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# FOREWORD

## AN OPEN-ENDED FOCUS

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**J**UST AFRICA JOURNAL OF CRIMINAL JUSTICE is a peer-reviewed academic journal that promotes academic and professional discourse and the publishing of research results on crime, criminal justice and other crime-related phenomena in the broad Criminological Sciences and applied field of criminal justice.

The fight against crime is not unique to the African continent where many countries across the world experience crimes such as gender-based violence, violent crimes, corruption and terrorism. As criminal justice relates to the delivery of justice to those who have committed crimes, the **JUST AFRICA JOURNAL** gives a voice to different spheres in this regard. A range of government agencies, institutions, the rehabilitation of offenders, prevention of crime and moral support to victims can be investigated to ensure a holistic view of criminal justice. **JUST AFRICA** also focuses on the study of crime as a social phenomenon, the causes of crime, criminal behaviour and other aspects of crime. Research findings about the organisational behaviour and staff-related issues within the relevant government agencies such as the South African Police Service, the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development and the Department of Correctional Services will also be appropriate to be published in **JUST AFRICA**. The broad subject of crime and criminal justice should be investigated nationally and internationally in a rigorous manner.

Research results can be used in policymaking but also find practical application for use by criminal justice professionals. Research evidence is very important to the development of criminal justice decision-making. Through well-designed and implemented research, we can better explore the impact of policies, programmes and daily practices. The results obtained from empirical research can provide valuable information for making more objective decisions about which interventions to use. Interventions designed and implemented based on research evidence have increased our potential to serve public interests more effectively and efficiently. Benefits from these strategies can include reduced victimisation, better lives for at-risk youth and cost savings from more efficient programmes. On the other hand, non-evidence-based interventions are at a higher risk of failing to produce desired outcomes or even worsening problems. The **JUST AFRICA JOURNAL** can therefore play a major role in assisting with proper decision-making and interventions to reduce crime.

Due to the sensitive nature of criminal justice and other crime-related phenomena, **JUST AFRICA** has the ability to showcase results and findings in a delicate manner. This edition has an open-ended focus and the editors therefore allowed post-graduate students, upcoming as well as established researchers to take part and share their value-adding results. I would also like to urge scholars to contribute to the **JUST AFRICA JOURNAL** as accreditation for this journal will be possible in the very near future.

# UPCOMING ISSUES 2021

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The editorial team of the **JUST AFRICA** Journal invites submissions for articles for the publication in its upcoming issues for 2021.

The details are as follows:

<b>Issue</b>	<b>Theme</b>	<b>Submission date</b>	<b>Publication date</b>
ISSUE 1/2021	PROFESSIONALISING LAW ENFORCEMENT AGENCIES IN SOUTHERN AFRICA	15 JANUARY 2021	30 APRIL 2021
ISSUE 2/2021	POLICING AND LAW ENFORCEMENT IN TIMES OF COVID-19 (OR OTHER PANDEMICS)	15 APRIL 2021	31 AUGUST 2021
ISSUE 3/2021	EVIDENCE-BASED POLICING	15 AUGUST 2021	30 NOVEMBER 2021

## Submission details

- Article submissions should be forwarded to the Editor: Jeanette Smit via e-mail: [jsmit@sbs.ac.za](mailto:jsmit@sbs.ac.za)
- The editorial policy and guidelines can be requested from the Assistant Editor: Annalise Kempen via e-mail: [annalise@servamus.co.za](mailto:annalise@servamus.co.za)
- An article contribution will be considered, provided that it has been edited and is ready for processing in terms of language, proofreading and complies with the technical format and referencing as provided for in the editorial policy and guidelines.
- The editors will submit the article contributions to referees in a double blind peer review process for evaluation whereafter the editors will decide whether to accept or reject an article. Where changes are deemed necessary, articles will be referred back to authors for finalisation.
- A publication fee may be levied at the discretion of the editors for every article published in the **JUST AFRICA JOURNAL**. NGOs, unaffiliated authors, international scholars, etc., who do not have access to research grants to fund expenses of this nature, may be exempted. The publication fee is R2500 per article.
- At least one article will be reserved for upcoming researchers including students in Criminal Justice, Corrections and Traffic Management, who are busy with their Masters.
- Submissions for academic book reviews may also be forwarded to the Editor.

# ARTICLE

## ANALYSING CYBER-BOMB THREATS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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### ABSTRACT

There is nothing unusual about bomb threats in South Africa. Each bomb threat has the capacity to disturb the business, daily activities and public peace by disruptively impacting the retail industry and thousands of citizens. During the past couple of years, several shopping malls and political offices in South Africa have received bomb threats. Unfortunately, it is difficult to distinguish between a real bomb threat and a hoax. The researcher is currently employed as a bomb disposal specialist within the Explosives Section of the South African Police Service, has previously worked as a detective for five years, and is currently studying towards a Masters in Criminal Justice whereby this problem was identified from both practical observations and theoretical perspectives. Explosives are known to be weapons of mass destruction. This means that all bomb threats must be regarded as priority crimes due to the potential danger they can cause. The researcher sought to analyse the bomb threats which are committed within the ambit of cybercrime, where an electronic communication device or computerised gadget is utilised to disseminate the bomb threat. Existing literature, legislative prescripts and policies were thematically analysed and corroborate that the majority of bomb threats are cybercrimes, therefore the response should involve cybercrime specialists. More awareness needs to be raised in order to make people aware that a bomb threat is a punishable offence, therefore health and safety evacuation simulations should not be hoaxed as bomb threats. The researcher has also identified a need for an integrated multifaceted approach to tackle bomb threats in order to quickly establish whether they are hoaxes, or real threats and to apprehend the perpetrators timeously.

### KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Cybercrime; bomb threat; electronic communications and transaction; cyber bomb threat.

### INTRODUCTION

Bomb threats in shopping centres, stores and offices disruptively impact the retail industry and thousands of employees. Koopman (2018) informs us that shopping malls and political offices in South Africa have received a spree of bomb threats, but that it is difficult to distinguish between a real bomb threat and a hoax. This study seeks to analyse cyber-related bomb threats legislatively as the cyber challenge in crime has also infiltrated bombing systems (Futter, 2018:8). The researcher has observed a lot of confusion in dealing with bomb threats which occur within the

cybercrime sphere whereby a technological communication device is used as an instrument to cause the bomb threat. Lochner and Zinn (2015:137) emphasise that the bomb threat scene is a speciality, and that these investigations often relate to arson and terrorism. The researcher agrees with this argument since the majority of bomb threat cases are treated as national threats and are often referred to the most senior investigators within the South African Police Service (SAPS).

## BACKGROUND

The researcher is currently employed as a bomb disposal specialist and previously worked as a detective observing the phenomenon as a problem from both a theoretical and practical experience. However, the researcher is bracketing personal experience as advised by Leedy and Omrod (2015:274). The majority of bomb threats are reported on in the media, which puts pressure on law enforcement agencies to deal with it swiftly, and to the satisfaction of the general public. The researcher states that some individuals are unaware that causing a bomb threat is a criminal offence, as stated in section 27(1A) of the Explosives Act 26 of 1956:

"Any person who in any manner -

(a) threatens, or falsely alleges, knowing it to be false, that any other person intends, to cause an explosion whereby life or property is or may be endangered or in order to intimidate any person;

(b) communicates false information, knowing it to be false, regarding any explosion or alleged explosion or any attempt or alleged attempt thereto, shall be guilty of an offence and liable on conviction to imprisonment without the option of a fine for a period of not less than three years and not more than 15 years."

Another trend that has been observed is that when employees have to comply with safety drill operations, they end up resorting to creating false bomb threats. In one example, an employee of a consultative firm in Pretoria went into a bank, made a bomb threat and was later arrested and charged for causing a bomb threat (Shange, 2020). This kind of behaviour seems popular in shopping complexes where there is a legislative requirement for regular safety evacuation drills. Employees of such shopping complexes are aware that, due to its seriousness, a bomb threat would allow a full evacuation and attract emergency personnel to assist. It is however a challenge when the bomb threat is made through the use of computers which would make it a form of cybercrime. It is a known fact that South Africa is struggling to deal with the surge in cybercrime. When it is becoming a popular method of causing bomb threats, it increases the burden of managing the threat and differentiating and classifying the kind of threat as real, a hoax or eminent to cause harm.

## CYBER-RELATED CRIMES AND THREATS

Cybercrime is regarded as any criminal offence which is committed through the use of a computer. Yu (2016:148) explains that the prevalence of modern technologies has diversified cybercrime to include any criminal activity that is committed using computerised devices which include modern cellphones, tablets and electronic communication devices. The Electronic Communications and Transactions Act 25 of 2002 (ECT) was enacted to outline activities that constitute cybercrimes and is currently the only legislation that provides legal certainty regarding cybercrime since the Cybercrimes Bill has not yet come into operation. In this regard, it would be vital to establish the exact manner in which the

bomb threat was made. If the threat were made through the use of computers, it would be imperative to deal with such bomb threat by taking into consideration the legal prescripts on the ECT.

Section 85 of Act 25 of 2002 defines "access" as related to cybercrime as the actions of a person who, after taking note of any data, becomes aware of the fact that he or she is not authorised to access that data and still continues to access that data. The action of "hacking" has further been included in South African law in section 86(1) and (2) of the ECT which makes it a criminal offence to unlawfully access and intercept data, including the unauthorised interference with. Section 87(1) provides an alternative to the common law crime of extortion in that a person who performs or threatens to perform any acts described in section 86, is guilty of an offence. This will be relevant when a bomb threat is made and the perpetrator seeks to solicit some form of ransom, or exert any pressure in order for the bombing not to occur (Joubert, 2015:169).

Cybersecurity issues have become a daily struggle for businesses due to an increase in hacked and breached data from sources that are increasingly common in the workplace such as cellphones. This is alarming as South Africa was rated the country with the third highest prevalence in cybercrime worldwide (Koigi, 2020). Recent research reveals a controversial situation where companies and employers are prone to unprotected data and poor cybersecurity practices, which in turn expose such companies and employers to data loss (Khumalo, 2019:282-294). Cyber activities have become commonplace in our daily lives including online communications - not only by law-abiding citizens but also by potential criminals. Cybercrimes are not limited to the ECT as there are other statutes that could be used to successfully prosecute such crimes. This includes the Prevention of Organised Crime Act (POCA) 121 of 1998 whereby the offences related to racketeering as outlined in Chapter 2; offences related to the proceeds of unlawful activities as outlined in Chapter 3; offences involving gangsterism as outlined in Chapter 4; and proceeds of unlawful activities as outlined in Chapter 5, are highlighted which are increasingly committed online due to their complex nature. Due to their sophisticated nature and urge to avoid detection, these four mentioned organised crimes often involve electronic communication and electronic fund transfers in order to be successfully executed. The utilisation of electronic devices to commit the offences therefore classify such crimes into the cybercrime category (Stephenson & Gilbert, 2013:82-83).

