do with the focus of the research? Often researchers can be quite frustrated by ethical codes. There are many issues which lie outside formal codes and belong to the realm of personal ethics. Some people, for example, select participatory approaches to research out of an ethic of social activism; some would just as strongly argue that the researchers should stay distant from those being researched (Hammond *et al.*, 2020:73). Hammond *et al.* (2020, p. 165) support the idea that ethical considerations cover the ways in which individuals will be treated, gaining consent and avoiding covert behaviour, and the integrity with which the data is analysed and reported.

Further, the principles in the Nuremberg Code and Belmont Report, on which much of modern IRB ethics reviews are based, revolve around a few important concepts. The first is that participants must be protected from both physical and psychological harm. The Belmont Report refers to this as the principle of beneficence, which means that research should strive not to harm, to maximise possible benefits, and to use a research design that is best suited to minimise risks and maximise benefits. It is understood that not all harm can be anticipated in research planning, but it is the responsibility of the researcher to create a research plan carefully that minimises the potential for harm and increases the potential for benefit. While harm should be minimised, the potential of the research to benefit society is also considered when weighing out a research plan. The research plan should minimise the possibility of harm and seek to mitigate any ill effects while maximising the benefit to society. Risks in research should be proportional to the potential for their rewards to humanity. Further, it has been shown that another important principle within research ethics is that of justice. In essence, justice means that research subjects are all treated equitably, such that any burdens or benefits related to the research are shared fairly. Vulnerable or conveniently accessible subjects should not be exploited based on these characteristics (Patten *et al.*, 2018, p. 74).

Subsequently field research involved directly talking to and observing the people being studied when preparing and planning out how the researcher would conduct the research. The first thing the researcher did was to apply to the UKZN Ethics Committee and obtain a letter of Ethical Clearance. According to Neuman (2006), gatekeepers are individuals of formal or informal authority in charge of entrance to a location. This confirmation letter to conduct this study was given to the researcher to provide access to conduct IDIs with the SAPS officials to be selected from the three local police precincts in urban areas and three police precincts in rural areas of KZN in line with the research topic. After receiving the letter from the principal University (UKZN) and gaining approval for conducting this study, the researcher, in order to support his objectives, chose three rural policing areas and three urban policing areas within the province of KZN to explore and describe an appropriate resourced-based model of local SAPS in policing rural and urban crimes. The SAPS approval was given after the UKZN Ethics committee has granted the approval conduct this study.

### **3.7. CONCLUSION**

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the research design that was used to answer the research objectives and questions. To gain a deeper understanding of all stakeholders involved in the police department field, an exploratory research design was used. This approach enabled the research team to gather comprehensive data and identify salient issues that need further exploration in future studies. The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach in this study. This allowed him to uncover the subjective experiences, opinions, and perspectives of participants. Through this method, the researcher was able to gain rich insights into the factors that influence the police department. As a result, the findings of this study provide a more nuanced understanding of the issues surrounding the police department.

The next chapter presents the data collected in this study. The data is integrated with the literature presented in chapter two to provide a more comprehensive analysis of the research findings. The chapter provides detailed interpretations, discussions, analyses, and findings emanating from the collected data. This enables the readers to gain a deeper understanding of the issues surrounding the police department and the research findings.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### DATA PRESENTATIONS, INTERPRETATIONS, AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present and interpret the research results derived from the qualitative data collected. The importance of data analysis cannot be understated in the research process, and yet it is often overlooked in the early stages of research planning. Data analysis is a critical part of generating meaningful findings as it provides the basis for analysis and informs the researcher's conclusions. In this chapter, the researcher presents a detailed analysis of the findings from the data collected in line with the key aim and objectives of this study. The responses of 60 participants in the study were analysed using thematic analysis. The participants were interviewed, using In-Depth Interviews (IDI), to explore the resource-based model in combating rural and urban crimes in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal.

The linkage between the questions asked during the interviews and the responses of the participants is merged with the literature presented in chapter two of this study to provide a well-rounded analysis. Through the use of thematic analysis, patterns and themes were identified in the data collected, which helped to provide a deeper understanding of the research questions. The findings from this study provide valuable insights into the effectiveness of the resource-based model in combating crimes in rural and urban areas, which can be used to inform policy and practice in this field. First, the biographical information of the participants is provided, followed by a presentation of the qualitative findings of this study.

#### 4.2. BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

The biographical details of the participants in this study played a crucial role in understanding their background and experiences. These details include their gender, age, and ethnicity, which served as an indicator of how long each participant had been a member of SAPS. Gathering this information, the researcher ensured that they collected enough data from each participant and achieved data saturation. The study involved a total of 60 participants, comprising of 30 SAPS members from three rural police precincts and 30 members from three urban police precincts. The researcher collected biographical data from each participant which is presented in Table 4.1 of the in-depth interviews with participants. The table is organised according to police precincts, participant number, age, and gender, allowing for easy reference and analysis of

the data. By obtaining in-depth biographical information from each participant, the researcher was able to gain a better understanding of the unique experiences and challenges faced by SAPS members in different locations. This detailed information can help inform future research and policies related to policing in South Africa.

**Table 4. 1: Biographical data of the In-Depth interviewed participants**

Police precincts	Participants	Gender	Age	Ethnic group
Berea Precinct	PU1BR	Male	55+	South African
	PU2BR	Male	55+	Indian
	PU3BR	Male	55+	Black/African
	PU4BR	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	PU5BR	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
	PU6BR	Male	45 – 55	Prefer not to answer/S.A.
	PU7BR	Female	45 – 55	Indian
	PU8BR	Male	45 – 55	Coloured
	PU9BR	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	PU10BR	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
Durban Central Precinct	DBNC1	Male	55+	Indian
	DBNC2	Female	25 – 35	Black/African
	DBNC3	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
	DBNC4	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
	DBNC5	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	DBNC6	Male	55+	Indian
	DBNC7	Female	45 – 55	Indian
	DBNC8	Male	45 – 55	Black/African
	DBNC10	Male	55+	Black/African
	Hibberdene Precinct	RUP1HBD	Male	45 – 55
RUP2HBD		Male	55+	Indian
RUP3HBD		Male	45 – 55	Black/African
RUP4HBD		Male	55+	Black/African
RUP5HBD		Male	45 – 55	Black/African
RUP6HBD		Male	45 – 55	Coloured
RUP7HBD		Female	45 – 55	Indian

	RUP8HBD	Male	55+	Black/African
	RUP9HBD	Male	45 – 55	Black/African
	RUP10HBD	Male	45 – 55	Black/African
Inanda Precinct	INA1	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	INA2	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	INA3	Male	45 – 55	Black/African
	INA4	Male	55+	Black/African
	INA5	Male	45 – 55	Black/African
	INA6	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	INA7	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	INA8	Female	25 – 35	Black/African
Margate Precinct	MARG1	Male	35 – 45	Indian
	MARG2	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	MARG3	Male	35 – 45	White
	MARG4	Female	25 – 35	Black/African
	MARG5	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	MARG6	Male	35 – 45	Black/African
	MARG7	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
	MARG8	Female	35 – 45	Black/African
	MARG9	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	MARG10	Female	35 – 45	Coloured
Pinetown Precinct	PINURP1	Male	45 – 55	Coloured
	PINURP5	Female	45 – 55	Indian
	PINURP6	Male	45 – 55	Indian
	PINURP8	Male	25 – 35	Black/African
	PINURP9	Male	45 – 55	Black/African

Source: Researcher's illustration

Table 4.1 shows that in the 10 participants from Berea precinct, one of the urban selected precincts, age ranged from 35 to 55+, and the males were dominant. The second urban precinct was Durban Central where nine participants data was collected. Their age ranged from 25 to 55+, and there was a balance of gender within this precinct. Margate precinct was one of the three urban selected precincts where 10 participants contributed information required for this

study. Their age ranged from 25 to 45 and there was somewhat of a gender balance in this precinct. Further, the results show that there were 10 participants from Hibberdene precincts, which was one of the rural selected precincts for the purposes of gathering data information for this study. Their age ranged from 45 to 55+ and males were predominant in this precinct. Furthermore, for Inanda, a rural selected precinct, the data of 8 participants, their age ranging between 25 and 55+ was collected. Males were dominant in this precinct. The last and the third selected rural precinct was Pinetown where five participants' data was collected. Their age ranged from 25 to 55 and males were predominant in this precinct.

### **4.3. FINDINGS RELATING TO THE STUDY AIM**

The primary objective of the study was to explore the possibility of developing a comprehensive resource-based model to combat rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province. The study aimed to investigate and evaluate the initiatives implemented by the SAPS for combating crimes in the police precincts of Berea, Durban Central, Margate, Hibberdene, Inanda, and Pinetown. The study involved all role players at the local, cluster, and provincial level, including community members, law enforcement agencies, and other stakeholders. The study focused on priority crimes, such as crimes against women and children, which have been on the rise in recent years. The study also prioritised incidents on farms and smallholdings, which are prone to criminal activities due to their remote locations.

#### **4.3.1 To explore a possibility of developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province, looking at the initiatives of the South African Police Services**

As part of a comprehensive research study aimed at developing a resources-based model to combat crime in both rural and urban areas, a specific question was posed to the participants that aligned with the study's objective. The study aimed to identify the possible resources that could be utilised to prevent and address criminal activities in both rural and urban areas, and to develop an effective strategy to combat crime. To gather insights and knowledge from individuals who have experience and expertise in dealing with crime in these areas, the researcher asked a specific question to the participants.

The question was designed to elicit meaningful responses and to identify potential resources that could be utilised to combat crime. The responses collected from the participants were analysed and used to develop a resources-based model that was implemented to combat crime

effectively. This innovative model has been designed to utilise available resources to combat crime in both rural and urban areas. The model incorporates a range of strategies, including community engagement, resource allocation, and the use of technology to prevent and address criminal activities. The model has been implemented successfully and has led to a decrease in crime rates in both rural and urban areas. This research study has demonstrated the importance of developing a resources-based model to combat crime. In utilising available resources effectively, it is possible to prevent and address criminal activities in both rural and urban areas, and to create safer communities for everyone.

In responding to the study aim, the following question was asked: “*In formulating a multi-disciplinary model to prevent crime, how can all other role players be kept active and always functioning?*” The purpose of including this question was to emphasise that the SAPS should not be solely responsible for mitigating crime levels in the specific areas under study. It was intended to underscore the importance of engaging multiple stakeholders, including community members, local authorities, and social organisations, in creating and maintaining a safe and secure environment for all individuals.

The participants of the study gave various responses, and, after analysing their feedback, it has been found that effective policing requires a collaborative approach that involves the police, civil society, and other stakeholders. It is impossible for the police alone to prevent all drug dealing and assault because some factors are beyond their control. Community involvement plays a crucial role in crime prevention by addressing underlying social issues that contribute to criminal behaviour. Programmes such as neighbourhood watch groups, youth mentorship, and community outreach can help build trust, provide support, and create a safer environment. In working together, residents and law enforcement can more effectively reduce crime and improve the overall quality of life in their communities. Many participants emphasised the importance of working together with law enforcement agencies, communities, and other stakeholders to prevent and respond to crimes efficiently. This approach allows for a more coordinated and comprehensive effort to address crime, which may lead to better outcomes and a safer environment for all. By pooling resources, sharing information, and building trust among different groups, the collaborative approach can help identify and address the root causes of crime, while also reducing the likelihood of future criminal activities. The study suggests that a collaborative or partnership approach is a crucial component in addressing crime and creating a safer society.

*“Working together with different departments helps to identify and address issues more effectively. Joint operations with liquor regulators enable police officers to ensure compliance with regulations. Multidisciplinary approaches allow professionals to pool resources and knowledge. Consistent joint operations keep efforts ongoing” (PU1BR).*

It has been noted by Smith *et al.* (2004) that, in the past, the police were the main role-players in crime prevention, but now it is the joint responsibility of government NGOs, community-based organisations, and individual members of the community. Individual members can contribute to crime prevention by staying informed about local crime trends and reporting suspicious activities to the SAPS authorities. They can also participate in neighbourhood watch programmes and engage in community events that promote safety and awareness. Individuals or community members can help by fostering a strong sense of community, which can deter criminal activity by creating an environment where everyone looks out for one another.

*“Timeous meeting and listening to the community views; good relationship with the community; sector managers (SAPS); distribute contact for easy communication” (PU2BR).*

*“The members of the public must be aware of their importance by supplying us an information, and by assisting us indirectly by installing Closed-Circuit Television (CCTV) cameras on their premises, that can help us a lot in order to combat crime or to identify the suspects” (PU3BR).*

Private police are anxious solely about prevention. Public police also work to prevent crime, but the usual public policing method of addressing crime is reactionary; out of necessity, the police usually wait for calls for service before responding. Surveillance is paramount in the private policing context, whereas public policing relies more heavily on the detection of criminal acts and the apprehension of suspects. Surveillance includes the use of obvious technologies like CCTV and security cameras, but private police also employ other “embedded” techniques to guard against loss and ensure compliance with expected norms of behaviour. Surveillance in private policing plays an important role in deterring potential criminal activities before they occur. Maintaining a constant watch over specific areas, private police can identify suspicious behaviour early and take preemptive action. This proactive approach helps in minimising losses and maintaining a secure environment for clients and businesses.

*“If they can work together and if they can employ more reservist to assist the CPF and the police that can work and that can always function” (PU5BR).*

The participants in the discussion expressed their agreement with the views expressed by Smit *et al.* (2004), which were presented in section 2.3.5. According to this, the police cannot work in isolation as they are in constant interaction with individuals, communities, and a variety of institutions. They require collaboration with civil society to reduce crime and violence. Community policing is a policing strategy that has gained popularity in recent years. It emphasises the decentralisation of policing responsibility, enabling local commanders and front-line officers to collaborate with neighbourhood populations to develop and implement policing strategies. This approach has proven to be highly effective in reducing crime rates and improving public safety.

In South Africa, crime has been on the rise for many years. The government, community, businesses, and crime prevention specialists must form meaningful partnerships if South Africa is to turn the tide against this crime wave. In order to deal effectively with crime, SAPS cannot provide enough manpower, skills, or physical resources, so forming partnerships is the only way to achieve this.

*“We work very closely with security companies and the CPF. They are the other role players now for them to become active. We organise not project operations. For instance, if we are holding a roadblock, we involve security companies and CPF members to join in, not to do what the police are doing. For instance, if they are on a roadblock, they assist us, but only we are allowed to search for vehicles and stuff like that. We also have regular meetings with them where they discuss, like at the GOCOCK where they talk about what is going on in our area. We also discussed how we could, like I told you, use them when doing motor kits. We use many CPF members” (PU7BR).*

This view echoes Roycroft and Brine (2021), who noted that MASH and MARAC are examples of partnerships that provide triage and multi-agency assessments of safeguarding concerns for children and adults. Every agency shares information, and the two agree on the best intervention. The two provide early risk identification and joint decision making, resulting in a coordinated response to risk assessments, management, and reduction.

Moreover, a CPF is a legislated structure that plays a vital role in establishing relations between the police and the community. It involves community members in policing activities, providing them with a voice in determining policing priorities and strategies. It contributes to the effective

functioning of the police by ensuring that they are accountable to the community and their needs. CPFs have been instrumental in building trust between the police and the community, leading to greater cooperation and collaboration in reducing crime and improving public safety.

*“Collaboration is the key to success. Regular meetings allow each department to share knowledge and experience, which can be used to develop effective plans. We cannot operate in isolation, so it's vital to work with other departments, companies, law enforcement agencies, and countries. We can learn from other countries' experiences and best practices, as seen in interviews with WHO representatives. By working together, we can develop effective strategies to deal with any challenges that may arise” (PU6BR).*

In order for effective crime prevention strategies to be developed and implemented, as well as to be reviewed and redeveloped, all levels of government should play a leading role in creating and maintaining institutional frameworks for the implementation of and review of such strategies. One way to measure the effectiveness of crime prevention strategies is through the analysis of crime rate statistics before and after implementation. Surveys and community feedback can also provide valuable insights into perceived safety and the impact of the strategies. Additionally, tracking recidivism rates among offenders can help assess long-term success. Further, without oversight, the police cannot function effectively or democratically. Various forms of police accountability are crucial for maintaining control over the use of force by citizens and elected representatives. When accountability fails or is compromised by elements within the government or police, there is a tendency for police to engage in actions that deviate from social norms. This can lead to abuses of power, corruption, and a breakdown of public trust in law enforcement. Effective oversight ensures that police actions align with legal and ethical standards, fostering accountability and reinforcing the legitimacy of the justice system.

*“Our Metro police work with sister security companies, NGOs, and community watch foot patrols to combat crime. We assign specific tasks and a reporting day to ensure effectiveness. The Metro police stop and search vehicles in strategic points, while the security companies patrol their contracted areas and communicate with SAPS. Subforums and CPF serve as the "eyes and ears" of the police within the community, gathering information and educating the community about police activities” (PU8BR).*

Smit *et al.* (2004), discussed in section 2.3.5, render a better explanation for this phenomenon when they argue that the involvement of the community in police matters has been found to be beneficial in fostering stronger relationships between the two. A higher level of engagement from the community can lead to a more collaborative effort in maintaining law and order. This can result in improved communication and trust between the police and the public, leading to a safer and more secure community.

*“Hold meetings to discuss how crime in certain areas can be prevented. We also do joint patrol parades, where the SAPS and the security companies accompany along for patrol, and we do roadblocks together. The communities know the challenges they have in their houses, so they also come together with SAPS to discuss such issues” (PU9BR).*

*“If SAPS can involve especially the junior members who are working on the ground, when they formulate those multidisciplinary because most of the time you will find that the people who are mostly doing the planning, operational planning are those people who are at the management level, because they are assuming that by reading the crime states, this is what we can use, not involving the members who are actually on the ground. They know what is best and what is happening. So, if they can involve them, it can work better” (DBNC3).*

*“Is to work hand in hand with other stakeholders such as DSD and Safe City to discuss crime issues and allow the community to talk with the police about crimes happening in the area” (DBNC4).*

*“Communication is key, and a breakdown in communication can lead to problems. Police officers need to be paid fairly, as lack of motivation can lead to misconduct. A fair salary is a significant part of motivation, and the government must act to ensure police officers are paid enough. Many officers struggle to pay for basic necessities, which is a significant barrier to recruitment and retention. It is essential that the government acts to prevent corruption and encourage a sense of pride and responsibility among members of the police force” (DBNC5).*

According to Sloper (2004), Robinson and Cottrell (2005), Horwath and Morrison (2007), and Barnes (2008, as cited in Kirby and Keay, 2021), see section 2.3.6, the concept of partnership working may sound simple in theory, but when it comes to implementation, it can be a discouraging task. This is because it involves bringing together different agencies with varying prior-

ities and cultural practices. As a result, this may lead to procedural conflicts rather than a cohesive team response. In order to address this issue, certain steps need to be taken to alleviate any potential tension that may arise. This includes developing an awareness and a willingness to compromise. It is important to agree upon various aspects such as identifying the leader, setting clear objectives, and establishing accountability. Additionally, there should be a clear understanding of logistical issues such as interoperability, funding, property, training, management support, time devoted to the project, and operational protocols.

By addressing these issues, working in partnership can become a more effective and efficient approach to problem-solving. Despite its challenges, it has proven to be a successful strategy in many instances, particularly in situations where multiple agencies need to work together to achieve a common goal.

*“SAPS, the metro police, security companies, and businesses work together to prevent crime, but their efforts can only do so much. Members of the public can play a crucial role in stopping crime. By intervening in a safe and appropriate manner, even though simple actions like calling the police or helping, people can help prevent crime and reduce its prevalence” (DBNC6).*

*“We use the multidisciplinary model in policing, involving other departments like law enforcement, RTI, road safety, Metro Police, and Home Affairs. This model helps verify documents and prevent crime. Private security companies are also included to help with crime prevention as they know the areas and the problems they face. We conduct roadblocks, patrols, and arrests, and search vehicles and individuals in cases where roads are closed. This has been successful in decreasing crime rates and discovering illegal items and individuals. We must continue to use this model to maintain law and order” (DBNC8).*

*“Meetings, i.e., especially as I do fraud related crimes, we used to have meetings called Banking Action Group. In these meetings, we meet various bank representatives and teach one another. This is because the investigation that we do with these people plays a significant role. We need workshops with business owners, and SAPS, to provide relevant information to access clients' bank accounts” (DBNC10).*

*“To gather the youth within society, do some sports days and the police will be present, just for the youth to keep their lives busy. In addition, they can request donations from the business*

owners. Most of the time people who commit crimes are youth, sometimes due to unemployment. However, if there are activities that keep them busy like sports, they may be effective in reducing the level of crime” (RUP1HBD).

The participants have shown that law enforcement in South Africa requires a special kind of person with a unique mindset. Policing is a challenging profession, and it takes dedication and passion to face those challenges and move the organisation forward. We need individuals who are willing to work hard and have the right recruitment strategies.

*“In answering that you can see they are talking about other role plays. Now the key thing is we need in the South African Police or with law enforcement agencies, a special type of person because policing in itself is a very difficult vocation. I can testify to that because I joined almost 39 years ago, and when I was told by my father who was also a policeman, that my boy, this is a very challenging environment. I thought he was talking to other staff. Still, after being in the organisation myself, for so many years, you need a special type of person with a unique mindset. This person needs to take the challenges in the organisation and take them forward, which to me is achievable. It's just that now how do we recruit the right type of people and how do we lobby around that or form ideas as to how we recruit and this and that. I think we spoke earlier about a job seeker, a worker, a passionate person. So, using my example, I would say dedication and passion are required here” (RUP2HBD).*

*“SAPS must work closely with Amakhosi and Izinduna. If they do not, they cannot win this thing. If they isolate themselves from Izinduna and Amakhosi, it is a big problem. This is because some cases are reported or handled by Izinduna, and some are handled by Amakhosi. SAPS must work closely with Amakhosi and Izinduna. This is not just work in isolation, with Izinduna on that side and Amaphoyisa on that side. By doing so, you will be able to gather more information because those are people that stay in communities. Yes, so there is a lot of information that you can pick up, and there is a lot of information that you can miss out on by isolating yourself from the tribal structures of the community” (RUP5HBD).*

In achieving the purpose of this question aligned with the study aim, participants emphasised that regular meetings and communication, involving various stakeholders like security companies, law enforcement, and community members, are crucial. The frequency of meetings should

depend on the crime rate. When specific areas are targeted, all relevant parties should coordinate a response, including monitoring, patrols, and community involvement. Effective collaboration is essential for addressing high crime rates and ensuring community safety.

The multidisciplinary approach is crucial for addressing crime because it involves many different people and organisations. The police cannot fight crime alone. They need to work with other government departments and the community. Key players include the traffic department, protection services, and private security companies. These groups help the police and the community fight crime. It is important to respect and support security companies and traffic police in the area. This will help reduce crime and improve relationships between the police and the community.

This is also posited by Smit *et al.* (2004) in their research, indicating that if the community sees police as part of the community, they should have a clear perception of the community problems which they too experience. Individual police officials may also need the services of the SAPS and desire safety and security for themselves, their families, and their property.

*“We have other government departments that help to prevent crime. We need to work together to make sure they are doing all they can. Unfortunately, I think our leaders lack the will to make this happen. We need someone to check that things are being done because we don't have a department that is more important than the others. This means we can't just tell them what to do. We need to invite them to work with us. The second issue is about involving people in the community, like business owners, CPFs, Chiefs, and Izinduna. I recently tried to schedule meetings with Izinduna, but they did not want to. It seems that people only want to help when they are directly affected by a problem. We need to change this so that we can all work together to fight crime” (RUP10HBD).*

The idea that that the approach to formal partnerships can differ greatly was first proposed by Kirby and Keay (2021), presented in section 2.3.6. Some partnerships simply come together to respond to complaints more efficiently, while others form to prevent problems from occurring or becoming worse.

*“Crime prevention would only work if the community reported the crime. We only work with what CRIMINT or Criminal Intelligence gives us, that is how we work. At the moment, we just, as I said, we just patrol, we just search around and that is just how we stop our crime. However,*

*if we are active enough, as I said, criminal intelligence will assist, and the members of the community will assist as well” (INA2).*

There must be trust among the members or between the members of the police, the community, and the security company. If there is that trust, they can join forces as a multidisciplinary model to prevent crime.

*“They are involved in the planning, first of all. Other role players are involved in the planning like in the Station crime combating forum we have got the businesses people, we have got security officers, and other role players who sometimes, for example here in Margate as it is a holiday destination, during the holidays they come together in that forum and plan how they are going to deal with the influx of people because we have got people from Eastern Cape coming to this side, we have got people from Durban coming, and sometimes it overwhelms the police” (MARG8).*

*“We collaborate with security guards, R&M, and RTI to maintain Margate security. We check shops and set up roadblocks to alert drivers and deal with foreigners, second-hand goods, and environmental concerns. We involve all relevant parties from different departments. For a combined operation on weekends, we involve security guards, SAPS, and R&M. We work together as a big family in Margate, and the security guards alert us when they encounter issues” (MARG10).*

In line with Geldenhuys (2018), discussed in section 2.3.6, there is a clear agreement among the participants that private security companies and the police collaborate in multiple ways. This collaboration includes crime prevention, sharing information and resources, and forming operational partnerships. The collaboration between these two entities is crucial in ensuring public safety and reducing crime rates. Simonsen (1998) further reinforces this viewpoint by stating that the police and the private security industry share similar interests. Private security companies have a vested interest in reducing crime rates and protecting their clients, while the police are responsible for maintaining law and order in society overall (see section 2.3.6).

Therefore, both entities work towards the same goal, making their collaboration essential. The partnership between private security companies and the police has proven to be effective in many cases. They have been successful in reducing crime rates, preventing crimes, and providing a safer environment for people to live in. Moreover, the collaboration has led to the efficient

utilisation of resources and the strengthening of the overall security infrastructure. Thus, the collaboration between private security companies and the police is vital in ensuring public safety and reducing crime rates. Their partnership has been successful in achieving this goal and is an essential aspect of the security infrastructure.

#### **4.4. EMERGING STUDY THEME FROM THE STUDY AIM**

A theme is a set of features that are evident across several participant accounts that make up particular perceptions or experiences that seem to be relevant to answering the research question. Research themes emerge from researchers' engagement with the text as they seek to answer a particular research question. They provide researchers with tools to make sense of their data. Coding involves identifying themes in accounts and attaching labels to index them (University of Huddersfield, 2024). In qualitative inquiry, a code is usually a word or a short phrase that assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and evocative attribute to a portion of language-based or visual information. In addition to interview transcripts, participant observation field notes, journals, documents, drawings, artefacts, photographs, videos, Internet sites, email correspondence, literature, etc., data can be used as sources (Saldaña, 2021, p. 3). Based on both the content and thematic analysis of the in-depth interview transcripts, it was possible to identify the six themes outlined below for both the aim of this study and its objectives.