The Cybercrimes Bill 6 of 2017 has the following objectives, namely to:

- Create offences which have a bearing on cybercrime;
- criminalise the distribution of data messages which are harmful and to provide for interim protection orders;
- regulate jurisdiction in respect of cybercrimes and the powers to investigate cybercrimes;
- regulate aspects relating to mutual assistance in respect of the investigation of cybercrime;
- impose obligations to report cybercrimes;

- provide for the establishment of a designated Point of Contact and the proof of certain facts by affidavit;
- provide for capacity building;
- provide that the Executive may enter into agreements with foreign States to promote measures aimed at the detection, prevention, mitigation and investigation of cybercrimes;
- delete and amend provisions of certain laws; and
- provide for matters connected therewith.

Jordaan (2016:394) argues that the greatest elements of cybercrime are that the environment in which this crime occurs is the networked computer system and the Internet, and further cautions that many crimes deserve to be categorised as cybercrime due to these two elements.

The Cybercrimes Bill 6 of 2017 further outlines the following crimes which would be relevant to cyber-related bomb threats:

- Section 2: Unlawful access of data; a computer program; a computer data storage medium; a computer system

This section would apply in a case where a bomb threat is made by hacking into the computer system of an organisation and distributing such threat relating to the availability of a bomb on the premises or that a bomb will be detonated and as such create panic.

- Section 3: Unlawful interception of data

On several occasions, by the time a bomb threat is made, the perpetrator has already intercepted and acquired data from the source in an unlawful manner. Unfortunately, in South Africa these elements have not yet been given the necessary attention in relation to bomb threats.

- Section 7: Unlawful acquisition, possession, provision, receipt or use of password, access codes or similar data or devices

It has been realised that in the majority of bomb threat incidents in security complexes and buildings, the perpetrators often bypass or bridge the security access control measures in order to place a suspicious parcel and leave the bomb threat note. When investigating similar bomb threats, it would be in the best interest of justice to also focus on these elements.

- Section 10: Cyber extortion

In urban shopping malls such as Menlyn (Pretoria), Sandton City (Johannesburg) and The Pavillion (Durban), the majority of bomb threats have elements of extortion as perpetrators often threaten to detonate bombs in exchange for a ransom. In those situations, it would be very important for investigators to consider pursuing investigations related to extortion as stipulated in this Act. This was revealed by the Minister of Police, Mr Bheki Cele when he announced that the joint multidisciplinary intensive investigation which investigated the bomb threats in KwaZulu-Natal shops and malls has established extortion as the most likely motive for these incidences (Mulaudzi, 2018). Herselman and Warren (2004:254) also differentiate cybercrime from any other type of crime by arguing that cybercrime is committed with the use of a computer, either in the form of a desktop personal computer (PC), laptop, cellphone or an ATM machine. They argue that various common law crimes could be categorised as cybercrime if performed with the aid of a computer. With this in mind, one can make an

inference that many modern bomb threats will constitute cybercrime, guided by the manner in which the threat would have been made namely through any electronic computer device. In addition, Joubert (2015:132) highlights that cybercrime involves any crime committed with the aid of electronic devices, which is again relevant to modern bomb threats which are committed with the aid of smartphones and laptops.

It can therefore be argued that anyone who uses a cellphone or networked computer device to create or cause a bomb threat, constitutes not only an offence of causing a bomb threat, but also commits cybercrime. The researcher argues that the Cybercrime Unit and Technical Support Unit of the SAPS would then be in a very better position to assist in the urgent investigation, linking the perpetrator to the offence and securing all the necessary evidence pertaining to the offence.

## UNDERSTANDING BOMB THREATS

A challenging issue when assessing bomb threats is for the investigators to first question whether the threat passes the reality test, which they should apply to both the person who makes the threat and the threat itself (Ronald & Tunkel, 2000:1). This paradigm of distinguishing a real bomb threat from an unreal threat is the core challenge observed by the researcher, as a simple error in judgment could lead to adverse consequences should a real threat be ignored. Furthermore, even though bomb threats are often hoaxes intended to be disruptive or a practical joke; business owners and employers must always have contingency plans in place for bomb threats as every business or place of employment may be susceptible to bomb threats (Montez, 2020). In addition to section 27(1A) of the Explosives Act 26 of 1956, bomb threats are also punishable in terms of the Intimidation Act 72 of 1982 which prohibits certain forms of intimidation in terms of section 1 of this Act. This legislative provision and subsequent offence are often relevant when the motive of the perpetrator is to intimidate the recipients by making a bomb threat.

The Indiana University (2020) defines a bomb threat as a threat to detonate an explosive or incendiary device to cause property damage, death or injuries, whether or not such a device actually exists, and further emphasises that all bomb threats should be treated and responded to seriously. Due to the serious criminal nature of bomb threats, dealing with bomb threats are the mandate of the South African Police Service (SAPS) in South Africa, because the SAPS's policing objectives, as provided for in section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, 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 researcher has observed that the majority of bomb threats in South Africa are often made in response to the need for evacuation, or to test the response rate of emergency personnel. A bomb threat procedure formulated by the Stephen F Austin State

University (2020:1) outlines that almost all bomb threats are perpetuated through a phone and further cautions that all bomb threats need to be regarded as serious until proven not to be real. Bomb threats are treated as Alpha complaints, and as such, whenever the police receive a call that there is a bomb threat their response is always rapid. The reaction time of police stations to complaints is always an important factor. It is defined as the time it takes to respond to a complaint and is based on the severity of the crime and classified according to the Alpha, Bravo and Charlie system whereby Alpha complaints are crimes in progress, which require immediate police response or action (South African Police Service, 2020:x). It is for these reasons that people will make hoax bomb threats with the intention to attract rapid police response and compliance to safety requirements in workplaces and public areas.

## REACTION TO A CYBER-BOMB THREAT

A disaster management plan published by Thobakgale (2019:5) emphasises that the majority of bomb threats are received telephonically and often received by frontline employees such as security officers, switchboard operators and office bearers who must be readily prepared to react appropriately in order not to create panic or endanger lives. Thobakgale (2019:5-6) further outlines that emergency evacuation drills have to be conducted at least once a year at the discretion of the emergency officer in consultation with the director of security. It is vital that the relevant role-players should properly record all information from the caller, the accent, language spoken, tone, exact words uttered and background noises and then notify the management and police together with other emergency response units. Some perpetrators may disseminate bomb threats using e-mail or automated network devices like hands-free emergency mass communication systems able to disseminate messages automatically, which might require sophisticated measures to detect or respond to by the law enforcement officials. In 2014, the researcher investigated a bomb threat in the Groblersdal area which was made via an e-mail, sent by a 16-year-old disgruntled learner who created an e-mail account while at school, using false particulars. The learner sent a message that a bomb was planted on the school's premises threatening that it would be detonated if the school did not meet his demands. This case caused the school to partially evacuate all learners, who were residential and caused a great panic in the Groblersdal CBD. It was only by linking the cellphone number that was used to confirm the e-mail to the perpetrator that he was confronted and confessed. Another observation by Montez (2020) is that the majority of bomb threats in South Africa have been relayed telephonically or via e-mail to the company's corporate e-mail address. Identifying the sender can only be established through computer forensics - which at times has been found to come from a disgruntled former employee.

The Department of Homeland Security (2014:1) provides the following guidelines when dealing with telephonic bomb threats:

- Remain calm. Keep the caller on the line for as long as possible.

Do not hang up, even if the caller does.

- Listen carefully. Be polite and show interest.
- Try to keep the caller talking to gain more information.
- If possible, write a note to a colleague to call the authorities or, immediately notify them yourself as soon as the caller hangs up.
- If your phone has a display, copy the number and/or letters on the window display.
- Complete the bomb threat checklist immediately. Write down as much detail as you can remember. Try to use the caller's exact words.
- Immediately upon termination of the call, do not hang up, but contact authorities with information from a different phone and await instructions.
- Never use two-way radios or cellphones as radio signals have the potential to detonate a bomb.

If a bomb threat is received via an e-mail message, the computer must not be tampered with, the message must not be deleted, and the law enforcement must urgently be contacted using a different phone which is not linked to the recipient computer (The Stephen F Austin State University, 2020). This will be a best practice in order to avoid tampering with evidence, and for cyber technicians to be able to easily trace the perpetrator.

The Indiana University (2020) and Thobakgale (2019:15) outline that when a bomb threat is received, the following questions should be posed:

- When will the bomb explode?
- Where is the bomb?
- What does the parcel of bomb look like?
- What will cause it to explode?
- What building is it in?
- What floor is it on?
- What is your name and address?
- Did you place the bomb?
- Why?

The Okanagan College (2014:1) reveals that since a telephonic bomb threat cannot be retained and examined, unless incoming calls are being recorded, the recipient must gain as much information as possible from the communication while it is ongoing. It is vital to keep the caller on the line as long as possible and the call-taker should attempt to record everything, especially the exact wording of the caller. The reason why this is important is because bomb threats are typically made for one of two reasons (Okanagan College, 2014:1):

- The caller knows or believes an explosive or incendiary device has been or will be placed and wants to minimise personal injuries and/or property damage (the caller may or may not be the person who placed the device); or
- the caller wants to disrupt normal activity by creating anxiety and panic with no real intention of placing a bomb.

Depending on the different bomb threat procedures, various literature cited in this article reveal that bomb threats are handled differently, with ramifications. This is a concern mainly because bomb threats clearly often target evacuees and first responders

therefore the best response to a bomb threat would be sheltering for protection within the building rather than total evacuation (Hesterman, 2019:1-2). In addition, Zinn and Lochner (2014:1) outline that modern criminal investigation with regard to cellphone technology should consider traces left by cellphones that were used on a crime scene in relation to the Lochner principle. This latter principle determines that even though a cellphone signal might be present as a trace at a crime scene, proof of the signal can only be found on the electronic database of the cellphone service provider, which is kept at a location some distance from the crime scene. This then demystifies the current approach to bomb threats, as the Lochner principle can best be applied when investigating the majority of cyber bomb threats where electronic communication devices are involved. The Crime Intelligence Division of the SAPS has a surveillance team which has access to the Precise Mobile-device Locator (grabber) which can only be used when there is a threat of life and limb for tracking and locating the exact mobile device involved in a crime. It is therefore to this extent that such services should be encompassed in the investigation of bomb threats whereby mobile devices, e-mails and computer devices are used to disseminate the threat.

## EVACUATION DRILLS

The Occupational Health and Safety Act 85 of 1993 places the responsibility on every employer to provide and maintain, as far as is reasonably practical, a working environment that is safe and without risk to the health of their employees. It is from this legislative requirement that employers and owners of employment premises find themselves compelled to conduct simulation evacuation drills, and some often opt to do so by using bomb threats. In terms of section 8 of Act 85 of 1993, an emergency evacuation plan must be reviewed and updated by the owner or occupier of the premises concerned at least once each year while an emergency evacuation plan must be drilled at least twice each year and involve the participation of all persons who work or reside in the building concerned. Furthermore, section 9 of this Act stipulates that every employer shall provide and maintain, as far as is reasonably practical, a working environment that is safe and without risk to the health of his or her employees.