##### **4.4.1 Relevant stakeholders' monthly meetings**

Participants stated that monthly meetings with the various stakeholders of the multidisciplinary operation are one of the most important components of making the operation a success. This is because it strengthens trust, and security, and reduces the sole responsibility placed on SAPS as the only institution responsible for crime prevention and crime combating. The participants of this study considered the use of partnership policing to be one of the best ways to reduce and prevent crime. As far as this strategy is concerned, it does not solely focus on police officers as they are not the only structure that is supposed to prevent crimes. In rural areas, the use of multi-agency agencies was also considered, but in rural areas, tribal structures like *Izinduna* and chiefs (*AmaKhosì*) play a huge role in collaborating with SAPS to combat criminal activity.

Effective policing also involves strong relationships with other state agencies. Coordination with prosecutors, among police forces, and with sectors of the prison and re-entry systems is essential to investigate crime and enforce the law effectively. At the same time, police contacts must go beyond the criminal justice system into schools, social welfare agencies, and other

segments of the state in order to reach out to different parts of society and to help to develop policies that address the needs of specific segments of the population, with a view to preventing crime, reducing recidivism rates, and minimising the need for police action.

Furthermore, a multidisciplinary operation is what makes it possible for the multi-agencies in urban areas to play an important role in preventing crime. There are a variety of people who are assigned to this task, including Metro Police Road Traffic Inspectors (RTIs), security forces, Home Affairs, Community Watches, and Business Watches. In terms of policing crime in urban and rural areas, both of these demarcations apply to partner policing as well, where CPFs and informants are partnered. This is in line with the priorities set out in the NCPS 1996 and the White Paper on Safety and Security, both of which emphasise the importance of other agencies besides SAPS in reducing crime threads and ensuring effective crime prevention.

There is a need to integrate crime prevention considerations into all relevant policies and programmes in social and economic sectors, including employment, education, healthcare, housing, and both rural and urban planning. Poverty, social marginalisation, and exclusion should also be considered. Particular emphasis should be placed on communities, families, children, and youth at risk to address the root causes of crime, such as inequality and lack of opportunities. This approach fosters safer communities by promoting social cohesion, reducing vulnerabilities, and providing support systems that prevent criminal behaviour from developing in the first place.

Interaction with the general public is essential to good policing. These are not limited to formal interactions. Policing in rural and urban areas involves working to build a knowledge base within the community that can help to maintain low crime levels. Police can achieve this through a wide array of strategies, including speaking informally with community members, working to place signs that can help to control criminal activity by directing citizens to walk through safe areas, sending police officers to schools to help to educate young people about a variety of issues, and broadcasting public safety campaigns on television.

## **4.5. FINDINGS BASED ON STUDY OBJECTIVES**

To achieve the study's objectives, the researcher undertook a comprehensive review of existing literature on crime prevention strategies and resource allocation. The researcher also conducted fieldwork, including stakeholder consultations, site visits, and interviews with community members and law enforcement agencies. The study's findings informed the development of a resource-based model that guided the allocation of resources and efforts for combating crime in the identified areas. The model was tailored to the specific needs and challenges facing each area, taking into account their unique socio-economic and geographic factors.

### **4.5.1 Evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.**

Various criminal activities take place in both rural and urban areas, and these activities often present challenges to the SAPS. The occurrence of specific crimes, as well as their higher prevalence and frequency, can vary based on the location, whether it be rural or urban. This variation in criminal activity poses unique challenges for law enforcement and requires tailored approaches to address these issues effectively.

During the study, the following question was posed in response to this objective: “*what types of crimes occurs in the rural and urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal?*”. We asked this question in order to understand whether or not occurrence characteristics of crimes within these two different populations, rural and urban, are uniform or do not differ, and to determine if SAPS employs similar and effective strategies to curb such crimes in both types of areas.

There are many crimes that are committed both in urban and rural areas. These crimes can be caused by a number of factors such as ignorance, preconceived notions about what is right and wrong, and a general misunderstanding of the law. As a result of these, OCGs target and exploit rural communities, and rural crime is often linked to organised plant theft, livestock theft, burglaries targeting firearms, poaching, and horse racing, among others. There are a number of crimes that fall under this category, such as robberies, assaults, and drug trafficking. It is important to note that the nature of crimes, such as murder, rape, and robbery, can vary in accordance with where they occur. Some of these crimes may take place in rural and urban areas with limited infrastructure and resources. Violence is on the rise in the urban and suburban areas and the increase in these crimes is alarming. It can be caused by a number of factors, including

unemployment, poverty, and drug abuse, among others (see section 2.2). In order to address this issue, law enforcement and communities need to come up with a comprehensive approach.

In this study, participants responded based on their reported crime statistics within their police precincts. One of the most noticeable points was how dominant these crimes are despite the location of their police precincts.

*“Lots of crimes against people can be classified as robbery, assault, rape, murder, and domestic violence, those are crimes against people. Then you have another crime called property crime, which is your theft of a motor vehicle, your housebreaking, your theft out of a motor vehicle, business robberies, and housebreakings. Those are property crimes. So, you have crimes against persons, and you have crimes against property. Those are the types of crime we experience in urban areas” (PU1BR).*

*“Robbery – business and house robbery, common robbery, robbery with a weapon other than a firearm (knife, sharp weapon or any object), arm robbery (pistol, rifle); housebreaking and theft; carjacking; theft of motor vehicles; theft out of motor vehicle; theft from motor vehicle; assaults (common GBH); intimidation; crimen injuria; domestic violence; rape cases. In rural areas, there are thefts of property, robberies, and assaults” (PU2BR).*

*“In urban areas mostly, we have theft of motor vehicles, theft out of motor vehicles, robberies, mostly opportunistic crimes” (PU6BR).*

The position adopted by Zhao and Tang (2018) indicates that traditional urban crime research is mainly based on conventional demographic data such as education level, income level, the wealth gap, and ethnic and religious differences. A resident's basic physical and psychological need is safety. In order to achieve sustainable urban development, strategies for crime prevention and safety in the city must be comprehensive, integrated, and gender-sensitive, see section 2.2.

*“Holistically in urban areas, there is theft, you get like common robberies, cell phones, laptops, you get theft out of the motor vehicles, where sometimes your equipment is lying in the vehicle, then there is an opportunity of crime, where the person sees it and smashes the window to take, then there are a lot of smashing grabs at robots, there is theft out of motor vehicles where people park their vehicles off and then come back, then the vehicles are not there, you have*

*assault cases, but from working in my area we do not encounter too many of those. We have a lot of theft of motor vehicles, theft from motor vehicles, and property crime, where many businesses are broken into. Very rarely, you will get anything out of the ordinary” (PU7BR).*

The rise of violent crime in urban and suburban areas has been alarming. It could be caused by various factors such as the lack of proper planning and infrastructure, as well as the exploitation of people’s vulnerability to these crimes. These crimes can also affect people differently and may take different forms. Baird-Olson (2000), see section 2.2, identifies five characteristics of rural communities that shape both criminal behaviour and the exercise of justice: geographic isolation, the availability of guns, economic factors, race and ethnicity, and social climate. Baird-Olson (2000) may pay attention to these characteristics in rural areas, however, such crimes are also problematic in urban settings. Even though the researcher is not comparing these two demographic areas, the parallel in the nature of their crimes is relevant for the purposes of this study as they are characteristics of crime in both urban and rural areas..

*“Firstly, you have murders, business robberies, house robberies, house breakings, normal thefts, and you also have a few kidnappings, and so forth. City car jackings, cash-in-transit robberies, and also your normal cross-pavement robberies were robbed by security companies, that is called cross-pavement. Then you have also got your taxi violence in the areas and then your normal assaults due to drunkenness and all these club roles and liquor outlets roles and all that. The common assault would be linked with assault, GBHs, and rape cases where females are raped” (PU8BR).*

*“When we code our crimes, we get A and B classes, so we have a lot of petty crimes like disturbances, drunk and disorderly, and traffic violations, and then you have serious crimes. We have murder, attempted murder, GBH, also known as assault commons, rapes, all of your sexual assault cases, arson, malicious injury to property, and as I said, MVAs which are road traffic acts like on the roads, culpable homicide, reckless driving under the influence, and I could have forgotten a few, but these are usually what are still fresh in my mind and what I am discussing” (RUP2HBD).*

*“We handle various crimes including murder, rape, assault, burglary, and theft from motor vehicles. In cases of child neglect, we intervene to ensure the safety of the child until we can address issues with the parents. We actively work on police-generated cases to find and arrest*

*individuals involved in illegal activities to minimise community-related problems” (RUP3HBD).*

*“In both rural and urban areas, there are high rates of housebreaking, murders, rapes, drug-related activities, and robberies in Hibberdene. The area experiences prevalent criminal activity, particularly in the form of theft, making it a high-crime area” (RUP7HBD).*

*“In rural areas, the main concern is domestic violence, assaults, GBH assaults, and common assaults. So, most of the time, just domestic violence that leads up to murders, that is why we have so many murders here in Inanda that some murders. Mostly domestic violence and contact crime. So, it means that people get stabbed and hijacked, and cars get hijacked. It is mostly contact crimes” (INA2).*

*“Murder – this is because people in this area do not know each other; hijacking because of the densely populated area; sexual offenses” (INA4).*

The movement of people from rural areas to urban centres, known as urbanisation, is happening quickly in many developing countries, especially in Sub-Saharan Africa. This speedy urbanisation is occurring while many countries experience macroeconomic stability and growth. The UNOWA (2007), as presented in section 2.2, commented on the connection between rapid urbanisation and the safety and security of cities. They argue that the disorganised expansion of urban spaces diminishes the ability of national governments and local authorities to provide urban security and basic social infrastructure such as health, education, water, and sewage disposal facilities.

Observations conducted by UNODC (2023), see section 2.2.1, indicate that the most common types of crime in urban and rural areas are robbery, assault, and theft. They are carried out by people known to engage in unlawful activities. At times, these crimes are more likely to be carried out by individuals who are not familiar with the community. Due to the centrality of financial and commercial institutions in urban areas, crime and theft are common problems, and illegal or stolen goods are readily available for commercialisation. In response, private security has become a popular service for banks, corporations, government agencies, universities, and private residences.

The position adopted by Bezuidenhout (2020), see section 2.1.1., indicates that, in South Africa, violence related crimes are among the most serious crimes. Some of the crimes rated as serious in the SAPS Police Plan are motor vehicle hijacking and other vehicle related crimes, drug related crimes, taxi violence, possession of and trade in illegal weapons, police corruption, bank robberies, and serious economic offenses. The possession of illegal firearms, gang related crimes, involvement in criminal organisations, and crimes against women and children such as domestic violence and abuse, distinct gender-based violence, assault GBH, and corruption within the CJS have also been identified as priorities for the attention of SAPS and government.

*“In our area, we face challenges with crimes such as hijackings, vehicle hijackings, robberies, and murders, particularly related to taxi violence. Business robberies are common, especially in the industrial areas of Westmead and New Germany. We also have incidents of gender-based violence (GBV), but they are not as prevalent due to our area being more of an employment hub” (PINURP1).*

Bezuidenhout (2020) further shows that socioeconomic factors play a significant role in influencing crime rates, as poverty and unemployment can drive individuals towards illegal activities as a means of survival. In wealthier communities, the presence of valuable assets makes them attractive targets for financially motivated crimes. Conversely, in less affluent areas, limited access to resources and social services can lead to desperation and conflict, often resulting in higher rates of social-fabric crimes.

As reinforced by UNODC (2023), presented in section 2.1.1, urban areas also provide diverse and more efficient modes of transportation and access points (e.g., ports, airports, highways, railway stations) that can also play a role in advancing the delivery and mobility of illegal goods and trafficking in persons. The investigation and policing of these activities can be complicated if they involve cross-jurisdictional or transnational involvement and investigations. Furthermore, transportation has made cities more diverse, making understanding and meeting diverse demands even more challenging. For the police, this may increase pressure to mobilise resources in transit zones, which may extend beyond their jurisdiction and mandate and reduce services in other areas.

#### **4.5.2 Establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.**

In South Africa, the technology level is lacking, in both the private sector and the public sector. South Africa is, therefore, not on par with the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) that we are experiencing now. In order to fight crime, SAPS implemented the 4IR to ensure that technology could be used in order to improve productivity. In this way, they would have the ability to identify trends and patterns, and allocate resources more effectively, so that, ultimately, they could increase their effectiveness. The most suitable resources to combat crime were also analysed to ensure that the objective of reducing crime is achieved, as well as ensuring that SAPS do not encounter any challenges when they are using the allocated resources within their police precincts.

The participants were asked, *“in combating crimes, what resources are needed in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province?”*. In order to advance crime reduction and equip SAPS with the modern resources that are most needed to combat crimes, this was a key step in getting an understanding of how to accelerate crime reduction.

According to the PNI in Albrecht and Den Heyer (2021), as presented in section 2.3, police and policing should be performed by highly qualified individuals, supported by the most effective tools and resources, and discharged with the highest professional standards that produce the best managerial results that best serve the people. Government agencies in the Republic of South Africa do not have access to unrestricted funding; as a result, they must effectively and efficiently manage allocated financial resources.

*“You need manpower, you need vehicles, proper vehicles to attend to crimes reported, but manpower is the most important thing because you can still put members on foot to go and combat crime and skilled people, like if you place a fingerprinted person at a station, forensics at a station, let each precinct have their own forensic expert, fingerprint expert” (PINURP5).*

*Manpower and vehicles, we can have manpower but if there are no sufficient vehicles that has no effect (PINURP7).*

*“Firstly, we need manpower; two, we need the cars; three, we need all the equipment relevant to fighting crime like guns because there is nothing you can do, because these people, most of*

*the time are armed, so we do need the guns, we need the pepper spray, sometimes we need the water cannons by the public water policing. Those are all the tools we use” (PINURP9).*

*“We need human resources – members; physical resources – motor vehicles, Tonka, baton sticks, pepper spray, cell phones, two-way radios, guns. Suitable vehicles for terrain i.e., 4X4 most of the time” (INA6).*

Ruiz and Hummer (2008), as presented in section 2.3.1, argue that the tools officers must have in order to perform their duties in the law enforcement field have evolved over the years. Tools of communication, such as radios and call boxes, tools of investigation, such as cameras and fingerprint kits, and tools of surveillance, such as video and audio pickups, are all available, however, advancements in technology have led to the development of newer and more specific tools that enhance the effectiveness of the old ones and even make new tools possible. These tools have the potential to elevate officers' ability to communicate and share information, improve crime investigation and prevention, and enhance public and officer safety.

Stakeholders in crime prevention include law enforcement agencies, community organisations, policymakers, and technology developers, each bringing unique perspectives and resources to the table. Law enforcement agencies often focus on integrating technological tools to enhance surveillance and data analysis, while community organisations prioritise fostering trust and collaboration among local residents. Policymakers play a crucial role in shaping regulations and guidelines that govern the ethical use of technology, and technology developers innovate solutions that address specific crime prevention needs, ensuring that all voices are considered in creating effective strategies.

*“It is necessary to increase police numbers and manpower. In some cases, even administrative work is difficult because we do not have enough papers. Courts don't take photocopies of all their recordings, sometimes if you lose that thing, it's a problem, sometimes if you lose a file, the court won't take a photocopy. So, staff shortage is a problem. We need more people in the police environment so that we can be able to combat crime” (DBNC5).*

*Manpower, reporting satellite officers or station; protective equipment i.e., Bulletproof, pepper spray, handcuffs or cable ties; vehicles that are equipped and able to handle rough terrains in the farming and rural settlements, i.e., 4X4 club cabs and double cabs, 4X4 quad bikes, motor-cycles and mounted units' 'horses'” (MARG3).*

*It is to get more motor vehicles and have enough investigating aids like installing cameras in the buildings or the vicinities, and also, we need enough manpower, for visibility, to combat crime effectively” (PU3BR).*

Participants emphasised the importance of manpower and vehicles that suit their geographical locations as important tools that are lacking which makes their daily work activities challenging.

*“When it comes to resources, the first thing should be a roadworthy vehicle. A member, I assume, as part of the investigation, must have a state phone if I am doing an investigation so that it can be easy to communicate with the involved parties while s/he is on the road. Thirdly, there is equipment that we need to further our investigation like we need USBs to download footage where there are CCTV cameras and internet access, which we do not have. So, those resources will help me to make my investigation more efficient in dealing with those crimes” (PU4BR).*

When an officer is isolated and unable to communicate, he or she must make decisions based on incomplete information. Radios were a partial solution, but they only allowed officers to communicate with the station and other officers who had their radios on. The officer would need to wait for the results of the vehicle and driver's license checks as they were passed through the station dispatcher. Many things could occur while the officer waited.

Based on Clarke's (1995) concept of reducing crime opportunities and rewards for committing crimes, cameras, alarms, lighting sensors, and unmanned aerial vehicles (UAV, hence-forth drones) are among the technologies that are finding a place in crime prevention in rural areas around the world.

Officers have access to standard communication technologies, including email and cell phones, along with these mobile offices. With e-mail, agencies can communicate and respond quickly, which was previously only possible with faxing. Images of original items with colour and reasonable detail can be attached as attachments to e-mail notes within seconds. It makes it possible to share almost any type of information locally and globally over distances. As investigators are able to use cell phones in the field for voice access, they are able to get and share information at any time, regardless of where they are. E-mail messages can even be received and transmitted by some cell phones, which also feature small cameras for sending pictures.

*“Vehicles because sometimes you cannot attend the theft of motor vehicles case without a vehicle. The hijackers in this area use high performing vehicles that are difficult to chase, and radio communication (police radio)” (PU9BR).*

*“Vehicles and radios for communication that is more important because like, especially vehicles in urban areas each shift needs to have its vehicle because if one vehicle is going to operate 24/7 that is the reason which causes the shortage of vehicles needs to be fixed time and again, so if every shift has its vehicle that will make things much easier “(DBNC4).*

Ruiz and Hummer (2008), as presented in section 2.3.1, consider other factors that should be included in their research on patrol cars armed with laptop computers (Mobile Computer Terminals, MCTs) which connect to databases that allow on-the-spot checks of vehicle registrations and driver identifications. Many states in America have installed onboard systems for patrol cars.

*“We also need the laptops in the patrol van because when we attend to a complaint, it is very important to record the case while the complainant is there. Register the case immediately. We do not have to drive back to the station and bring the docket so that the person can register” (RUP8HBD).*

A scientific analysis conducted by Albrecht and Den Heyer (2021), see section 2.3, demonstrated that to determine if SAPS meets the standards for equitable service delivery and resource allocation among its personnel, the report writers examined service delivery for safety, justice, and security. Among other things, service delivery concerns the amount of time it takes for the police to respond to calls, the level of communication with the public, the extent to which they address the needs of vulnerable groups, and the professionalism of the police. According to the report, the SAPS needs to develop a more sophisticated understanding of crime types and good practices to combat them.

*“We need crime intelligence that is going to be working effectively towards conducting proper analysis and linking in the activities by the communities whether those activities are human activities or human activities with criminality in them, so that we can differentiate which community is doing what and why, so that we can put in the relevant crime combating strategy in time, so that we are effective enough” (RUP3HBD).*

Effective policing involves having adequate information about criminal activity in order to develop strategies to control crime. Developing the information requires the expertise of the police and of the broader criminal justice community to collect and manage data. The data must be targeted for use by a particular police force, according to its capabilities and the types of crimes occurring in its jurisdiction. Police should devise a variety of different strategies appropriate to local conditions to gather knowledge and develop responses. One key component to developing and analysing information is the promotion of ties between the police and scholars. Criminologists and other social science professionals often have the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary to devise, implement, and improve information-gathering and strategising programmes.

Observations conducted by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2021) indicate that research on the use of new and evolving technologies in small, rural, and tribal communities is limited. This lack of research is creating a gap in understanding the potential benefits and risks of these technologies in rural areas. Further, rural areas are often excluded from the implementation of these technologies due to a lack of resources. This lack of access to these technologies can have a detrimental effect on rural communities. It has been shown that small, rural, and tribal agencies can proactively deal with crime in their jurisdictions with the help of crime analysis and software, MDT, laptops, mobile digital devices, and smart phones.

*“We need updated resources like we need better radio communication because our area has mountains and uneven terrains. We do not have proper communication, either with a cell phone or the radio” (RUP2HBD).*

The use of technology can also contribute to improving community-police engagement in ways other than data analysis; for instance, body-worn cameras can give police more legitimacy and reduce community complaints in small, rural, and tribal jurisdictions. Research done by the International Association of Chiefs of Police (2021) shows that small, rural, and tribal agencies use social media to communicate and gather intelligence. Using social media to connect with the community can help overcome some of the challenges rural police may face when their communities are dispersed across large areas, as well as boost community trust and legitimacy, resulting in a better reputation for the department (see section 2.3.1).

In police stations in rural areas, structures like CPFs and Rural Safety Teams are a combination of the community and SAPS. In some police stations, this is lacking due to a shortage of manpower because there cannot be multiple teams whilst there are no resources. So, in such areas, the community needs to be educated about crime before SAPS can even start to arrest them. The working partnership between CPF and SAPS reduces crime because the community communicates easily with the police, they alert SAPS if crimes take place within their areas in a similar way to the Rural Safety Teams. In urban areas, the CPF is there and active as well as neighbourhood watches and the partnership between SAPS and security companies. This is because private securities also assist in combating most of the crimes that are happening within urban areas. Hence, SAPS is short of resources, manpower in particular.

#### **4.5.3 Assess the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.**

The South African Police Service encounters difficulties in consistently maintaining low crime levels. This can be attributed to a series of challenges, with one of the primary issues being the inadequacy of resources. In order to gain a comprehensive understanding of the challenges encountered by SAPS in rural and urban areas, the researcher posed a specific question during their study. The question was, “*what are the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating crimes due to lack of resources?*” This question was designed to establish whether the difficulties experienced by SAPS personnel are consistent across different geographical areas. It was important to avoid employing a blanket approach and instead focus on developing a resource-based model to address the unique challenges faced by SAPS in their respective police precincts.

The participants showed that the majority of the challenges that they have are a result of lack of resources, without which it has been difficult for them to operate.

*“The challenge that we are facing is the shortage of manpower and also the shortage of motor vehicles because our area is separated into about five sectors. Sometimes we manage to, with the manpower and the vehicles that we have, be in one sector, maybe in two hours, which we are mostly required to be in one sector every hour or 30 minutes. There must be manpower including vehicles in the area” (PU3BR).*

Arias (2016) states that these challenges are particularly acute in low- and middle-income countries, where urbanisation is often happening at a faster pace than local governments can keep up with. However, even in wealthier countries, urban policing requires specialised knowledge and skills to navigate the complex social and physical environments of cities.

*“The challenges are that reported cases are not attended to in time due to a lack of manpower. In rural areas roads are very bad and state vehicles are easily damaged due to bad road terrain, there is not even a car in the police station, and all cars are broken, those are the main challenges” (RUP1HBD).*

Recent research conducted by Rantatalo, Lindberg, and Hällgren (2021) found that there has been an increasing interest in the challenges and strategies associated with policing in rural communities. Studies have shown that rural contexts are heterogeneous, and police forces need to be receptive to variations in local conditions. As an example, rural contexts are characterised by crime rates and victim and offender numbers that vary with poverty, unemployment, and seasonality (see section 2.3.2).

*“Starting with the example of the attendance to the complaints, the statistics need to be monitored closely so that one knows that the ratio of the community at hand versus the police officers at hand matches because like in this police station it looks like because I do not have something at hand that indicates how much community do we have and things, but it looks like the community is far more than the police because we will have more complaints ahead than the police, the number of police members. We need some teams that will quickly respond to serious issues only, we have been having serious cases where the shootings have been taking place now and again” (RUP3HBD).*

More details were provided by Rantatalo, Lindberg, and Hällgren (2021), see section 2.2.3, when they indicated that different criminogenic patterns are associated with geographical factors, such as isolation or remoteness, or proximity to metropolitan areas, requiring varying responses and crime prevention strategies. Police in rural contexts need to be aware of local conditions and knowledgeable about them, as well as incorporate this knowledge into their dealings with local communities, as reflected by research on policing.

Therefore, the local police in rural communities face the challenge of being both ‘in’ and ‘out of’ the communities they serve. In rural policing, there are also challenges related to resource

scarcity, deskilling of the police, isolation, and role pressure. Police officers in rural areas also face the challenge of dealing with limited resources. They often have to make difficult decisions on how to allocate limited resources and personnel. Further, rural police officers often lack the resources necessary to investigate and prosecute criminal activities.

*“The challenge that we are facing in terms of the rapes and the gender-based cases, if you look at the unit that is called the unit that is mandated to investigate these cases, one of the biggest challenges is that they do not have enough members to deal with such cases. Another challenge, these units are based in districts, not in the station and they cover, for example, we are in Ugu, this unit covers 16 stations. So, it is practically impossible for five members to cover rape related cases at these 16 stations. Those are the challenges that we are facing” (RUP5HBD).*

The sentiments for this participant are supported by Albrecht and Den Heyer (2021), as presented in section 2.3, who state that specialised services for vulnerable groups, such as victims of sexual offences and domestic violence, also need to be addressed, which has been done in the form of the establishment of crisis or victim-friendly centres in collaboration with community volunteers.

*“The workload would be the main one where we are faced with different tasks that we need to perform, and as a result, people are getting frustrated, so to speak. Some prefer to frequently book sick and as a result, put more strain on the very same straining environment whereby there is a lack of police officers, and then it creates more problems, either personally or otherwise” (RUP5HBD).*

This point is argued strongly by UNODC (2023), as presented in section 2.3.1, when they stress that the police need to work cooperatively with other local agencies to develop a large enough police presence or capacity to meet the demands, and to coordinate the mobility of crowds or high-level individuals.

*“Insufficient members, very few members. They need to recruit more members” (DBNC1).*

Recent research conducted by UNODC and ICPC (2023), as presented in section 2.3.3, found that urban areas in most countries around the world present some challenges for policing. For example, high population density can bring about several situations such as mass demonstrations or protests that can stimulate violence and chaos in public areas. These situations can pose

serious problems for the police, where crowds can grow beyond the number of available police officers and become unmanageable and unpredictable.

Participants emphasised that the current number of police officers is insufficient to address the workload and demands of their duties effectively. They highlighted the need for increased manpower to bridge the significant gap in maintaining public safety and ensuring efficient law enforcement.

*“The challenge for police officers is working extra hours without pay, leading to stress and potentially impacting their performance. This can make them vulnerable to bribery and increase crime rates, as well as lead to various social and health issues” (DBNC1).*

Urban inequality is another challenge for the police, where the diversity of wealth in cities can test police officers’ alliance to their codes of conduct and principles. In this sense, the police must perform its function in a non-discriminatory manner with integrity and respect for human rights regardless of the socio-economic characteristics of a neighbourhood and its residents. This may be affected by the reality that poverty and inequalities can contribute to the risk factors for engagement in criminal activities. This can lead to the creation of stereotypes about certain populations and areas in a city and influence the type of policing conducted.