Section 1 of the Disaster Management Act 57 of 2002 defines a disaster as follows:

"a progressive or sudden, widespread or localised, natural or human-caused occurrence which -

(a) causes or threatens to cause - death, injury or disease; damage to property, infrastructure or the environment; or disruption of the life of a community; and cope with its effects using only their own resources; is of a magnitude that exceeds the ability of those affected by the disaster to cope with its effects using only their own resources."

Makhanya (2013:4) outlines that a disaster happens as a result of a sequence of events and recommends the following actions in response to a bomb threat:

- Evacuate via the shortest and safest route, to the designated assembly point;

- superficially search the work area while evacuating;
- report any suspicious articles to the emergency coordinator;
- open all doors and windows if time allows;
- adhere to all instructions given by the emergency coordinator;
- remain at the evacuation point (assembly point) until informed otherwise; and
- ensure that all visitors are accounted for and evacuated.

## CONCLUSION

Cybercrimes encompass all forms of crimes which can be orchestrated using a computerised device, therefore this suggest that the bomb threats are not excluded. Whenever a bomb threat is received, through any networked or computerised device, it should be treated as a cybercrime incident whereby the personnel who have expertise in investigating and handling cybercrimes within the SAPS have to be involved. This unified approach will assist in ensuring that there are positive detections and convictions for cyber-bomb threats.

More awareness should be raised to safety representatives, first responders and security personnel in order to encompass an integrated approach in dealing with cyber-bomb threats, ensuring that evacuation drills do not overlap into hoax bomb threats, as this might create unnecessary panic, injuries and even lead to criminal conviction. Besides the Bomb Disposal Unit of the SAPS, it is vital that the Surveillance Unit, Cybercrime Investigation, Technical Support Unit and the Directorate for Priority Crime Investigation of the SAPS should develop or implement a Standard Operating Procedure for dealing with cyber-bomb threats. This will enable them to deal with the bomb threats in real time upon the crime being reported using the available technologies. The long-term outcome will be a peaceful cohabitation in the country, greater awareness in the society that it is an offence to create a bomb threat, and that it can be detected.

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# ARTICLE

## RENDERING VICTIM-FRIENDLY SERVICES FOR WOMEN AND CHILDREN IN SOUTH AFRICA: WHY IS THE SAPS'S RESPONSE TO VICTIMS STILL UNSATISFACTORY?

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### ABSTRACT

This article examines the challenges faced by the South African Police Service (SAPS) in rendering services to victims of crime, especially to the vulnerable. Victim surveys conducted by Statistics South Africa over the years, research studies and customer satisfaction surveys conducted by the SAPS, disclosed levels of victim dissatisfaction with the services rendered by the SAPS. This led to the need to conduct research to determine from the SAPS's perspective, reasons for the difficulty associated with rendering victim-friendly services to women and children. The article draws data from a variety of sources including electronic interviews, focused group interviews and document analysis to determine the reasons why the SAPS struggles to render victim-friendly services to women and children at the level they expect. While there is a clear indication of acknowledgement among officials that rendering victim-friendly services to victims is a challenge, several internal and external factors can be attributed to the struggle that the SAPS is confronted with. Internal factors relate mostly to inadequate capacity (skilled frontline officials) and resources, poor location and management of the Victim-Friendly Rooms (VFRs), language barriers, unclear roles and responsibilities, poor access to information and inadequate knowledge of relevant regulatory frameworks and programmes. External factors relate to poor coordination of activities and insufficient cooperation by other government departments. The article concludes that it is imperative for the SAPS to improve and strengthen its

### AUTHORS' NOTE:

The article contains the authors' views as researchers in the SAPS and does not necessarily represent the view of the South African Police Service.

internal capability by practically training its personnel, improving supervision of VFRs, sensitising its personnel on diversity and victims of different crimes, introducing advanced means of sharing information and improving recruitment practices that support policing in diversified communities. There is also a need for government to realise that policy is not adequate to ensure robust collaboration and coordination of activities between different role-players. There is a need for a binding legislative framework to obligate all role-players to play their part in supporting and empowering women and children.

## KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Women and child victims; victim support; victim-friendly; crime; vulnerable persons; police, South Africa.

## INTRODUCTION

Crimes against women and children is a growing concern that has caught the attention of the South African government and the international world. A Presidential Summit against Gender-Based Violence and Femicide (GBVF) was held in 2018 to determine solutions to curb the scourge of GBVF in South Africa. The summit considered South Africa as one of the countries in the world with the highest levels of GBVF. The SAPS has also indicated in its Annual Report for the 2018/2019 financial year that crimes against women and children continue to be both a concern and a national crisis. Although the SAPS recorded a decrease in the majority of crime categories during the 2018/2019 financial year, crimes against women and children increased by 1.2% and 3.9%, respectively (SAPS Annual Report, 2019:8). The impact of these crimes is enormous and it is the responsibility of government to provide women and children who have fallen victim to crime with the necessary support and protection.

Thus far, the South African government has made progress to improve women's access to justice, health and social services, and to provide education to help protect adolescent girls (Sibanda-Moyo, Khonje & Brobbey, 2017:18, 57). There is also a progressive legislative framework, policies and associated programmes designed to empower and protect women and children when they fall victim to crime and violence (Republic of South Africa, 2018:5). The SAPS, as the first point of contact in the Criminal Justice System (CJS), has also introduced several directives and initiatives to protect and support women and children when they fall victim to crime. All these initiatives are discussed in detail in the article.

## NATIONAL INITIATIVES TO SUPPORT VICTIMS OF CRIME

The South African government has put a lot of effort into ensuring that women and children are safe and supported after they have fallen victim to crime. There is evidence of ratified international conventions as well as progressive domestic legal frameworks that seek to strengthen the protection of victims' rights (Western Cape Department of Social Development, 2014:10; Sibanda-Moyo, Khonje & Brobbey, 2017:6). In addition, the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) of 1996 needed to introduce a victim-centred approach in the CJS. The NCPS led to

the development of a Victim Empowerment Programme (VEP) that envisioned to assist survivors of violence and their families (Sibanda-Moyo et al., 2017:22; Commission for Gender Equality (CGE), 2016:14). The VEP is an intersectoral and departmental collaborative approach that provides victims with access to quality support services. As good as it sounds on paper, implementation of the programme has been rather challenging, mostly because of the poor level of engagement by government departments that needed to implement the programme (Sibanda-Moyo et al., 2017:22; Western Cape Department of Social Development, 2014:iii).

Collaboration and coordination of activities among government departments responsible for implementing the Victims Charter continues to be a challenge notwithstanding the existence of the National Policy Guidelines for Victim Empowerment (Sibanda-Moyo et al., 2017:22). Based on these policy guidelines, forums must be established at both national and provincial levels to promote collaborative planning, monitoring and evaluation of the delivery of services to victims on a regular basis. However, Sibanda-Moyo et al. (2017:22) have pointed out that this is not happening. Coupled with the challenge of frontline officials who often appear to lack the relevant training of dealing with victims of crime, the researchers indicated that the implementation of VEP is also affected by the lack of funding for non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs) operating at the local level. The roles and responsibilities of the role-players required are not clearly defined which makes implementation of the VEP challenging (Dey, Thorpe, Tilley & Williams, 2011:20).

Nonetheless, the government has also introduced a Service Charter for Victims of Crime in 2004 that defines rights for victims and minimum standards for services that must be provided. To implement the Charter, government departments in the CJS and the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) Cluster in particular, developed specific programmes (Justice Today, 2016:4; Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DOJ&CD), 2007:21, 35, 37; DSD Annual Report, 2016; South African Government, 2020).

These programmes include:

- A court preparation programme intended to assist and support victims of crime, particularly abused children by preparing them for court.
- Thuthuzela Care Centre (TCC) programmes which are focused on empowering and supporting victims of sexual offences and gender-based violence. The aim of these centres is to reduce secondary victimisation, improve conviction rates and reduce the cycle time for finalisation of cases.
- Restorative Justice Programmes that seek to assist victims of crime, their families and communities to find closure and healing after a crime has been committed against them.
- A One-Stop Shelter Project intended to offer victims an opportunity to recover from their traumatic experiences.
- Women's Dialogues that involve women sharing their views on the services they expect. The dialogues are used to improve the DSD's services and strengthen efforts to empower women.
- A 24-hour Gender-Based Violence Command Centre (GBVCC) dedicated to provide telephonic access to support and counsel victims of GBV.
- A White Door concept as a response to the lack of safe accommodation for women, which provides victims of GBV and domestic violence in particular, with temporary shelter when other, safe accommodation is not available to them.
- A platform to provide victims of crime with emergency medical services. Victims of rape are provided with Post-Exposure Prophylaxis (PEP) treatment in an attempt to prevent possible HIV infection.
- A new model for sexual offences courts to reduce and eliminate secondary victimisation or trauma that may be caused by the court system, and to speed up the court process.
- A My Safety Plan developed to assist victims of domestic violence to escape unharmed from violent attacks and reach for the needed social and economic support.

These initiatives are critical and play a significant role in supporting victims of crime in South Africa. However, irrespective of their existence, the South African Government (2020) acknowledges that there is insufficient specialised services for and the absence of professional services to women and children in the country. The cause of these challenges can perhaps be related to the poor coordination of the legal frameworks developed to support victims of crime, as mentioned by Dey et al. (2011:11) and Stone and Lopes (2018:1).

## VICTIM SUPPORT SERVICES IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE

The SAPS, as the first point of contact in the CJS, plays an important role in shaping victims' initial experiences of the CJS. While its responsibility is to respond to crime and conduct investigations, the SAPS also has an obligation to assist victims of crime to access other services in the CJS. This function is defined in the Domestic Violence Act (DVA) 116 of 1996 which obligates the SAPS to assist victims of domestic violence, which includes providing assistance to victims to find access to suitable shelters. The National

Instruction 7/1999 on Domestic Violence guides implementation of the Act by defining the roles and responsibilities of officials and outlining steps to be taken once a domestic violence-related crime is reported. Supplementary directives implemented to ensure that quality services are rendered to victims of crime, include the following:

- the National Instruction 2 of 2012: Victim empowerment;
- the National Instruction 3/2008: Sexual offences;
- the National Instruction 2/2010: Children in conflict with the law;
- the National Instruction 3/2010: The care and protection of children in terms of the Children's Act; and
- the Standing Operating Procedures for the reporting of Family Violence, Child Protection and Sexual Offences (FCS) investigation-related crimes.

The instruction on victim empowerment is a comprehensive directive that requires police officials to provide an accessible, effective and victim-friendly service by recognising and protecting the rights of victims of crime when victims report incidents and during the investigation process. Based on the instruction, police officials have to satisfy four basic elements of victim empowerment, which involve emotional support, practical support, providing and receiving information, and referral to professional support services (SAPS, 2012:2).

The SAPS also has to apply provisions of the Victim Empowerment Manual of 2009 that requires the SAPS to, at all times, exercise fairness, respect and courtesy when dealing with victims of crime. To realise this, a number of initiatives are evident which aims to help the SAPS provide victims with the required support and services. These include:

- VFRs were introduced across the country to provide victims of crime with the opportunity to, without any fear or discomfort, make their statements in private in an environment that does not appear threatening to them. The SAPS has included VFRs in its Annual Performance Plan for the 2018/2019 financial year and defined specific performance indicators and targets based on three elements that all police stations must meet in order to render a victim-friendly service. These requirements include that, for every police station:
  - ❖ at least 50% of the its operational members must have completed one or more of the following training courses: Victim Empowerment Learning Programme, Domestic Violence Learning Programme, Vulnerable Children Learning Programme and First Responders to Sexual Offences Learning Programme;
  - ❖ there is a dedicated VFR or if space does not allow for that, specific alternate arrangements must be made to provide for privacy during statement-taking in cases of gender-based or intimate partner violence; and
  - ❖ a station order has been issued to direct the management of victim services at the police station, including referral to other service providers, management of the VFR and/or the alternate arrangements referred to above, and where applicable, of volunteers (SAPS Annual Performance Plan, 2019:27).

■ A Ministerial Six Point Plan, referred to on 11 August 2017, in a speech by Mr Fikile Mbalula who was the Minister of Police at the time, was implemented to improve the SAPS's services to all victims of crime, but in particular victims of GBV. In terms of this plan, victims should be:

- ❖ treated with respect, dignity and be interviewed by a trained police official in a victim sensitive manner;
- ❖ assisted in a VFR or an alternative room where the statement will be taken in private or at another location providing victim support services;
- ❖ referred to or taken for medical examination by a health-care professional to obtain medical evidence and complete a medical report including attending to the health of the victim;
- ❖ offered an investigation conducted by the FCS Unit or a detective with relevant training;
- ❖ referred to victim support services that are available within the precinct for legal, medical, social and psychological assistance. Such referral includes the families of victims of sexual offences, femicide and infanticide; and
- ❖ provided with feedback on the progress of their cases on a continuous basis (SAPS, 2017a).

These efforts demonstrate that rendering quality services to victims of crime in the SAPS and ensuring that such services are constantly accessible to victims, is a number one priority. However, there is continued criticism that the quality of services rendered to women and children in the SAPS is inadequate and unsatisfactory. Victims have expressed dissatisfaction with the police, mainly because the police are slow to respond when domestic violence incidents are reported (South African Human Rights Commission (SAHRC) (2018:13). Research studies have also revealed that, victims are not content with the SAPS because at times, the organisation fails to adequately protect them as victims (Stone & Lopes, 2018:4; Sibanda-Moyo et al., 2017:59; Mogstad, Dryding & Fiorotto, 2016:5). This usually happens when the police fail to enforce protection orders issued to perpetrators of crimes against women, corruption and discrimination as well as the harsh treatment of victims by some officials. Stone and Lopes (2018:17) specifically enlighten that dissatisfaction with the police often results from failure by the police to have readily available information about shelters to assist victims as expected.

Victim surveys conducted by Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) over the years and the SAPS's Customer Satisfaction Survey (2017) attest to citizens' dissatisfaction with the level of service they receive from the SAPS. The Stats SA Victim Survey of 2017/2018 indicates that households' level of satisfaction with the police has been declining since 2013/2014, with only a slight increase in satisfaction in 2015/2016. One of the reasons provided for the dissatisfaction is the harsh behaviour of officials when dealing with victims (Stats SA, 2018:89). Among households that reported deliberate damaging, burning or destruction of residential dwellings to the police during the 2018/2019 financial year, 41% of the participants were satisfied with the police while 59% were not satisfied (Stats SA, 2019:37).

The SAPS Customer Satisfaction Survey conducted during 2017 to determine the level of public satisfaction with its services, reveals comparable results. The survey highlighted that victims of crime are far from being satisfied with the level of service and support they received from the SAPS. While 15% of respondents stated that they were not satisfied at all, a further 31% could not state whether or not they were satisfied with the service they received. It is fair to deduct that 46% of victims were not satisfied with the SAPS's service. This dissatisfaction could be attributed to various reasons such as prejudice towards victims, a lack of empathy and sensitivity of police officials, a lack of support for victims and inadequate facilities at the station where traumatised victims can be assisted (SAPS, 2017b:79). Experiences such as these, along with the recent debate on the politicisation of GBV in Parliament, have led citizens to believe that government does not take the victimisation of women and children serious (Nkanjeni, 2020). Such information often leads to many people asking the question of whether victims are really treated better given the fact that all the above-mentioned initiatives have been implemented.

## RESEARCH OBJECTIVE AND METHODOLOGY

The objective of the research was to determine the challenges faced by the SAPS in rendering victim-friendly services to women and children. The research adopted a qualitative approach and electronic interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis were used to collect data. The research needed to explore the nature of services rendered to victims of crime and the challenges associated with rendering victim-friendly services to women and children. Research ethics played an important role to ensure that information rich data was collected from participants whose right to confidentiality, dignity and anonymity were respected. The Guidelines: Research Ethics in the South African Police Service (SAPS, 2016) served as ethical guide during the research project. Permission to conduct the research was granted by the Divisional Commissioner for Research in the SAPS on 25 September 2018 after consideration had been given to the proposed research methodology, sampling and ethics for data collection. This authorisation gave access to the whole of the SAPS and invitations for participation to other external role-players.

The research participants consisted of operational officials from the SAPS including frontline police officials and detectives from the General Detectives and FCS Units. A purposeful sampling method was used to identify and select those police officials with extensive experience of more than five years as frontline police officials at police stations. All participants had at least five years' experience, which included experience in serving women, children and other vulnerable persons who fell victim to crime. Ultimately, 11 SAPS participants, who represented Gauteng, Free State, Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Mpumalanga and the North West Provinces, participated in the focus group interview.

Purposive, but convenient sampling was also used at the stations to allow frontline police officials to participate in the electronic interviews. Frontline officials included visible policing

(uniformed) officials, detectives, station commanders, detective commanders and SAPS 13 store evidence clerks who had experience in dealing with women, children and other vulnerable persons who fall victim to crime. The sample consisted of 125 participants.

Data analysis ran concurrently with the data collection process. The final analysis involved a narrative and thematic analysis. The narrative analysis was applied to the focus group and electronic interview data. The emphasis was on what really transpired when officials dealt with women and children approaching the Service for help. Thematic analysis, based on the themes that emerged from the literature review, was used as basis for document analysis.

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This section provides a thorough description of the findings of the research. The research discloses several internal and external factors that require serious and urgent intervention. The factors identified are not new as previous studies and evaluation reports by CGE (2016) and Stone and Lopes (2018), disclosed similar findings. These factors are crucial and mostly relates to inadequate capacity (skills), resources, training and poor access to information, poor management and location of VFRs and language barriers. The factors emphasise the need for the SAPS to, among others, consider the level of impact of the training provided to frontline officials; improve oversight over police stations; create more educational platforms to sensitise members on GBV and other related crimes; and identify more advanced means of sharing information with other departments. More effort is also required in terms of improving the cooperation between departments in the CJS, which is one of the factors that hampers victim-friendly services rendered in the CJS.

### Internal factors that hamper victim-friendly services

Rendering an effective victim-friendly service in the SAPS happens when victims are able to access the services they require effortlessly and officials are able to provide such services in the most professional and sensitive manner (SAPS, 2012:1). Officials were asked to define a victim-friendly service and to explain why they struggle to render such services effectively. Their definition of a victim-friendly service does not deviate from the description provided previously, however, the practical implementation of such a service appears to be challenging. Responding to the question of which factors act as barriers to the effective rendering of victim-friendly services, officials mentioned several internal factors that included the lack of capacity that relates to skilled frontline officials, the language barrier as well as a lack of understanding the relevant regulatory frameworks, roles and related programmes. The poor management of VFRs, which are central to the delivery of professional and friendly services, and the manner in which these rooms are located at stations, were also mentioned as barriers to effective service delivery to victims of crime. Additional factors that participants listed included insufficient resources such as

appropriate vehicles to transport victims to hospitals, a lack of sufficient facilities to provide services to victims and a lack of information about shelters. These factors are discussed in detail below.

### Lack of skilled officials to deal with victims of crime

Participants mentioned that as much as the Service has put more effort into building a robust victim support system, officials are still not adequately equipped to deal with victims of crime. Both the participants from the General Detectives and the FCS Units highlighted that frontline officials still fail to ask the relevant questions and treat all victims fairly. The attitude of frontline officials also raised concern, which to some extent, questions the standard of training of officials at station level. To demonstrate the extent of the problem, participants mentioned that officials are usually impatient, insensitive and lack empathy, tact and discretion when dealing with victims. The situation is worse when the same victim, who previously reported a crime and withdrew the case, reports the same crime again.

While officials are provided with training on the Victims Charter and DVA specifically (CGE, 2016; Stones & Lopes, 2018), it is not clear what the impact of the training provided is as no such study has been conducted so far. The CGE (2016) study points out that regardless of the training provided on the Victims Charter, there is still a "scant understanding of the charter". When interviewed, frontline officials could not explain how the services they render link to the Victims Charter (CGE, 2016:46). This could mean that, as Stones and Lopes (2018:24) figured in the case of the DVA training programme, training provided is rather theoretical and not practical. Officials may therefore find it difficult to apply what they have been trained on in the police station setting.

### The language barrier

South Africa has 11 official languages and sign language. However, participants enlightened that not all police officials are able to communicate in all the languages which sometimes becomes a barrier for the delivery of services to victims of crime. Many police officials cannot serve victims who cannot speak English, especially when a victim speaks an unfamiliar South African language that the officials on duty do not understand. This language barrier extends to victims of crime who use sign language. Such contexts generally contribute to service delivery challenges in the SAPS. The inability of officials to understand the victim and assist them accordingly, may result in victims feeling that the police do not take them seriously. The SAPS Victim Empowerment Manual (2009:6) expects all officials to be able to assist victims in the language they can understand and, if such an official is unable to communicate using the victim's language, another official who is able to speak the language must takeover. It is therefore important for the SAPS to ensure that there is someone at the frontline desk who can understand and speak the languages spoken in that particular policing area. This further emphasises the importance of recruitment practices that supports the rendering of policing services in diversified and multi-lingual communities.

### **Lack of understanding of regulatory frameworks and related programmes**

A number of directives and legislative frameworks have been designed to guide operational officials on how to render an effective and quality service to victims. However, it has been found that not all these frameworks are understood. Rather, their application is often left to individual discretion. Participants mentioned that in most cases, officials at station level appear to have an inadequate understanding of directives and related legislation. This is also evident in the Stone and Lopes (2018:21) study that the poor implementation of the DVA is affected in the majority of cases by the lack of understanding of this Act.

### **Poor understanding of roles and responsibilities**

The role of frontline officials is to receive the victim or answer the victim's telephone call when they report a crime, refer the victim to the VFR where a statement will be taken and then take further actions as required, such as referring the victim to other institutions. However, these responsibilities are often rushed to the FCS office since this Unit has the role to investigate both crimes committed in the family environment and against children. These include domestic violence and domestic abuse. According to participants, FCS detectives are in the majority of cases burdened with more work than they can handle which creates an overload of work for detectives working at the Units.