Findings by Arias (2016) and later by UNODC (2023), as presented in section 2.3.2, demonstrate that police officers face a variety of unique challenges when working in urban areas. Among others, the following are highlighted: irregular and complex street patterns that can make it difficult to navigate and respond to emergencies; rapid urban expansion that creates unmapped areas and unstable buildings; poor infrastructure, including narrow streets and closely spaced buildings, that can limit tactical appraisals and policy implementation; lack of consistent and regular urban transportation, which can interfere with police response times and create opportunities for criminal activity; and high levels of poverty and inequality, which can contribute to crime and undermine crime reduction efforts.

#### **4.5.4 Identify facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.**

The South African Police Service has introduced a variety of initiatives in an effort to enhance service delivery. The Service Delivery Improvement Programme, which was launched in 1997, was one of the efforts to implement a more professional and user-friendly service. The allocation of human resources for policing plays a crucial role in safeguarding constitutional rights such as the right to personal safety and security, human dignity, life, equality before the law, and freedom from unfair discrimination. Unequal distribution of police resources across different areas can adversely impact the realisation of these rights. To some extent, the enhancement of safety and security within the nation and the province relies heavily on the adequate allocation of policing resources to every police precinct.

This objective was achieved without any specific questions being directed to the participants, but chapter two of the study provided comprehensive information on how SAPS resources are allocated or distributed. This helped in developing the research for the present study, which discusses in this section how the facilitation of resources has an effect on the daily activities of SAPS to curb crimes within the areas where this research was focused, in either a positive or negative manner.

A research study on the Analysis of Resource Allocation in The South African Police Service, see section 2.3.3, found that there are many reasons for inefficiency, but the SAPS remain challenged by balancing resources with high levels of crime, service delivery needs, and increasing expectations from the community. Various studies point directly to the poor allocation of resources. Both urban and rural police services have been transformed since 1994 with a series of strategic and managerial reforms aimed at improving the core police service and operational transparency. As part of these reforms, a variety of innovative policing programmes were introduced to make the police more proactive, such as community-oriented, sector-oriented, and intelligence-driven policing.

Even though there was no specific question that was constructed to get the views of the participants pertaining to this objective, some participants emphasised the need for proper human resources within SAPS institution.

*“It is typical with any agency; any company poor performance will be noted. Sufficient resources are not available, and there are lots of resources that should be made available to the police so that working or successes can be noted in order for any department to be successful, you need to provide the correct tools, human resources as well as other resources should be adequately available” (PU6BR).*

The allocation of the budget during the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework dictates the number of actual/granted resources (especially human resources) to be allocated at each level in the police. However, as has been argued, this method treats crime offences as static and it does not allow room for refinement in cases of fluctuations.

Human resource establishment consists of staff appointed under the SAPS Act and staff appointed under the Public Service Act. More clarity on the subject is expressed by Den Heyer (2014) who notes that the use and allocation of resources forms part of an organisation's strategic direction and was first defined by Hamel and Prahalad (1998) as "allocating resources across businesses and geographies is an important part of a company's strategic direction" (see section 2.3.3).

The allocation of resources keeps projects on track by maximising efficiency, fostering collaboration, increasing profit margins, and improving client satisfaction. The application allows you to assign the right people to each job, helping your agency to maintain efficiency, foster collaboration, and maximise profits while maintaining efficiency, fostering collaboration, and achieving profits. In SAPS, there is a legislative framework that governs the allocation of police resources to specific police precincts. In SAPS, resource allocations are governed by a legislative framework that improves safety levels and decreases crime.

It has been shown that allocation of police resources to certain police precincts can increase safety and decrease certain crime categories. Safe and secure agencies understand the importance of distributing police resources fairly. As a result, SAPS realised that uniform standards needed to be established for distributing police resources to all police stations. As a result of the amalgamation of different police forces into a single service, there was an urgent need for resources to be assigned in an organised way that considered a number of things that affect the way that police officers conduct their duties (see section 2.3.4.1.1).

Police service distribution throughout the nation has long been a problem. There are many possible explanations for the inefficiencies. However, the SAPS still faces difficulties in balancing its resources with high crime rates, the demands of providing services, rising community expectations, and financial restraints.

Research conducted by Dempsey *et al.* (2019) shows that the allocation of police vehicles is an important part of the police budget, so determining how to accomplish this best is an important decision. The use and maintenance of motor vehicles are a major part of most police department's operations, regardless of the plan chosen.

#### **4.5.5 To develop a conceptual and theoretical framework to best combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal.**

The study reflects the theoretical and conceptual implications of Social Structure and Social Learning Theories, which guided the research process. This contributes significantly to the body of knowledge. In the study, five components were used to address selected crimes in KwaZulu-Natal Province, giving a comprehensive understanding of rural and urban crimes in this region in terms of their relationship, patterns, nature, and extent.

Criminologists have been working hard to understand the underlying causes of poverty and income inequality in order to develop effective strategies to combat crime. Siegel (2016), as presented in 2.5.1, posits that crime data from different sources indicates that crime rates are highest in neighbourhoods characterised by poverty and social disorder. There are several potential reasons why poverty is associated with higher crime rates. One reason is that individuals living in poverty may be more likely to engage in criminal behaviour as a means of survival or as a result of limited opportunities for legitimate income. Further, the lack of access to quality education, healthcare, and other resources in impoverished neighbourhoods can contribute to a cycle of poverty and crime. Nonetheless, crime is sometimes committed by members of the middle and upper classes, but most of these crimes are nonviolent, such as embezzlement and fraud, which pose little danger to the general population.

On the other hand, lower-class crime is often violent, destructive, and primarily the product of youth gangs, marginalised young adults, and unemployed young adults. As a result of this phenomenon, criminologists have developed social structure theories, which, as a group, suggest

that the main determinants of criminal behaviour patterns are economic and social forces operating in disorganised lower-class areas. People are affected by social forces while still relatively young and continue to be affected throughout their lives. Youthful offenders are not necessarily criminal adults, but those exposed to the incivility of deteriorated inner-city neighbourhoods are more likely to become criminals as adults.

It is important to note that social and demographic structures contribute to crime causes. SAPS needs to play a fundamental role in such areas in collaboration with other NGOs or government institutions so that they create as many initiatives as possible that make society or the community safer and create a strong bond with the community so that SAPS can be easily trusted. To further that effort, SAPS should also focus on building relationships with citizens through community outreach and engagement activities.

#### **4.6. EMERGING STUDY THEMES FROM THE STUDY OBJECTIVES**

There are three major areas of research focus: the objectives of the study, the key research questions, and the key findings that emerged from the interviews. In this section, the researcher discusses the central themes that emerged from the interviews in line with the study's objectives. The purpose of this study was to find out if the objectives in this study had been achieved based on the information given by the participants during the collection of data for the study. A link was made from the participants to the objectives of the study through the information they provided.

##### **4.6.1 Identified study themes from objective 1**

Notably, most crimes that are taking place in both rural and urban areas are contact crimes. Contact crimes are more common in both rural and urban areas due to various factors. In rural areas, limited access to law enforcement and a sense of isolation can make individuals more vulnerable to becoming victims of contact crimes. In urban areas, densely populated neighbourhoods and socioeconomic disparities can contribute to higher levels of interpersonal conflict and increased likelihood of contact crimes.

Understanding crime occurrence characteristics in rural and urban populations is crucial for effective law enforcement strategies. It helps identify the unique challenges and vulnerabilities of each setting, allowing law enforcement agencies, like SAPS, to tailor their approaches ac-

cordingly. By comparing these characteristics, the researcher can determine whether the strategies employed by SAPS are suitable and effective in addressing crime in both rural and urban areas.

#### **4.6.1.1 Robbery as the nature of crime**

Robbery is one of the most prevalent crimes in both rural and urban areas. There are several reasons that one can consider for what makes this type of offence problematic. The impact of robbery on individuals and communities is significant. Not only do victims suffer from the loss of personal belongings and potential physical harm, but they also experience emotional trauma and a sense of violation. Moreover, communities affected by high rates of robbery often experience decreased trust, fear, and a decline in overall safety, which can have long-lasting effects on the well-being of their residents. Robbery is a serious crime that can lead to physical harm or even death, as well as financial loss and disruption of the community. It is often committed by groups of people, making it more difficult for authorities to detect and apprehend the perpetrators. Furthermore, it can be a repeated offence, making it more difficult for victims to recover.

Implementing effective security measures such as installing surveillance cameras, improving lighting in public areas, and increasing police presence can help deter potential robbers. Promoting community awareness and cooperation through neighbourhood watch programmes can contribute to a safer environment and reduce the occurrence of robberies. Surveillance cameras play a crucial role in deterring robbers by acting as a visual deterrent. The presence of cameras increases the risk of identification and capture, making potential robbers think twice before committing a crime. Also, surveillance footage can provide valuable evidence for investigation and prosecution, further discouraging criminals from targeting certain areas. Educating the public on crime prevention strategies and creating a sense of public safety can also help to reduce incidents of robbery. Finally, providing support services to victims of robbery can help them cope with the trauma they have experienced.

#### **4.6.1.2 Theft of motor vehicles**

Vehicle theft and hijacking were highlighted as one crime that is increasing, especially in urban areas. This is likely because modern vehicles are becoming more and more technologically advanced, making them more vulnerable to hijacking and theft, as well as the fact that urban areas tend to have higher populations and more opportunities for criminals to target. This poses

a significant threat to public safety and can lead to other crimes like robbery and assault. To combat this, authorities are implementing measures such as improved security on public transport and the installation of GPS tracking devices on vehicles.

#### **4.6.2 Identified study themes from objective 2**

It has been noted that themes identified in both objective two and objective three are the most required or needed resources in enabling SAPS to function properly. These themes, identified as essential resources for SAPS functionality, play a crucial role in supporting the system's operations. In addressing objective two, these themes ensure that SAPS has the necessary tools and technologies to carry out its functions effectively. In addition, by fulfilling objective three, these themes provide the required human resources and expertise to ensure the smooth and efficient operation of SAPS.

##### **4.6.2.1 Strengthening manpower at SAPS ground level**

The majority of participants in this study indicated the need for increased SAPS manpower. Participants revealed that there is a huge gap between the number of police officers and the workload that officers on duty face. The consequences of a shortage of police officers can be detrimental to public safety. With fewer officers available to respond to emergencies and patrol neighbourhoods, response times may increase, leaving citizens vulnerable to crime. The workload on existing officers may become overwhelming, leading to exhaustion and potential burn-out, which can further impact their effectiveness in serving and protecting the community.

##### **4.6.2.2 Shortage of vehicles**

The SAPS lacks vehicles, which makes it difficult for them to respond efficiently to complaints that require them to travel. Of the limited vehicles available, some are not in good condition. The limited number and poor condition of vehicles within the SAPS significantly hamper their ability to respond promptly to complaints that require travel. This not only delays the resolution of incidents but also undermines public trust in the effectiveness of law enforcement. For example, responding to reports of armed robberies or violent crimes often requires the police to travel quickly to the scene of the incident. Equally, investigating cases of missing persons or conducting surveillance operations also necessitate the use of vehicles. However, without an adequate fleet of vehicles in good condition, the SAPS is hindered in their ability to respond effectively to these types of complaints.

### **4.6.3 Identified study themes from objective 3**

#### **4.6.3.1 Poor road infrastructure**

The infrastructure such as roads, especially in rural areas, is bad, which makes it difficult for some communities to be accessible for SAPS. There are routes where only 4x4 vehicles can travel. In particular, regarding resource allocation, the demographic location of police precincts is not considered. Considering the demographic location in resource allocation for police precincts is crucial for ensuring equal access to law enforcement services. By taking into account the specific needs and challenges of different communities, such as the condition of infrastructure and the accessibility of certain areas, the police can better allocate their resources to provide effective and timely assistance to all citizens, regardless of their geographical location.

#### **4.6.3.2 Prompt response to the cases reported**

The prompt response to the cases reported is important in resolving them quickly. When cases are responded to promptly, it shows the affected parties that their concerns are being taken seriously. It also shows that action is being taken to address the issue. This not only helps to instil confidence in the resolution process but also ensures that any potential damage or harm is minimised as much as possible. This has been problematic for SAPS in responding timeously to some of the cases reported. There are various factors that SAPS identified as contributing to its inability to respond promptly. Some of the identified factors include limited resources and manpower, bureaucratic processes that slow down decision-making, and a lack of technological infrastructure to gather and analyse data effectively. These challenges have hindered SAPS from improving their response time and addressing cases in a timely manner.

These themes, identified in objectives one and two, align with SAPS's goals and objectives by addressing the key resources needed to ensure proper functioning. In identifying and prioritising these themes, SAPS can allocate resources effectively, enhance operational efficiency, and ultimately achieve its objectives with greater success.

### **4.7. SUMMARY**

The discussion centred on the significant findings of the study to evaluate thoroughly the extent to which the research addressed its problem statement. The comprehensive examination of the study's objectives and research methodology was important in facilitating participants to provide in-depth and detailed data that enriched the study. It was observed that the findings per-

taining to the study's methodology carry significant weight for both the researcher and the participants, as the responses provide insight into the participants' deep understanding of their environment. It is important to note that the study probed into the experiences of key stakeholders involved in policing rural and urban crimes across selected areas of KZN, enlightening a complex and multifaceted landscape of law enforcement in the selected areas.

As part of the conclusion and recommendations in chapter (five), following, the study is summarised by providing an overview of the findings and recommendations based on the data that was collected.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1. INTRODUCTION**

This is the final chapter of this study. It serves as the concluding summary of the research conducted. The chapter presents the overall study summary in which the researcher highlights what the study focused on. The chapter also provides the conclusion section which summarises what each preceding chapter focused on. Further, recommendations emanating from this study's findings and discussion are given. Furthermore, the developed conceptual framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN province is shared in this chapter with some beneficial information for SAPS and other relevant stakeholders.

The specific findings and discussions mentioned in the previous chapter highlight the key insights gained from the research. These include identifying the main causes of rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN province, analysing the effectiveness of existing crime prevention strategies, and proposing innovative approaches to combating crime. The conclusions also emphasise the importance of collaboration between SAPS and other stakeholders in implementing the developed conceptual framework for a safer community.

#### **5.2. OVERALL STUDY SUMMARY**

The study looked at a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN. The study aimed to explore the possibility of developing a resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KZN Province, looking at the SAPS initiatives. To achieve this, the five objectives of this study were considered. The researcher consulted primary, secondary, and tertiary sources of information to achieve the core aim of this study. The five objectives of this study included, evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KZN; establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KZN; address the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KZN; identify facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN; and develop a conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes best in the selected areas of KZN.

The study also highlighted the need for a collaborative effort among stakeholders to combat organised crime effectively. The police and other law enforcement agencies should work closely with communities, businesses, and other organisations to develop a comprehensive approach to crime reduction. Such an approach would involve community policing initiatives, targeted interventions, and proactive measures to prevent crime before it occurs.

The data gathered directly from the fieldwork became a key source of information relevant to the study. To ensure the accuracy of the data gathered from the fieldwork, rigorous methodologies were employed. This included using standardised data collection tools, implementing quality control measures, and cross-checking the collected data with multiple sources to minimise errors and biases.

In the preceding chapters, the researcher presented the resource-based approach to combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal in different ways. Following is the structure and content of each chapter.

An introduction to the thesis can be found in chapter one: This chapter provides a brief overview of the thesis, the research background, the rationale for the study, the objectives of the study, the research questions, and the methodology used to carry out the research. The research background provides essential context for understanding the current state of knowledge in the field and identifies the gaps in knowledge that this study aimed to fill. It sets the foundation for the research by outlining previous studies and their findings, thus establishing the relevance and necessity of the current investigation and setting a solid foundation for the research. Also, by understanding the background, one can better understand how the study contributes to the ongoing discussion and how it may have an impact on the field as well as the ongoing academic conversation.

A literature review and theoretical framework are included in chapter two. The chapter reviews the literature relevant to this research, as well as what has already been done on the problem and each objective outlined in chapter one. It is the purpose of this section of the research to present the theoretical framework that was appropriate to address and explain the research questions and objectives. The theories that were applied all have a direct connection to the research question and objectives.

A third chapter is dedicated to the research design and methodology used to address the research problem of the study. In this chapter, the methodology and design chosen to answer the research problem are presented. An overview of the research questions and the questions linked to the objectives is explained in chapter four through the presentation of tables and their interpretations.

The study found that crime patterns in rural and urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal are broadly similar in seriousness but differ in form and context, requiring location specific policing responses. Both settings experience high levels of violent and property crimes such as murder, rape, robbery, assault, housebreaking, theft, and drug related offences, with urban areas more affected by vehicle related crimes, business robberies, and opportunistic theft, while rural areas face organised crimes like livestock theft, plant theft, domestic violence and contact crimes linked to isolation and limited infrastructure. Across both contexts, SAPS faces major challenges due to shortages of manpower, suitable vehicles, communication tools, investigative equipment, and modern technologies, which delay response times, increase workloads, and limit effective crime prevention and investigation. Participants consistently emphasised that inadequate resources, poor terrain appropriate transport, insufficient specialised units, and weak technological capacity undermine policing effectiveness, particularly in rural areas. The findings highlight that equitable, needs based resource allocation supported by technology, crime intelligence and strong community partnerships is essential for improving service delivery, reducing crime and ensuring effective policing in both rural and urban precincts.

These are linked to the argument regarding the issue at hand. this final chapter, chapter five, provides a conclusion regarding the research questions. Chapter five consists of a summary, conclusion, and recommendations. This chapter provides important background information and new study findings, as well as new knowledge in the field which will serve to spur further research in the area and serve as a guide for decision makers at various levels of government.

### 5.3. CONCLUSION

The study had five chapters. Chapter one gave the general orientation of the research. Chapter two was the literature review and theoretical framework. The literature review examined how new studies are built on previous ideas, helping the researcher identify unexplored areas and understand how knowledge grows. In this research, the literature review provided an overview of existing publications on policing rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN. The researcher analysed this information and reviewed the work of other researchers to place the current research project within a conceptual and theoretical context. The sources of information included academic books, journal articles, legislation, policy documents, and internet sources. The information obtained from the literature review was integrated into data from interviews and compared with data gathered by other researchers. The police in South Africa have shifted their focus to community policing, with the community more involved in police matters and a strong relationship developing between the two sectors of society. A new paradigm of policing emphasises that the police must engage in community-based processes related to the production and maintenance of local, human, and social capital. Four themes were identified: building a strong relationship with the community, combating community problems on a broader front, changes in the way police view their work and methods, and changes in internal working relationships.

The research design and methodology were given in chapter three. This chapter provided a detailed discussion of the research design that was used to answer the research objectives and questions. To gain a deeper understanding of all stakeholders involved in the police department field, an exploratory research design was used. This approach enabled the research team to gather comprehensive data and identify salient issues that need further exploration in future studies. The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach in this study. This allowed them to uncover the subjective experiences, opinions, and perspectives of participants. Through this method, the researcher was able to gain rich insights into the factors that influence the field of policing. As a result, the findings of this study provide a more nuanced understanding of the issues surrounding this field.

Chapter four presented the data, interpretations, and discussions. The study's significant findings were discussed, aiming to see what it achieved from its problem statement. The findings related to the objectives of this study and the research were addressed in a manner that gave

the participants more opportunities to give rich data. The findings related to the study methodology are important to both the researcher and the participants because participants knew their environment and provided accounts of relevant stakeholders' experiences of the initiatives of policing rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN. Important themes emerged from these accounts. As part of the conclusion and recommendations chapter (five), the study is summarised by providing an overview of the findings and recommendations based on the data that was collected.

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the resources that the state has at its disposal, as well as the engagement of the community, can be effectively used to combat crime in KwaZulu-Natal through the effective allocation of these resources. A collaborative effort between stakeholders is needed; however, if a comprehensive approach to the reduction of crime is going to be developed for the creation of a safer community for all.

#### **5.4. STUDY 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 SAPS and other relevant stakeholders should seriously consider the recommendations made. This is key in ensuring that SAPS's five-point resource-based implementation impacts crime levels positively and strengthens the functioning of SAPS at a ground level.

##### **5.4.1 Recommendations to improve the study aim and related study themes**

Partnership working can become an effective and efficient problem-solving approach. Despite its challenges, it has proven to be a successful strategy in many instances. This is particularly true in situations where multiple agencies need to work together to achieve a common goal. Collaboration in problem-solving allows for the pooling of resources, expertise, and perspectives from different agencies, leading to a more comprehensive and innovative approach. It also promotes better communication and coordination, reducing duplication of efforts and maximising efficiency. Also, partnership working fosters a sense of shared responsibility and ownership, increasing the likelihood of sustainable solutions and long-term success.

## **5.4.2 Recommendations to enhance study objectives and identified study themes**

### **5.4.2.1 Evaluate the nature of crimes within rural and urban selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal**

To improve law enforcement in rural areas, it is important to allocate adequate resources and funding to rural police departments. Implementing community policing programmes that foster strong relationships between law enforcement and community members can help to prevent and address rural crimes effectively. Lastly, providing specialised training and support for rural law enforcement officers can enhance their skills and capabilities in handling rural crime challenges.

To mitigate the risk of crime and theft, it is recommended that individuals and organisations invest in comprehensive security measures, such as surveillance systems, alarm systems, and access control systems. Moreover, establishing community watch programmes and fostering strong relationships between law enforcement agencies and the community can help deter criminal activities and promote a safer environment for everyone.

### **5.4.2.2 Establish the needed resources in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal**

In order to address the resource needs of both rural and urban police stations in the selected areas of KZN, a comprehensive plan should be implemented. This plan could involve allocating additional funding to hire more police officers, improving infrastructure and equipment, and providing specialised training programmes to enhance the capabilities of the police force in these areas.

To address the need for increased SAPS manpower, several strategies could be considered. One option is to recruit and train more police officers to fill the gap. This should take place quarterly. Another approach could be to implement community policing programmes which involve collaborating with local communities to enhance safety and reduce the burden on individual officers. Furthermore, investing in advanced technologies and systems could help streamline processes and optimise resource allocation within the SAPS.

To improve the availability of vehicles for SAPS, one solution could be to allocate a portion of the budget specifically to purchasing and maintaining new vehicles. Partnering with private

companies or organisations to provide vehicles temporarily could help bridge the gap until more permanent solutions can be implemented.

#### **5.4.2.3 Assess the challenges faced by the rural and urban police officials in combating rural and urban crimes due to lack of resources in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal**

To address the issue of limited accessibility in rural areas where only 4x4 vehicles can travel, one strategy could be to invest in improving road infrastructure by repairing and upgrading existing roads. Additionally, implementing community-based transportation programmes or establishing partnerships with local organisations and businesses that have access to 4x4 vehicles could help ensure that the police can reach these communities when needed.

To improve resource allocation in KZN, one solution could be to prioritise funding for law enforcement agencies in both rural and urban areas based on the specific needs and crime rates of each region. This would ensure that resources are distributed more equitably and efficiently, allowing police officials to combat crime better in all areas. Additionally, implementing community policing programmes and partnerships with local organisations could help bridge the gap between police and residents, leading to more effective crime prevention and investigation efforts.

Assessing the value of resources within the SAPS involves considering various factors, including financial allocations, human resources, and the effectiveness of their deployment. The following is a breakdown of key resource aspects:

##### **Financial Resources:**

- The SAPS receives significant budgetary allocations. Evaluating the value of these resources requires examining how effectively these funds are used. This includes analysing spending on:
  - Personnel salaries and benefits,
  - Equipment and technology (vehicles, communication systems, forensic tools),
  - Infrastructure (police stations, facilities), and
  - Training and development programs.
- It is also important to assess whether funds are being used efficiently and to identify and address any instances of wasteful expenditure or corruption.

### **Human Resources:**

- The SAPS's personnel are its most valuable asset. Assessing their value involves:
  - Evaluating the adequacy of staffing levels in different areas,
  - Assessing the quality of training and the skills of police officers,
  - Examining the morale and well-being of personnel,
  - Analysing the diversity and representativeness of the workforce, and
  - Assessing the distribution of personnel across the country, and if those distributions are fair and effective.

### **Physical Resources:**

- Vehicles: Their availability, maintenance, and suitability for different policing tasks.
- Technology: The effectiveness of communication systems, computer networks, and forensic equipment.
- Facilities: The condition and suitability of police stations and other infrastructure.

### **Community Relations**

- The relationship between the SAPS and the communities they serve is a critical resource. Positive community relations can significantly enhance policing effectiveness.
- Assessing this resource involves:
  - Evaluating the level of public trust in the police,
  - Analysing the effectiveness of community policing initiatives, and
  - Measuring the extent of community participation in crime prevention.

### **Challenges and Considerations:**

- Resource Allocation:
  - A significant challenge is ensuring that resources are allocated fairly and effectively across different regions and communities.
  - Reports have highlighted disparities in resource allocation, with some areas, particularly those with high crime rates, being under-resourced.
- Corruption:
  - Corruption within the SAPS can undermine the value of resources and erode public trust.
- Effectiveness:

- Ultimately, the value of SAPS's resources is determined by their impact on crime reduction and public safety.
- Measuring this impact can be complex, but it requires analysing crime statistics, public safety perceptions, and the effectiveness of policing strategies.

Thus, assessing the value of SAPS's resources requires a comprehensive analysis of financial, human, and physical resources, as well as the effectiveness of their deployment and the quality of community relations.

#### **5.4.2.4 Identify facilitations of police official-based resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal**

One strategy for resource allocation in high-crime areas is to implement data-driven policing. By analysing crime data and identifying hotspots, police departments can strategically deploy their resources to areas with the highest crime rates. Further, increasing community engagement and collaboration with local organisations can help address the root causes of crime and reduce the demand for police services in these areas. A resource-based model to combat crime in KwaZulu-Natal, focusing on practical solutions and resource allocation, is as follows:

In rural areas:

- **Rural Safety Strategy:** Implement a comprehensive strategy focusing on community policing, intelligence-led operations, and visible policing.
- **Community-Based Structures:** Establish and support community safety forums, neighbourhood watches, and traditional leadership involvement.
- **Technology:** Equip rural communities with communication tools, surveillance systems, and early warning systems.
- **Resource Mobilisation:** Pull private sector partnerships and community fund-raising for additional resources.
- **Capacity Building:** Train community members in self-defence, conflict resolution, and basic first aid.

In urban areas:

- **Focused Policing:** Deploy resources to identified hotspots and high-crime areas.
- **Community Policing:** Strengthen community policing forums and encourage active participation.