In addition, FCS detectives are also tasked with transporting victims for medical examinations, transporting victims to places of safety, while also having a backlog of cases to investigate and an added administrative role of submitting case dockets to court. The uCGE (2016:5) discloses similar findings while mentioning that FCS Units are over-stretched and overworked, as they must also deal with other crimes. These challenges demonstrate that frontline officials have a blurred understanding of the role of FCS Units. Perhaps this is because the National Instruction on Victim Empowerment is not specific on who must assist and provide the necessary support to victims of crime which include, among other functions, assisting the victims to access available social services. While the National Instruction 2019 on FCS investigations is also not specific on the role of the FCS detective, the instruction obligates the Unit Commander to ensure the investigation of FCS-related crimes. This therefore implies that command and control is not as effective as it should be.

### **VFRs are poorly located and managed**

Victim-friendly rooms were introduced in the SAPS to ensure that victims are afforded the opportunity to give their statements in the most private and comfortable environment as well as to ensure that victims of crime have access to information (SAPS Victim Empowerment Manual, 2009:20). These rooms have been established at all police stations across the country, even though some rooms may be in the form of wooden Wendy houses or temporary buildings at the back of a police station. Some police stations are old and do not have adequate space for the rooms or even to accommodate all its police officials. Yet, stations do not

report on how often the VFRs are utilised which means that the SAPS cannot determine the exact need for such facilities at stations.

Concerns were also raised regarding the misuse of the rooms and where they are located at police station during the focus group interviews. Participants criticised the location of the VFRs and the parking areas at the station, which are generally not close to Client Service Centres (CSCs), but rather in crowded places. According to participants, it is difficult for victims to feel safe when they have to visit the police station due to such conditions. It was also mentioned that VFRs are sometimes abused and used for wrong purposes. Moreover, conditions such as inadequate lighting and uneven and rough surfaces that make it inaccessible for older persons or persons with physical disabilities to access the VFR, surfaced.

Some officials continued to argue that the setup of VFRs is also not appropriate for all types of victims and that the facilities are not sufficient. The rooms can only accommodate one victim at a time which becomes a problem when more than one person approaches the station for assistance. Similar conditions are highlighted in a research study conducted by CGE (2016). The study found in this regard that VFRs are isolated from police stations, which posed risks for the safety, security and comfort of victims, and are left unclean.

The challenges associated with the impractical location of the VFRs at stations and the poor management of the rooms render the services provided by the SAPS to victims as unprofessional, unfriendly and ineffective. The irony is that an effort was made by the Division Visible Policing to rectify these challenges to ensure that such conditions are avoided. Every station is supposed to have a VEP or Domestic Violence (DV) coordinator, or even a volunteer to take charge of the keys to the rooms. Unfortunately, this practice has resulted in the VFR being locked when it is needed for victims. Inspection teams and even external oversight bodies found VFRs locked at stations, especially after hours where a member or volunteer had to be called to the police station to open the VFR. Furthermore, an instruction was issued to ensure that the key to the VFR is kept in the CSC where the CSC or relief commander is supposed to control it. In many instances, this does not happen.

### **Lack of sufficient vehicles to transport victims**

The SAPS National Instruction on Victim Empowerment recommends that where there is a need to transport victims, this must be done using an unmarked police vehicle. If a marked vehicle must be used, it should be a sedan. Should the station lack access to the described vehicles and a police van is the only vehicle available, victims must be transported in the cabin of the van and not in the back. Police officials must ensure that victims are, by all means, separated from suspects. However, concerns were raised during focus group interviews that victims are often transported in the back of a complaints vehicle which is a light delivery vehicle that has been fitted with a canopy. This type of vehicle is mainly used to transport prisoners. To transport victims of crime in such vehicles is regarded by some participants as degrading for victims,

but the victims have to keep quiet about it, as they do not have alternative transport to get to a hospital.

This scenario is prevalent in rural settings where hospitals are far away from police stations and ambulance services are not readily available. The SAPS also experiences problems to render victim support where police stations with limited resources serve smaller populations that are spread over a larger and often inaccessible geographical area.

### **Lack of updated information at the CSC on shelters**

Referrals to other role-players for victim support are affected by the lack of reliable information about services and availability of suitable shelter facilities. Participants stated that the lists of NGOs and service providers that support victims of crime are not always available at CSCs as prescribed by organisational directives and when the lists are available, it often contains outdated information. The research revealed that this incomplete or outdated information stems from poor communication between the SAPS and the DSD, particularly at local level.

All these factors render SAPS efforts ineffective. Such efforts include, as discussed in this article, firstly, the implementation of several directives intended to guide officials and ensure professional conduct among CSC personnel and detectives when dealing with victims. Secondly, the development of plans and guides to define the roles of the police when dealing with victims, the introduction of courses to train and capacitate officials at the frontline and detectives; and thirdly, the establishment of VFR rooms which are intended to help victims feel comfortable when they visit the station to report crime or file complaints.

While it is clear that the SAPS has done much work to adopt a victim-oriented approach which intends to ensure that quality and victim-friendly services are rendered and accessed effortlessly by victims, these factors continue to stand in the way of delivering such services.

### **External factors affecting SAPS's service to victims**

The SAPS has acknowledged having some institutional inadequacies, which may cause challenges to rendering a victim-friendly service. However, external factors were also identified which mostly relate to issues about shelter availability and accessibility; availability of counselling services after hours; and integration and coordination of activities between government departments. Though the SAPS can effectively identify and address its internal challenges, it would still be difficult to render services in the manner that would satisfy victims of crime if other government departments are not cooperating or the external challenges remain unaddressed. These external factors are discussed below.

#### **Shelter availability and accessibility**

The issue of shelters for victims is a serious concern that has been the focus of many recent research studies (Lopes & Stone, 2018; Lopes & Watson, 2017; Lopes & Mpani, 2017; Western Cape Department of Social Development, 2014). These studies have

commonly found that shelters usually experience financial, resource and capacity challenges, which also relate to the views of the participants of this study. The majority of the electronic and the focus group interview participants agreed that shelters are not sufficient which creates a challenge when victims are in need of accommodation. There is a shortage of shelters across the country and the prolonged stay of victims at shelters exacerbate the situation. This scepticism was reiterated by Lopes (2013:6) who explains that in 36% of instances of domestic violence, women were still accessing shelter services after their initial stay has lapsed. While the Department of Social Development (DSD) has demonstrated commitment to addressing this challenge by introducing immediate housing for victims as well as so-called White Door facilities (DSD Annual Performance Plan, 2016), participants were concerned that the same problem would continue. For the participants, the idea is likely to pose further challenges as victims tend to be reluctant to leave shelters because they are staying in the shelter at almost no personal cost. Moreover, the period during which victims are allowed to stay at the shelter does not give them enough time to find employment, given the unemployment situation in South Africa.

In addition to shortages and a lack of access to shelters, participants also criticised the criteria used to provide victims with shelter. What is worrying is the fact that women with male children over the age of ten years are not allowed to stay at a shelter. The Western Cape Department of Social Development (2015:112) found the same problem during an evaluation of services provided at shelters for victims of crime and violence in the Western Cape. The report confirms that male children older than ten years whose parents are approaching shelters for assistance are excluded and not allowed to stay at such shelters. The victims can in such instances be left with the choice of either returning to their home where they are victimised or let go of their child who is likely to end up in the streets. In the end, this practice is against the provisions of the Children's Act 38 of 2005.

#### **Availability of social workers after hours**

The SAPS operates on a 24-hour basis and is able to receive complaints and crime reports at any time of the day and night. However, even when police officials can treat victims professionally, victims may judge the performance of the police based on their ability to assist them in accessing other support services rendered by other government departments. Very often, officials find it difficult to help victims to access the other services they may require because other departments do not operate during those hours. The DSD, which is the primary government department in helping victims to access counselling services and shelters, does not render a 24-hour service. This has, as most of the participants explained, resulted in them letting victims stay at the VFRs for a whole weekend waiting to access support services. Many of these victims are also in dire need of trauma counselling that the SAPS must try to arrange in the absence of assistance from the DSD. Participants further shared that a similar problem is experienced when the police remove children from the street, as DSD personnel are not

available to find suitable accommodation for them. Homeless children are deemed "in need of care and protection". Based on the Children's Act 38 of 2005, such children must be removed and placed in temporary safe care. But this rarely happens. The police take the responsibility to accommodate the children in the VFRs, which are strictly for victims of crime. While this may compel the SAPS to take initiative and provide the necessary support services required at the time, it may also come as a challenge as the SAPS does not have qualified social workers working at the VFRs. Delivering such specialised services might require the SAPS to appoint qualified social workers as the respondents mentioned. However, the initiative may be difficult to implement, firstly because the challenge of social workers is a national problem, and secondly because this role does not form part of the SAPS's mandate. The provision of counselling services to victims of crime lies with the DSD. Although the SAPS employs social workers and psychologists in the Employee Health and Wellness (EHW) and Detective Services to provide an internal service to members and to support investigations, these professionals are not easily attracted by the SAPS. The SAPS itself needs more professionals to meet its internal needs in EHW and for forensic services. The current capacity therefore cannot realistically be deployed to provide victim support services. Moreover, the Public Finance Management Act (PFMA) 1 of 1999 does not allow a department to employ staff and spend money on something that is not its core function.

### Poor coordination and cooperation

Another major challenge acting as a barrier for the SAPS to render a victim-friendly service is the lack of coordination among role-players. Participants did not hesitate to mention that working with DSD and the Department of Health (DoH) is a challenge at times, especially at local level. This is supported by the findings of Abrahams, Mathews, Lombard, Martin and Jewkes (2017:10) who conducted a national cross-sectional epidemiological study of adult women and children. They found that the investigation of rape cases is affected by, among others, the clear lack of coordination between social services, health and the police. While DSD is said to be rarely available or accessible, DoH often fails to provide the J88 reports on time. The SAPS has an obligation to investigate crime and have offenders arrested. However, when there is lack of supporting evidence or information such as information held in the J88 report, building solid cases might be challenging. The work of prosecutors and the courts are, in the end, also affected. According to the Diagnostic Review of the State Response to Violence against Women and Children conducted by KPMG (2016), a lack of coordinated implementation places a significant burden on the victim of violence to identify and negotiate access to services and is most likely to contribute to secondary victimisation of victims by the state.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The article shows that the SAPS is aware of its internal challenges with regard to rendering victim-friendly services to women

and children. The article has also shown, by defining some of the most critical interventions intended to enhance victim support in the SAPS, that the Service is taking its responsibility very seriously. There is however also a dire need for better coordination and integration of related services of all role-players in the CJS and those departments that play a supporting role to protect women and children. The empowerment and support for victims of crime is emphasised by the National Policy Guidelines for Victim Empowerment as a coordinated and integrated effort. The expectation is therefore that victim support services be rendered in a coordinated and integrated manner through a multi-disciplinary approach involving the relevant role-players from various sectors.

Nonetheless, fragmentation among departments in the CJS and the JCPS cluster in particular is still evident. The article proposes a two-step intervention process to help improve services in the SAPS and to encourage a coordinated approach in the provision of victim support services and cooperation among the related government departments. The recommendations of this research provide the SAPS and departments in the JCPS cluster with an approach to improve services rendered to victims across the country. The first proposition requires the SAPS to improve the initial victim support as the first point of contact in the CJS. The second provides solutions to improve coordination and cooperation between SAPS and other departments to ease the SAPS's job and make it more effective.

## STEP 1: IMPROVING INITIAL VICTIM SUPPORT AT STATION LEVEL

The SAPS Victim Empowerment Manual (2009:3) clearly states that the SAPS is the initial point of entry in the CJS. The SAPS's level of support during the crucial first contact with the victim does not effectively support victims to participate in the CJS and the successful conclusion of court processes. Not only is the sensitivity and competence of police officials a challenge, but also the facilities in which victim-friendly services are rendered. The SAPS must therefore take the responsibility and ensure that victims of crime, especially those of sexual offences and other serious and violent crimes, are provided with a victim-friendly service aligned with internal directives and legislation.

The most critical area of improvement relates to the reporting phase of victimisation and access to the CSC. The SAPS must improve the reporting of crimes against women and children and access to the CSC. Referring to the CJS in general, the SAHRC (2018:13) found that victims find it difficult to access the CJS. Access to the CJS is through the SAPS as the first responder or first point of contact. Therefore, access to police services must be enhanced to ensure that victims of crime gain access to services in the CJS. Every community must have a police station available where they can report victimisation - this includes rural and disadvantaged areas such as informal settlements. While the issue of informal settlements is a continuous challenge especially for the police, more advanced strategies can be implemented in these areas to enhance reporting. One of the good practices is the toll-free text messaging service in France that puts callers in touch with

the French security forces (Hansrod, 2020). This will require commitment of both the SAPS and the community. SAPS must respond as effectively as possible and the community will need to avoid sending falsely alarms to the police.

In the case of victims being unable to report crime due to trauma, hospitalisation or fear, provision must be made for third-party reporting. Lopes (2016:967) explains that this is also a legal practice for victims of domestic violence in the case of applying for a protection order with the court. The SAPS must sensitise its members about third-party reporting and also on how such third-party applications for protection orders can be achieved. Third-party reporting also requires the victim to give consent, unless the victim is younger than 18 years. Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) can be engaged to determine the possibility of using their organisations for this purpose. Victims can consult with such organisations and/or their family members in case they are not in a position to file a report. The organisation can then work directly with the police to register a case. This initiative is important and can be useful for abused children and victims of GBV and domestic violence. The organisations will need to have defined strategies on how the reporting will take place and have a solid understanding of the crimes reported to them so that the relevant criminal activities can be reported to the police.

The second critical area in improving reporting is changing the perception and attitude of police officials working at the frontline. The face of the CSC must reflect willing and able individuals who embrace the diversity of clients in all its forms. The SAPS needs to educate its members to manage their time and tasks, and develop emotional intelligence. Officials then need to understand the significance of their work and must be sensitised through workshops, information or notice boards and information provided on the SAPS intranet. Briefing sessions which are conducted before the start of every shift are also a good platform to spread the message and sensitise officials dealing with victims of crime on a daily basis. Training must incorporate a subject area on professional and sensitive behaviour and must be delivered in a manner that would expose officials to real-time situations. The training must enable officials to better "read" the situation at the crime scene or to assess the mental state of victims more accurately.

Officials must also be trained on human rights, diversity and related legislation, SAPS Standard Operating Procedures and National Instructions. Skills such as having an understanding of human rights, gender sensitivity and the ability to be objective and fair when applying the law are critical and must be considered as part of the basic training curriculum for police trainees. This will assist detectives and police officials at the frontline to render a professional victim-friendly service. Station commanders must ensure that members receive regular training on victim support, assistance and empowerment and also on local service arrangements to support victims.

The recruitment of new police trainees must also strive to bring in only those individuals who respect and embrace the diversity of the community and who are willing and able to serve all victims without prejudice. A system must be introduced as part of the

recruitment process of police trainees where these qualities are detected. An example could be the development of an assessment programme where new trainees can be asked questions relating to diversity, prejudice and respect for human rights before their applications can be approved. The police will be in a better position to serve victims of crime when all new trainees are tested for any form of bias, prejudice and other significant areas during the selection processes.

The third area of improvement is to also educate the community, specifically on their rights as victims in society. Victims must know what services they are entitled to and specific departments that must provide such services. Victims can either be educated as they enter police stations for assistance or can be reached through awareness campaigns involving other role-players such as church structures and CPFs at the community level.

The SAPS further needs to improve its implementation of and compliance with directives, specifically in relation to the issue of VFRs. The role of the VFRs is to ensure that victims are comfortable to report their crimes. The SAPS must strengthen its measures to enhance compliance with directives, which stipulate how VFRs must function. While the functioning of VFRs is the direct responsibility of station commanders and CSC relief commanders, accountability and monitoring of the VFRs continues to be a challenge. The SAPS has also made provision for the establishment of domestic violence coordinators as well as VEP coordinators who are supposed to ensure the smooth running of the VFRs and related services, however, these role-players also seem to lack accountability. VFRs must be monitored and performance evaluated in respect of rendering a victim-friendly service. Station commanders must designate a specific victim empowerment official at the CSC to take responsibility for the monitoring of victim support matters. This function must be overseen by the provincial office to improve compliance.

Furthermore, many of the SAPS's VFRs need to be upgraded. Understandably, due to the age of some police buildings and the limited space available to accommodate all police personnel, not all police stations will have a dedicated VFR on the premises. In such cases, a neat office will also suffice. However, where police stations have designated VFRs, care must be taken that victims are not traumatised by the position of the room, that the immediate area surrounding the VFR is well-lit and that the room is accessible for people with physical disabilities. The actual room must be clean, tidy and comfortable enough for victims to feel safe and comfortable in. To this end, the whole police station, especially the parking area and entrance to the police station, needs to be clean and inviting as a place where victims can feel safe to report their incidents. VFRs should be linked to appropriately allocated vehicles to transport victims to hospitals. Taking resource constraints into account, at least one vehicle per station will help to alleviate the need for transportation of victims of that particular station.

Although FCS detectives were concerned about the large volume of cases they receive from CSC offices, FCS detectives have the responsibility to ensure that domestic violence, sexual

offences and other gender-based violence cases are effectively investigated. Command and control need to be strengthened and the units must be capacitated and increased to address the challenge of workloads and pressure. Station commanders must introduce systems of ensuring accountability to improve management of frontline officials. Where FCS Units are not available, a competent detective can oversee the taking of statements from

GBV victims at the station. While they are expected to conduct quality investigations, FCS detectives must also consider the significance of providing victims or complainants with constant feedback on their cases. Moreover, their collaboration with the National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) is critical throughout the process to improve investigations and contribute to successful prosecutions.

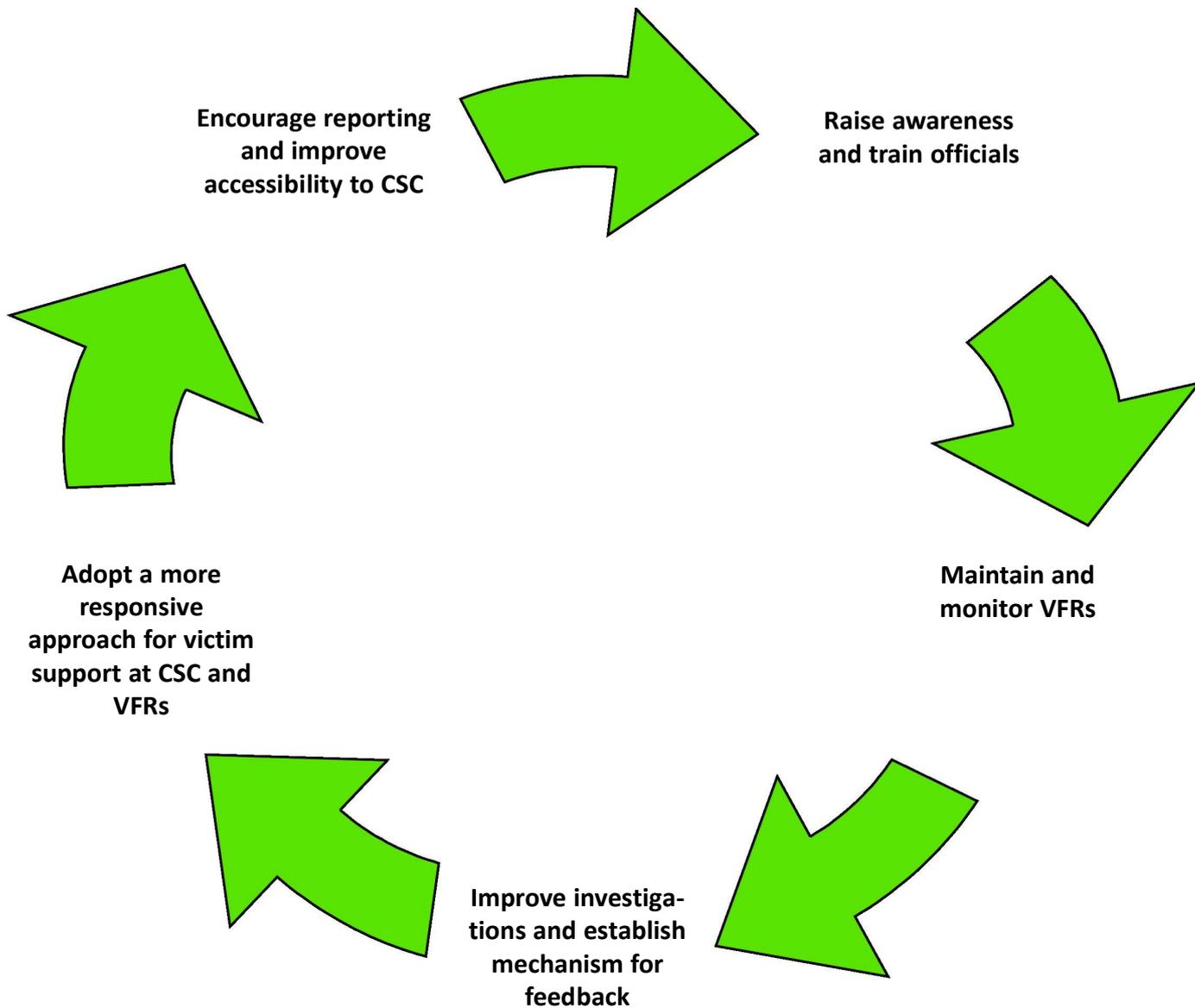


Figure 1: Improvement of initial support for victims

## STEP 2: COOPERATION AND COORDINATION BETWEEN DEPARTMENTS

Role-players in the CJS are supposed to have an integrated approach and work in partnership. Yet, it appears that departments are working in isolation towards the same goal. The effectiveness of the CJS to improve support to victims is highly dependent on the performance of all the departments that form part of the system. This collaboration has long been emphasised by the NCPS, 1996 and the DSD's National Policy Guidelines for Victim Empowerment, 2009. Monitoring and evaluation of such collaboration is as important, but it currently falls short. Individual departments' projects and programmes are set up for failure when they

remain isolated. The research therefore proposes stronger effort than mere policy to regulate victim support and empowerment services. In their road map report on victim empowerment legislation in South Africa, Dey et al. (2011) propose specific legislation. One of the critical arguments raised in this report is that regardless of many existing legislative frameworks developed to define offences and what victimisation entails, there is no clear connection and coordination between the frameworks (Dey et al., 2011:11). The fragmented nature of these different frameworks makes coordination difficult.