- Social Development Programmes: Invest in youth development, job creation, and poverty alleviation programmes.
- Urban Planning: Implement CPTED principles in urban planning.
- Technology: Utilise technology such as CCTV surveillance, facial recognition, and gunshot detection systems.
- Addressing Root Causes: Invest in social and economic development initiatives to address the underlying causes of crime.

## **5.5. THE DEVELOPED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK TO COMBAT RURAL AND URBAN CRIMES IN THE SELECTED AREAS OF KWAZULU-NATAL PROVINCE**

The conceptual framework proposed to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province includes several key elements. These elements include community engagement and empowerment, strengthening law enforcement and security measures, improving access to justice and support services, promoting socio-economic development, and implementing effective crime prevention strategies tailored to the specific needs of the communities.

The conceptual framework was developed through an extensive literature review, data analysis, and consultation with experts in the field of criminology. The researcher also conducted interviews with participants in the selected areas of KZN Province to gather first hand insights and perspectives on the challenges and potential solutions for combating rural and urban crimes.

### **5.5.1 A five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

In this study, the researcher provided a comprehensive overview of the five-point resources. This detailed presentation aims to demonstrate clearly how these resources contribute to the development of new knowledge within the field. The five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework provides a comprehensive approach to addressing rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province. In utilising available resources effectively and implementing strategies based on solid conceptual and theoretical foundations, this framework aims to improve crime prevention, law enforcement, community engagement, and rehabilitation initiatives. Ultimately, it seeks to create safer and more secure environments for both rural and urban communities.

### **5.5.2 Discussion of a five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes**

The resource-based framework for combating rural and urban crimes includes five key points: responding to the nature of rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province; resources to enhance initiatives of the local SAPS in combating rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN Province; identifying the challenges faced by rural and urban police officials in combating crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province; using a specific theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province; enhancing strategies for facilitating resources to combat rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN Province.

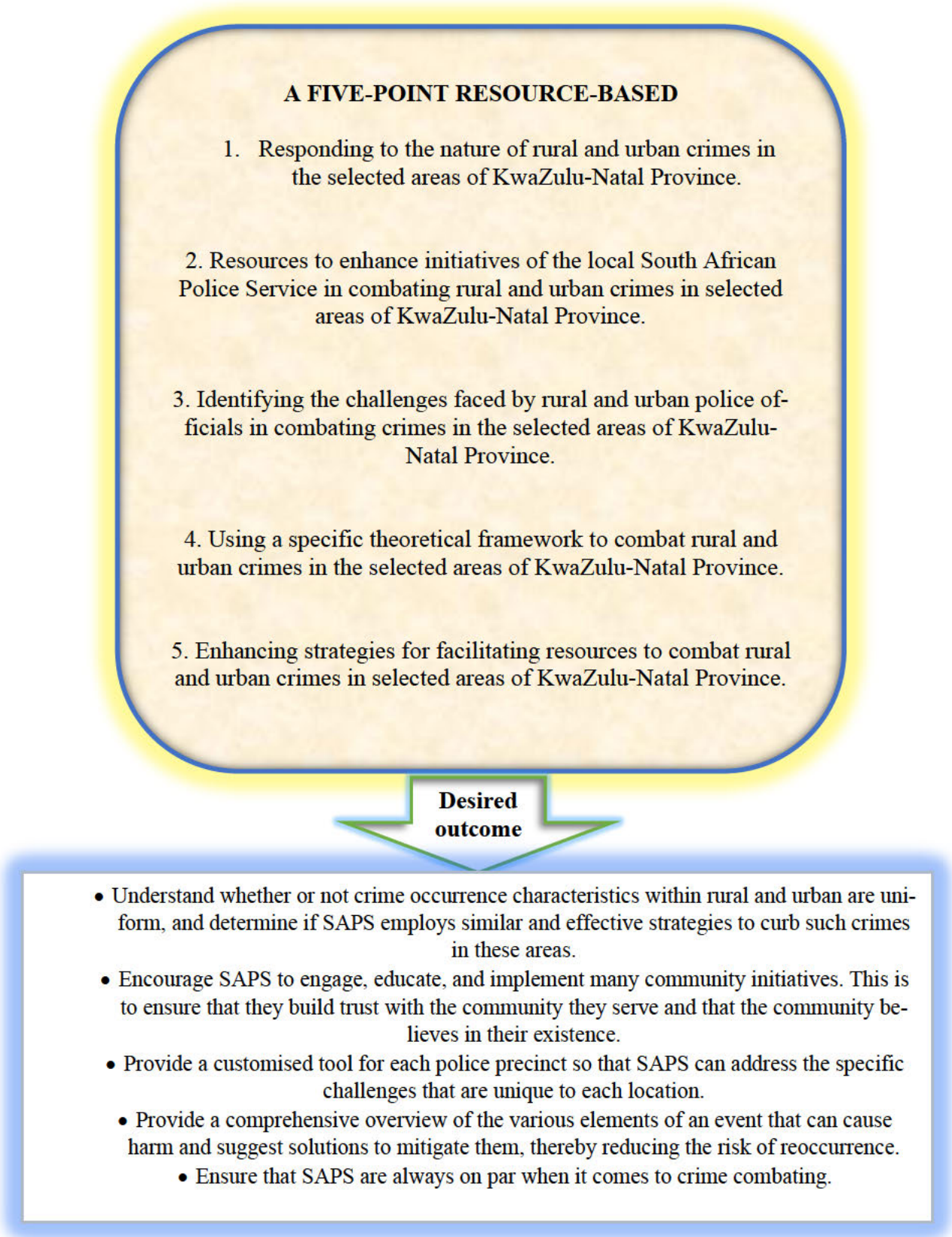
In rural communities, the five-point resource-based framework can be applied by focusing on enhancing community policing efforts through the establishment of local neighbourhood watch programmes, increasing the presence of law enforcement agencies in the area, improving access to educational and vocational resources for at-risk individuals, implementing targeted prevention strategies tailored to the unique challenges faced by rural communities, and fostering collaboration between law enforcement agencies, community organisations, and residents to address crime collectively.

This framework provides a comprehensive and resource-based approach to combating crime, recognising the multifaceted nature of the issue and the importance of addressing both the root causes and opportunities for crime. Crime issues are complex and involve various social, economic, and psychological factors. These can include poverty, lack of education, unemployment, and social inequality, which all contribute to the environment in which crime can flourish. Addressing crime effectively requires a holistic approach that considers these diverse factors and seeks to implement solutions at multiple levels.

The success of this framework can be measured by examining changes in socioeconomic conditions in affected communities as well as reducing crime rates. It is possible to provide insight into perceived safety and quality of life improvements through surveys and community feedback. Further, assessing how effectively educational and employment programmes can be implemented in accordance with the framework can provide valuable information about their long-term effects.

There may be challenges associated with implementing this framework, such as securing sufficient funding and resources to support comprehensive interventions, as well as resistance from communities or stakeholders who may not be comfortable with new approaches. Furthermore, coordinating efforts between a variety of agencies and sectors can be complex, and this requires strong leadership and collaboration to ensure consistency and effectiveness.

**Figure 5.1: A five-point resource-based conceptual and theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes**



Source: Researcher's illustration

### **5.5.2.1 Point 1: Responding to the nature of rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

Urban areas tend to have higher crime rates compared to rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal Province. This can be attributed to factors such as higher population density, socioeconomic disparities, and greater accessibility to resources. Further, urban areas often have more organised criminal networks, which contribute to the higher incidence of crimes such as theft, robbery, and drug-related offenses. The disparities in crime rates between rural and urban areas can often be attributed to population density, economic opportunities, and social networks. Urban areas, with higher population density, may experience more crime due to anonymity and increased opportunities for criminal activities. Conversely, rural areas might see different crime patterns due to limited law enforcement resources and social cohesion that can deter or conceal crime.

### **5.5.2.2 Point 2: Resources to enhance initiatives of the local South African Police Service in combating rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

One strategy for community engagement in crime prevention could be the establishment of neighbourhood watch programmes in which residents work together to monitor and report suspicious activities. Another strategy could involve organising community events and workshops to educate residents on crime prevention techniques and encourage them to be vigilant. Furthermore, partnering with local schools and community organisations to implement youth programmes aimed at diverting at-risk individuals from engaging in criminal activities could also be an effective approach. In the fight against crime, it is essential to understand that the responsibility for prevention and enforcement does not rest solely on SAPS. Instead, a collaborative approach involving various stakeholders is central for effectively addressing crime in our communities. Partnership policing is a strategic model that has proven to be highly effective in both rural and urban settings. This model emphasises the importance of cooperation among various entities, including government bodies, community organisations, and local residents, to create a safer environment.

In terms of Primary Crime Prevention and Sport Participation, there is no doubt that the sport environment serves as an important training ground for a child or adolescent to develop. It stands as a fact that sports and other activities play a major role in influencing the positive development of children and young people. To promote youth development and to impact factors associated with risk and resiliency associated with criminal involvement, crime prevention

strategies have therefore tried to capitalise on the popularity and benefits of sports activities as a means to influence youth development and risk factors. The use of sport as a means for or as a complementary activity to a variety of community-based programmes aims to promote the development of youth and prevent youth crime. As sport has been promoted as having the potential to help prevent crime or reduce antisocial behaviour because of its assumed ability to contribute to moral development, character development, and life skills, it has often been referred to as a means of preventing crime and reducing antisocial behaviour. There is, however, a lack of explicit information about the type of crime that these primary-level crime prevention initiatives are supposed to prevent, as well as the nature of the crime. Some of them refer generally to deviant or problem behaviour and may include anything from lack of self-discipline, defiance of authority, school absenteeism, or experimentation with drugs, to theft, violent and confrontational behaviour, or police contacts. Some initiatives are specific to violent behaviour, delinquency, or gang involvement, without identifying the exact behaviour that needs to be changed, or the exact form of behavioural intervention. There is much wishful thinking and preaching behind many of these initiatives.

In rural areas, traditional councils and tribal structures play a pivotal role in crime prevention. Leaders such as Izinduna (headmen) and Amakhosi (chiefs) are influential figures within these communities. They often establish forms of tribal policing, which supplement the efforts of SAPS by providing local knowledge and addressing community-specific issues. This collaboration not only enhances law enforcement but also fosters trust and communication between residents and the police. Community Policing Forums serve as an essential bridge between the police and the community. These forums encourage active participation from local citizens in crime prevention initiatives, ensuring that the concerns of the community are heard and addressed. The effectiveness of these collaborations has a direct impact on crime rates and overall safety in rural areas, demonstrating that a united effort can lead to significant improvements in public safety and crime reduction. Through involving different stakeholders, we create a comprehensive strategy that not only tackles crime but also strengthens community bonds and resilience.

### **5.5.2.3 Point 3: Identifying the challenges faced by rural and urban police officials in combating crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

In rural areas, police officials face a lack of resources, such as personnel, vehicles, and technology, making it difficult to combat crimes. In urban areas, police officials face the challenge of dealing with an increasingly diverse population, including people from different backgrounds with different needs. This makes it difficult to develop effective strategies to combat crimes.

Factors contributing to the challenges faced by police officials in both rural and urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province include limited resources, inadequate training and manpower, high crime rates, and the vast geographical area that needs to be covered. SAPS can create multidisciplinary initiatives by collaborating with various stakeholders to curb the level of crime. Such initiatives could include crime prevention strategies, increased law enforcement presence, and improved access to social services. SAPS should develop partnerships with local businesses, community organisations, and other stakeholders.

### **5.5.2.4 Point 4: Using a specific theoretical framework to combat rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

Selecting a suitable theoretical framework is crucial as it provides a guiding framework for understanding and analysing the complex dynamics of rural and urban crimes. It helps researchers and practitioners identify the underlying causes, patterns, and factors contributing to crime in specific areas, enabling them to develop effective strategies and interventions that address the unique challenges and needs of those communities.

### **5.5.2.5 Point 5: Enhancing strategies for facilitating resources to combat rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KwaZulu-Natal Province**

To combat urban crimes effectively, the resources needed include an increased police presence in high-crime areas, improved surveillance technology such as CCTV cameras, and specialised units focused on addressing specific types of crimes such as gang violence or drug trafficking. Additionally, community engagement programmes and social services should be implemented to address the root causes of crime and provide support to at-risk individuals.

The essence of a five-point resource-based model is that it promotes the development and utilisation of technological resources, such as surveillance systems and data analytics, to enhance crime prevention and detection.

### 5.5.3 Understanding the Resource-Based Model

The Resource-Based Model (RBM) is a framework that can be adapted to address rural and urban crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal.

- **Focus on Assets:** The RBM emphasises identifying and leveraging existing resources within a community to address challenges. These resources can be tangible (e.g., infrastructure, funding) or intangible (e.g., social capital, skills, knowledge).
- **Community Ownership:** The RBM prioritises community involvement and ownership in problem-solving. It encourages collaboration between residents, local government, law enforcement, and other stakeholders.
- **Data-Driven Approach:** The RBM relies on data analysis to understand the root causes of crime and identify areas for intervention. This data can be used to allocate resources effectively and measure the impact of initiatives.

There are several elements that must be taken into account when applying the RBM to rural and urban crime in KwaZulu-Natal:

#### 1. Needs Assessment:

- Conduct comprehensive research to identify specific crime types, patterns, and hotspots in rural and urban areas.
- Analyse underlying factors contributing to crime, such as poverty, unemployment, lack of education, and social inequality.
- Identify existing resources and gaps in services.

#### 2. Resource Mapping:

- Inventory existing resources within the community, including:
  - **Tangible:** Police stations, community centres, schools, healthcare facilities, infrastructure (roads, lighting), businesses.
  - **Intangible:** Community organisations, faith-based groups, traditional leaders, local businesses, skilled individuals, social networks.