The SAPS has, as has been experienced by its Research Component during this study, raised concerns regarding the lack of

collaboration from other departments, which according to policy, are supposed to work together with the SAPS to not only prevent crime, but also to provide victim support and empowerment services. To this end, the SAHRC (2018:15) reports about challenges associated with coordination in the implementation of victim support services, even though it is a requirement as defined in the National Policy Guideline for Victim Empowerment. Implementation is difficult because the policy does not necessary bind role-players in the same way as legislation.

Dey et al. (2011:38-39) argue that having a single legislative framework to regulate the entire victim empowerment environment would ensure, among others, that all role-players are held accountable. This is difficult to achieve with a policy. This view is also supported by Sibanda-Moyo et al. (2017:22) who argue that, in relation to Violence Against Women (VAW), "except for policy guidelines, there are no corresponding legal obligations on the part of other departments". Comprehensive legislation would provide for the establishment of an "ombudsman" to oversee the environment which would help victims, especially in cases where they do not feel that they were treated well and entirely helped. Unlike the National Policy Guidelines where the roles of other role-players except for DSD are not clearly defined, a legislative framework would help to clearly define the roles of the different role-players. A binding law will help to define the relationship between civil society and government departments in the provision of victim services, better incorporate the principles of restorative justice and help to cater for victims of crime. For this research, this is an important derivative, which would, more than the existing policy and legislative frameworks, obligate each member of government to work together in providing services to victims of crime.

At an operational level, the SAPS must, through its Inter-Divisional Forum on crimes against women and children and other vulnerable groups, put pressure on DSD to improve its capability of supporting victims of crime, especially in rural and deep rural areas. Moreover, DSD must be tougher on persons in shelters who have completed the victim empowerment programme to leave the shelters to free up space for new victims who require shelter. More interaction in the form of regular meetings at lower levels must be held between SAPS and other role-players who render services to victims of crime to improve service delivery in practical terms. There is also the need for the SAPS to initiate the establishment of an integrated information system between departments in the JCPS cluster. This can contribute to improved access to information and sharing. The SAPS Division: Technical Management Services must be engaged together with information technology components of all the departments in the JCPS cluster.

## CONCLUSION

The SAPS has made good progress in developing a framework and norms for an organisational victim-friendly service, but considering public criticism, it is still lacking full application at frontline level. There are barriers to rendering such an effective victim-friendly service to women and children and they receive serious attention within SAPS. The article has confirmed that all people in

society, especially the vulnerable, women and children, have the same needs when they fall victim to crime. They require support and protection and for justice to be served. It is therefore imperative that victims are supported practically to register their cases, are provided with protection and supported emotionally by arranging for psychological and social services. However, it is not always the case that all police stations are able to provide such support, especially when they lack capacity, support from other role-players and suitable facilities. While some police stations are suitably equipped with facilities and capable personnel, others operate with limited capacity. Unfortunately, the level of support that can be provided to women and children and other vulnerable groups as victims of crime, is reliant on these factors, some of which can only be addressed through joint use of resources and capacity.

Victims of crime are not interested in which government department is responsible for rendering a service, they only want to be served, supported and protected while they wait for the CJS to come full cycle with their case. They expect the CJS to work and nothing more, nothing less. This study therefore emphasises the critical importance of policy-makers to incorporate measures to facilitate cooperation of all role-players and coordination of activities to establish synergy in rendering victim-friendly services.

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# ARTICLE

## A CRIMINOLOGICAL STUDY EVALUATING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMMUNITY POLICE FORUMS IN RURAL-URBAN AREAS OF SOUTH AFRICA

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### ABSTRACT

The Community Police Forum is established as a forum in terms of section 19(1) of the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act 68 of 1995, to ensure police accountability, transparency and community efficiency in crime prevention. The legislature's intention with these forums was for them to bridge the gap between the police and the community, as well as to build a harmonious relationship between them. Using the normative sponsorship and broken windows hypotheses, this article strives to examine the challenges associated with the ineffectiveness of Community Police Forums (CPFs) in reducing crime in South Africa. The study identified various major challenges which impact on the effectiveness of CPFs in the country. These include a lack of partnership and accountability, a lack of governance, the loss of public confidence in the police, low morale of CPF members, inadequate training, the use of weak SAPS employees, resistance to CPF modification, absence of thorough guidance and poor relationship between the police and the society. Based on the existing literature, these challenges might lead to the demise of CPFs if no formal assistance is received from provincial and national governments, as well as community members. With all viable efforts being put in place, it is certain that a qualitative understanding of the challenges facing Community Police Forums in South Africa will be brought into the limelight; and measures to redress the inadequacies will be implemented across a wide range of South African communities.

### KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Community Police Forums; Community policing; Crime; Crime prevention and control; Partnership and cooperation; Police; Rural-urban areas; South Africa.

## BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Between 1913 and 1995, the South African Police Service (SAPS) was formerly known as the South African Police Force (SAP) (Williams, 2016:132). The SAP was responsible for several human rights violations towards black South Africans. Such violations included acts of violence, murders and the execution of discriminatory laws and protocols (Provincial Gazette, 2011:20). According to the Police Act 7 of 1958, the roles and duties of the police included upholding regulation, maintaining peace and order, investigating and stopping crime. This same Act also vested exceptional powers in the police to quench conflicts and carry out counter-insurgency actions (Kole, 2017:23). By the same token, the Police Amendment Act 70 of 1965 empowered the police to search any individual without authorisation, specifically within one mile of any nationwide perimeter. This Act empowered the police to capture whatever was discovered within the jurisdiction (Police Accountability SA, 2013:4).

Furthermore, the National Peace Agreement, contracted in 1991 by all key governmental parties, produced different structures through which police liability could be required. Consequently, the South African Interim Constitution Act 200 of 1993 pronounced the formation of a Community Police Forum (CPF) at each police station with a view to ensuring effective community policing in the country. Also, the National Security and Security Minister's Advisory Committee formed a sub-committee, which was responsible for outlining the basic guidelines for these forums. These guidelines were only applicable prior to the promulgation of the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act in 1995, as the minimum prerequisite for the creation of Community Police Forums. Subsequently, it became apparent that the various Members of the Executive Council (MEC) in the provinces were mainly liable for the development of these forums in terms of safety and security of their members. The MECs held a two-day community policing seminar on security and safety in April 1995. In this regard, Wisler and Onwudiwe (2009:3) reveal that Gauteng was the first province to implement community policing by setting up Community Police Forums across the province.

Within a short space of time, the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 pronounced on the police-community conglomerate to meet the society's policing needs. This Act serves to provide for the establishment, organisation, regulation and control of the South African Police Service; and to provide for related matters. The Act also makes the CPF procedures available to community police panels in the region. The CPF's major aim is to set up a dynamic cooperation between the police and the public through which offences and imposition of punishment can be performed (Gunawan et al., 2018:1). The programme was initiated to create an environment where community members and the police can work together and achieve the nation's objectives on crime control and reduction. More specifically, this new policy vision on CPFs was facilitated throughout police stations across the entire country.

Drawing upon the aim of this study, it can be argued that the execution of community policing through CPFs has not effectively

achieved its development goals in the nation, owing to the following anomalies.

- Some community members in black housing areas do not completely believe the police and they do not want to join any Community Policing Forum.
- In rural regions, crime does not stand as a significant danger towards community safety. Therefore, it is hard to motivate the community to form a CPF.
- Occasionally, individual political rulers attempt to exploit the CPF for their private political benefits, thereby adversely affecting the smooth functioning and setting up of a CPF (Stevens & Yach (1995; quoted in Nxumalo 2005:151)

## CHALLENGES CONFRONTING THE CPF IN CRIME REDUCTION IN SOUTH AFRICA

### Lack of cooperation among community members and the police

Significant struggles are encountered during the regulation of CPFs. Communities are reporting various crimes to the police, creating a challenge for law enforcement officials who have to prevent various crimes such as murder and armed robbery by taking precautionary measures (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005:23). The CPF has become a battlefield for community members, because there is frequent fighting and disagreement on what constitutes a decent composition of a CPF (Mastrofski, Xa, Willis & Xa, 2010:120). Corroborating this view, Newham (2015:43) argues that gangs have indeed taken over some of the established CPFs. The most obvious local implications of CPF are the development of many fundamentally unselected local structures of CPFs. This also comprises nominated people who desired to find enhancement in ground police activities (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005:23).

According to Wong (2008:25), arousing conflicts over police operational autonomy among forum participants and the local police department has provided resolution to monitor the entire procedure of the CPF. It was also established that local communities often wish to hold the police responsible for previous wrongdoings (Williams, 2016:133). In the same vein, communities are resolute to inform the police of their previous failures. In practice, this implies that the community seeks to embrace the CPFs to penetrate the hated police agency, taming and disgracing them and holding them responsible for the community's failures, not only in the past but also for the present and the future (Brogden & Nijhar, 2005:25). Thus, all these fundamental differences seem to militate against community members and the police coming together to fight crime through the successful operation of CPFs.

### Factors contributing to malfunctional Community Police Forums

Van Graan (2005:20) questions the feasibility and development of CPFs in contemporary South Africa. This study further discussed that the CPF was meant to be one of the foundations of post-apartheid policing. Nevertheless, these forums have not lived up to expectations, especially in black communities. Based on

government's investigation into the operation of CPF in KwaZulu-Natal, Van Graan (2005:222) unfolds the attendant issues, which led to the awareness that CPFs are unsuccessful in carrying out the tasks for which they were designed; which was due to a lack of police assistance and security.

Police participation in unlawful activities often leads to the failure of police collaboration with the community (Mastrofski et al., 2010:60). Congruently, community members are not conscious of the presence of CPFs and do not necessarily understand the role of CPFs (Maroga, 2005:31). Moreover, some CPF members are being targeted as criminals by the police (Maroga, 2005:70). Based on this inquiry, it was also revealed that the SAPS regard CPFs as watchdogs and therefore, the police feel endangered to work with them. CPF political authority is often in conflict about who should regulate and normalise these differences. Similarly, the police cannot ascertain which category of community members should be part of this arrangement. Studies have also shown that some CPFs serve only the interests of a specific political group and are not representative of the community. By the same token, the police often regard CPF members as moles and do not consider them as allies (Mastrofski et al., 2010:140).

Van Graan (2005:26) comments that CPF associates align themselves with black political parties; while political parties regard CPFs as a tool to advance their political schedules. In addition, criminal participation by members of CPFs can negatively influence a forum's credibility. It can equally jeopardise the police organisation, particularly if police activities are reported to have a link with criminal operations. However, criminal components of the CPFs must be worked upon to avoid the misuse of CPFs (Safety & Security Department, 1998:18; Smith & Cornish, 2003:122; Palmiotto, 2011:45).