### 3. **Community Engagement:**

- Establish Community Safety Forums (CSFs) to bring together residents, law enforcement, local government, and other stakeholders.
- Facilitate open dialogue and collaborative decision-making.
- Empower communities to take ownership of safety initiatives.

### 4. **Resource Mobilisation:**

- Leverage existing resources to address identified crime problems.
- Seek additional funding and support from government agencies, NGOs, and private donors.
- Explore innovative financing mechanisms, such as social impact bonds or crowdfunding.

### 5. **Implementation and Monitoring:**

- Develop and implement targeted interventions based on the needs assessment and resource mapping.
- Monitor the effectiveness of interventions through data collection and analysis.
- Regularly review and adjust strategies based on outcomes.

Specific examples of RBM-Based Interventions:

#### • **Rural Areas:**

- **Community Policing:** Establish strong relationships between residents and law enforcement through regular patrols, neighbourhood watches, and community-based policing forums.
- **Rural Safety Strategy:** Implement the South African Police Service's Rural Safety Strategy, which focuses on community engagement, visible policing, and addressing specific rural crime challenges (e.g., stock theft, farm attacks).
- **Economic Development:** Support local economic development initiatives to create jobs and reduce poverty, which are often underlying factors of crime.

#### • **Urban Areas:**

- **Youth Development Programmes:** Invest in youth development programmes to provide education, skills training, and job opportunities, reducing youth involvement in crime.

- **Community-Based Rehabilitation Programmes:** Implement restorative justice programmes that focus on rehabilitation and reintegration of offenders back into society.
- **Urban Upgrading:** Improve infrastructure and public spaces to enhance safety and reduce opportunities for crime.

**Key Considerations:**

- **Sustainability:** Ensure the long-term sustainability of interventions by building local capacity and establishing sustainable funding mechanisms.
- **Data-Driven Decision Making:** Continuously collect and analyse data to inform decision-making and measure the impact of interventions.
- **Adaptability:** Be flexible and adaptable to changing circumstances and emerging crime trends.

By adopting an RBM approach, communities in KwaZulu-Natal can effectively address crime by leveraging their strengths, building partnerships, and empowering residents to take ownership of their safety.

**5.6.FUTURE RESEARCH STUDIES**

Crime prevention and crime combating research is wide. However, this study focused on SAPS. Within this institution, the focus was on police officials on the ground. There are hierarchies of which SAPS is comprised. It may be interesting to study the procedures and components that managerial personnel take into consideration in ensuring that the community and other stakeholders are being served accordingly.

Further, the study looked at both rural and urban demographics, of which certain areas were selected in KZN. For future research, it will be interesting to see studies that focus on either rural or urban policing related topics and cover provinces within South Africa, not only a specific area as in this study. This may assist SAPS outside the areas this study focused on to address solutions that may have an impact on their daily working conditions and benefit the country as a whole, as well as other departmental stakeholders.

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## APPENDICES

### ANNEXURE A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE: TO THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE OFFICIALS

1. What gender do you identify as?
  - A. Male
  - B. Female
  - C. Prefer not to answer.
2. What is your age?
  - A. 25 - 35 years old
  - B. 35 - 45 years old
  - C. 45 - 55 years old
  - D. 55+
  - E. Prefer not to answer
3. How would you describe yourself?
  - A. Black/African
  - B. Indian
  - C. White
  - D. Coloured
  - E. Prefer not to answer/ South African
4. What types of crimes occurs in the rural and urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN)?
5. In combating crimes, what resources are needed in the rural and urban police stations in selected areas of KZN Province?
6. What are the challenges faced by the rural and urban police official in combating crimes due to lack of resources?
7. What initiatives can South African Police Service play with the available resources in combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province?
8. What are the most required resources for combating rural and urban crimes in the selected areas of KZN Province?
9. What mechanisms that SAPS is using to deal with crimes in the selected areas of KZN?

- 10.** What is the effectiveness of the South African crime prevention mechanisms?
- 11.** What are some of the prevention strategies?
- 12.** In formulating a multi-disciplinary model to prevent crime, how can all other role players be kept active and always functioning?
- 13.** Some other remarks you might want to make, with respect to lack of resources in combating rural and urban crimes in selected areas of KZN?

**ANNEXURE B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE GUIDE: for Community members**

1. How severe is the level of crime within the community?  
*Linamandla kangakanani izinga lobugebengu emphakathini?*
2. What type of crime is mostly committed?  
*Yiluphi uhlobo lobugebengu obenziwa kakhulu?*
3. Are there any initiatives played by the SAPS to curb the level of crime within the community?  
*Ngabe zikhona yini izinhlelo ezenziwa yi-SAPS ukunqanda izinga lobugebengu emphakathini?*
4. How visible are they, SAPS, in the community?  
*Babonakala kanjani, abeSAPS, emphakathini?*
5. Is the community playing part on fighting the level of crime within it area?
  - a. If yes, how?  
*Ngabe umphakathi ubamba iqhaza ekulweni nezinga lobugebengu ngaphakathi endaweni yawo?*
    - *Uma kunjalo, kanjani?*
6. What resources are mostly needed within the community to reduce the level of crime?  
*Iziphi izinsiza ezidingeka kakhulu emphakathini ukunciphisa izinga lobugebengu?*

## ANNEXURE C: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL APPROVAL LETTER – ETHICAL CLEARANCE



19 November 2021

Sanele Errol Shabane (209524592)  
School Of Applied Human Sc  
Howard College

Dear SE Shabane,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00003204/2021  
Project title: A Resource-Based Model for Combating Rural and Urban Crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal:  
The Initiatives of the South African Police Service  
Degree: PhD

### Approval Notification – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 28 July 2021 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) 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.**

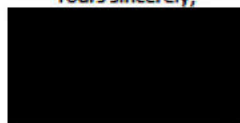
This approval is valid until 19 November 2022.

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

**All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.**

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,



Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

#### Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, 4000, South Africa

Telephone: +27 (0)31 260 8350/1557/3587 Email: [hssrec@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:hssrec@ukzn.ac.za) Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/research-ethics>

Founding Campuses: ■ Edgewood ■ Howard College ■ Medical School ■ Pietermaritzburg ■ Westville

**INSPIRING GREATNESS**

ANNEXURE D: SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE APPROVAL LETTER

SUID-AFRIKAANSE POLISIEDIENS  SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

Privaatsak/Private Bag X 94

Verwysing/Reference:	3/34/2
Navrae/Enquiries:	Lt Col Joubert AC Thenga
Telefoon/Telephone:	(012) 393 3118
Email Address:	JoubertG@saps.gov.za

THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE  
PRETORIA  
0001

The Provincial Commissioner  
KWAZULU-NATAL

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: A RESOURCE-BASED MODEL FOR COMBATING RURAL AND URBAN CRIME IN SPECIFIC AREAS OF KWAZULU-NATAL: THE INITIATIVES OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZU-NATAL: DOCTORAL DEGREE: RESEARCHER: SE SHABANE**

1. The above subject matter refers.
2. The researcher, Mr SE Shabane, is conducting a study titled: A resource-based model for combating rural and urban crime in specific areas of Kwazulu-Natal: the initiatives of the South African Police Service, with the aim *to create multi-disciplinary operations model to prevent crime, involving all role players at local, cluster and provincial level, focusing on priority crimes against women and children and incidents on farm and smallholdings.*
3. The researcher is requesting permission to conduct interview a total of sixty (60) police officials in three (03) police precincts from rural areas (Hibberdene, Inanda, Pinetown) and three (03) police precincts from urban areas (Berea, Durban Central, Margate). The researcher will interview ten (10) police officials per precinct.
4. The proposal was perused according to National Instruction 1 of 2006. This office recommends that permission be granted for the research study, subject to the final approval and further arrangements by the office of the Provincial Commissioner: Kwazulu-Natal.
5. We hereby request the final approval by your office if you concur with our recommendation. Your office is also at liberty to set terms and conditions to the researcher to ensure that compliance standards are adhered to during the research process and that research has impact to the organisation.

**PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: A RESOURCE-BASED MODEL FOR COMBATING RURAL AND URBAN CRIME IN SPECIFIC AREAS OF KWAZULU-NATAL: THE INITIATIVES OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZU-NATAL: DOCTORAL DEGREE: RESEARCHER: SE SHABANE**

6. If approval is granted by your office, this office will obtain a signed undertaking from researcher prior to the commencement of the research, which will include your terms and conditions if there are any, and the following:
  - 6.1. The research will be conducted at his/her exclusive cost.
  - 6.2. The researcher will conduct the research without the disruption of the duties of members of the Service and where it is necessary for the research goals, research procedures or research instruments to disrupt the duties of a member, prior arrangements must be made with the commander of such member.
  - 6.3. The researcher should bear in mind that participation in the interviews must be on a voluntary basis.
  - 6.4. The information will at all times be treated as strictly confidential.
  - 6.5. The researcher will provide an annotated copy of the research work to the Service.
  - 6.6. The researcher will ensure that research report / publication complies with all conditions for the approval of research.
7. If approval is granted by your office, for smooth coordination of research process between your office and the researcher, the following information is kindly requested to be forwarded to our office:
  - **Contact person:** Rank, Initials and Surname.
  - **Contact details:** Office telephone number and email address.
8. A copy of the approval (if granted) and signed undertaking as per paragraph 6 supra to be provided to this office within 21 days after receipt of this letter.
9. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.



**MAJOR GENERAL**

**THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
DR PR VUMA**

DATE: 2021-09-13

South African Police Service



Suid-Afrikaanse Polisiediens

Private Bag 284

Pretoria  
0001

Fake No.  
Fax No.

(012) 334 3618

Your reference/Ur verwysing:

My reference/My verwysing: **334/2**

THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE  
PRETORIA  
0001

Erqulirler/Navraa: **Lt Col Joubert  
AC Thenga  
(012) 393 3118**  
Tel:  
Email: **JoubertG@saps.gov.za**

**APPROVED**

Mr SE Shabane  
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

**RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SAPS: A RESOURCE-BASED MODEL FOR COMBATING RURAL AND URBAN CRIME IN SPECIFIC AREAS OF KWAZULU-NATAL: THE INITIATIVES OF THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE: UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL: DOCTORAL DEGREE: RESEARCHER: SE SHABANE**

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.

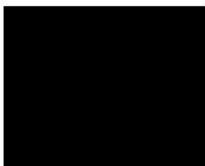
Further arrangements regarding the research study may be made with the following office:

The Provincial Commissioner: KwaZulu-Natal:

- **Contact Person:** Lt Col DN Govender
- **Contact Details:** (031) 325 5809/4934
- **Email Address:** GovenderDN@saps.gov.za

The Provincial Commissioner: KwaZulu-Natal has stressed that participation in interviews will be on a voluntary basis and respondents may refuse to answer questions implying sensitive information.

Kindly adhere to paragraph 6 of our attached letter signed on the **2021-09-13** with the same above reference number.



**MAJOR GENERAL**

**THE HEAD: RESEARCH  
DR PR YUMA**

**DATE: 2021-10-21**

## ANNEXURE E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM



### INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I am Sanele Shabane, a Doctorate student from the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). I am doing research on the study title: "*A Resource-Based Model for Combating Rural and Urban Crime in specific areas of KwaZulu-Natal: The Initiatives of the South African Police Service*". The aim of the study is to create multi-disciplinary operations model to prevent crime, involving all role players at local, cluster and provincial level, focusing on priority crimes, including crimes against women and children and incidents on farms and smallholdings.

I am going to give you information and invite you to be part of this research. Your participation in the study means accepting to have an interview. The in-depth interview will run approximately 45 minutes – 1 hour and will be sourced using audio-recorder and I will take down notes which will be transcribed and made available for data analysis. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw at any stage and there would be no negative consequences. The participants would be handled with respect and dignity. The participant will be expected to respond to questions. You won't apply private data without consent. The participant's answers will be treated in a classified way.

The data collected will be stored in a safe location for a specified period by the University and anonymized will be used in order to protect your identity. Should you request an electronic copy of the final dissertation, it can be sent to you on completion.

Your willingness to participate in this study will be greatly appreciated.

I can be contacted at [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]

Should you require further clarity you can contact my supervisor Professor SB Singh on this number the [REDACTED] / 031 260 7895 or [singhsb@ukzn.ac.za](mailto:singhsb@ukzn.ac.za)

You may also contact the Research Office through: P. Mohun HSSREC Research Office, Tel: 031 260 4557 or E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

**DECLARATION**

**(This section is mandatory)**

**I have read the foregoing information, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to ask questions about it and any questions I have been asked to have been answered to my satisfaction. I consent voluntarily to be a participant in this study**

**Print Name of Participant:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Signature of Participant:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Year/Month/Day**

**ANNEXURE F: DECLARATION LETTER FOR DATA RECORDING**

I..... (Full names of the participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research study, and I consent to participating in the study.

I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the study at any time, should I so desire.

I give consent to the following:

**Audio-record my interview**

<b>Yes</b>	<b>No</b>

**Print Name of Participant:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Signature of Participant:** \_\_\_\_\_

**Date:** \_\_\_\_\_  
**Year/Month/Day**

## Turnitin Originality Report

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ID: 2712859864  
Word Count: 81793  
Submitted: 1

FINAL Thesis document - Mr. SE Shabane  
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[Submitted to National University of Ireland, Maynooth on 2022-04-06](#)

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[Submitted to Richfield Graduate Institute of Technology on 2020-04-21](#)

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