## THE CHALLENGES CONFRONTING CPFs' EFFECTIVENESS

### Lack of partnership between the police and CPF members

Studies have shown that obstacles to efficient community policing include the following: the use of weak SAPS employees, a lack of governance and responsibility, the loss of public confidence in the police and the low morale of CPF members (Schurink & Schurink, 2011:65). It was established that the prevention of crime can produce desired outcomes when communities operate together with law enforcement agencies.

### Resistance to CPF modification

Resistance to CPF modification appears to be one of the core challenges facing CPFs in South Africa. Studies have shown that some officials are not tuned to the development of this scheme and that they do not always understand what the present and future tasks and prospects imply and hold for CPFs (Smith & Cornish, 2003:122; Williams, 2016:142). Furthermore, some authorities do not want to accept the initiative that public policing is the way forward in reducing crime; and these representatives often deny the public access to policing. These people

occasionally discuss their opinions on the absence of open assistance from community policing. However, police administration finds it hard to enforce public policing in circumstances where there is no trust (Singh, 2005:49).

Some police culture requires altering to inspire the SAPS "rank-and-file" to adopt a public policy (Goldsmith & Lewis, 2000:31). Cassels (1996:22) also supports this opinion by adding that cultural change includes changes in values and behavioural patterns. Steinberg (2008:4) highlights the need for police to alter engrained organisational methods. Most modification is moved by fast ecological adjustment and indecision (Van Graan, 2005:23). Schwarz and Shulman (2007:23) also discuss that ethnic, financial, scientific and physical environments must be addressed by organisations of all categories in order to change organisations faster. This implies that a significant challenge is a burden on organisations, particularly in a bid to adjust behaviour and beliefs. Thus, the primary goal of SAPS conversion and reorganisation is meant to guarantee the change of attitudes positively (Grabosky, 2009).

### Inadequate training

According to Hosken (2011:5), the main reasons for police brutality include police administration, poor turning-out of trainees, disregard for the rule of law and order, unlawful leaders in the police department and obvious disrespect for inner corrective techniques. Paoline, Myers and Worden (2000:585) are of the opinion that exercises that improve the ability of officials to fulfil policing purposes, analysing issues as well as functioning within the society organisations are based on criminal law (Mastrofski et al., 2010:59).

Moreover, communication skills, problem-solving and management abilities that are most essential in training were not effectively acquired by the police. At some police stations, police officials were unable to take responsibility for preventing crime and also lack the extra-legal techniques required to cope with serious crimes. Some police officials frequently cross the line in their attempts to arrest suspect using unnecessary force, which is sometimes, considered unjustifiable (Neubauer, 2011:77; Williams, 2016:142; Gunawan, Aunguroch, Sukarna & Wahab, 2018:143).

### Absence of thorough guidance

Management is essential in ensuring the effective functioning of CPFs, because the technique of persuading and guiding the movement of individuals plays a significant role in this process (Wright, 2002:34; Fleming & Rhodes; 2005:205). Peak, Gaines and Glensor (2004:16) also add that the policing system of guiding and manipulating the behaviour of others in the community is highly essential. Stated differently, a lack of governance brought about the failure of the public policing policy agenda; which is what makes some police officials collect tips at their stations (Nkwenyane, 2011:133). It is compulsory for the police to create an environment where the community can relate freely with the SAPS. It seems that South African law enforcement agencies have experienced a lack of leadership to ensure the implementation of the programme, resulting in public policing not being implemented effectively.

## Accountability

Fox and Meyer (1995:11) describe accountability as administration. Studies have shown that the police department has not been responsible for their wrongdoings or errors in crime prevention situations (Chiliza, 2005:34; Cordner, 2010:43). In line with Pelser (1999:17), it is vital for the police to develop a culture of duty in order to absorb the culture of accepting the truth from the public. Similarly, police officials must be alert all the time, because they will be held responsible for their carelessness or failure to prevent crime on duty (Trojanowicz, 1998:33). Therefore, the community relies on the police for safety; and the police are held accountable for each of their actions in line with people's safety.

## THEORETICAL UNDERPINNING

### Introduction

The theoretical thrust of the study is anchored on normative sponsorship (Tiedke, Freedman & Holland, 1957:44) and broken windows hypotheses (Wilson & Kelling, 1982:41). These two theories were adopted as a blueprint for evaluating the efficacy of CPFs in crime control, reduction and prevention.

### The normative sponsorship theory

Community policing relies on the normative sponsorship theory which indicates that people who have a convergence of interest, may cooperate with one another in order to satisfy their needs (Pala & Balcioglu, 2016:111). However, community members will only work together as long as the goals are within the normal limits of established standards (Biswas & Sultana, 2020:55). The normative sponsorship theory is a model that is frequently applied to describe the rational foundation of public patrolling. The model argues that a public programme will only be endorsed if there is a threshold standard set for all individuals. But, without public support, the police cannot accomplish any beneficial progression. It is essential to note here that in various aspects of human society, civilisation is split into layers and classes. Those who have access to societal resources and those who do not have because of structural inequality embedded within the social structure - this forms the foundation of social struggle in a stratified society like South Africa. Therefore, this viewpoint claims that the law enforcement agency is not grossly mandated with their lives to "serve the society" or "individuals". However, at the progress of the society in terms of crime reduction and prevention, the police have the normative right to serve some sections of the society and individuals that live within it.

### The broken windows theory

This theory was propounded by Kelling and Wilson in 1982. The broken windows theory is a criminological theory that states that visible signs of crime, anti-social behaviour and civil disorder create an urban environment that encourages further crime and disorder, including serious crimes (Sullivan & O'Keeffe, 2017:730-737). The essence of this theoretical approach suggests that policing methods that target minor crimes such as vandalism, public drinking and fare evasion help to create an atmosphere of order

and lawfulness, thereby preventing more serious crimes. Based on the conceptual clarification of this theory, the absence of social control always emboldens criminals in a socio-cultural setting (Sullivan et al., 2017:735). According to Jean (2007:48), the presence of social illness can turn an area into a refined floor of grave crime and delinquency.

Wilson and Kelling also assert that activities such as wandering, prostitution, drinking of alcohol, building up of garbage and the existence of numerous abandoned structures can be to the disadvantage of healthy inhabitants (Neubauer, 2011:14). Furthermore, as crime and delinquency become prevalent in an environment, inhabitants ultimately evacuate the society and a series of societal decays set in to lower the amount of informal social control (Jean, 2007:46). This raises the level of the secrecy of offenders' tendency to penetrate the public in order to cause a rise in crimes and irregularities. This, in turn, creates an additional societal illness and may even result in an increase in crime as indigenous offenders step up their criminality given the fact that communal regulators [the police] are insufficient to oversee and check criminal activities. The theory also emphasises the need for the community to work together with the police in order to eradicate all social ills in contemporary global societies.

## POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

Following an array of shortcomings confronting the effectiveness of CPFs across South African communities, it has become vital to design and subsequently implement effective and pragmatic policy recommendations as well as prevention and intervention programmes that will address the various challenges associated with the proper functioning of CPFs in South Africa. On the basis of the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered.

### Community involvement and partnership

Public involvement is the main and not just one of the stages in the development of Community Police Forums. It is an essential component of the whole practice; and the fundamental tactic that directs all elements from the very beginning to the execution and tracking of the various initiatives that create the strategy of the CPF (Ludman, 2010:6). Native and public organisations must also be responsible for operations aimed at creating a crime-free environment, as well as sustaining crime prevention attempts (Ludman, 2010:7). Essentially, community involvement can be split into three phases namely the preparatory, implementation and monitoring phase (Nkwenyane, 2011:147). All these phases play a significant role in ensuring successful crime prevention through CPFs.

### Preparatory phase

This phase involves the commitment of the stakeholders to the programme through understanding the local context within which they work. This is a survey phase that covers representative samples of police officials and members of the community, civil society, social, public services and administration, religious leaders or religious communities, the business sector and the media among

others, as well as relevant documentation such as written policies, legislation (Muniz, Bonsu, Dana, Ravichandran, Volpintesta, Clarno & Wences, 2020). This phase involves the development of a vision and mission statement as well as designing a strategy that considers local conditions of the region (Uganda Police Force, 2017:45).

### **Implementation phase**

The first step for the successful implementation of community policing is the commitment of all key political stakeholders in the government and relevant government agencies in adopting this new policing approach (Gjelsvik, 2020:23). The most effective strategy needed to implement effective community policing is to win community support by presenting them with the benefits of community policing. This should include the improved relationship between the police and all communities, resulting in increased effectiveness and efficiency of the police's crime prevention and crime reduction efforts (Uganda Police Force, 2017:49). The key political stakeholders should be motivated by the benefits that accrue from community policing.

### **Monitoring phase**

This is a follow-up stage that ensures the frequent overseeing, supervision and evaluation of the effectiveness of the CPFs at their respective locations. This is necessary to guarantee the success and workability of the strategies put in place to facilitate an effective community police forum.

From all indications, the community partnership is considered to be official with organised, regular communication between the police and the community in order to exchange information that will enhance the police's overall performance (Bratton, Griffiths, Mallon, Orr & Pollard, 1998). It should be noted that the essence of a public partnership is to maintain and establish some confidence between community members and the police. The partnership between the CPF and the community must, thus, be well-organised in decreasing crime. Cooperation and community involvement must be encouraged as an essential ingredient to ensure a successful CPF which is needed to reduce and prevent crimes across our neighbourhoods (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994:15).

### **Monitoring and evaluation**

Station commanders need to assess the CPF at their respective station to ensure that the forum is successful. There must be at least one representative from the regional office who will visit the law enforcement agencies and CPF members to ascertain a successful continuation and performance of the CPFs in expected ways. All public associates must also be encouraged to assess, appraise and advise the SAPS and CPF members on how to solve the challenges confronting the programme. In the same vein, communities also need to reveal the development that the South African Police Service has recorded towards ensuring effective crime control and reduction in such communities.

## **Civic consciousness and movements on public patrolling forum**

The movement of CPFs ought to be led in South Africa as the community in general has an insufficient understanding of how CPFs are involved in crime reduction and prevention. Consequently, the ongoing movement of CPFs must be conducted by all groups in South Africa. The movement can include CPF and SAPS contributors. Reproduction and automatic broadcasting of the importance of CPFs need to be implemented as part of the recognition of CPFs. This can be accomplished with the help of designing and distributing brochures comprising records of CPFs and involving the local media. Furthermore, CPF meetings need to be held regularly.

The movements will also assist in teaching and enlightening the public on the efficacy of CPFs. The public must also be informed on how a CPF can help to alleviate crime within their communities. Educating community members about what to do while crime is committed in their community should also form an integral part of the movement. Consequently, the public and law enforcement agencies will be made to realise their jobs and obligations in decreasing crime in communities. The campaigns will deliver adequate information on the prominence of conscious movement and collective social actions as a tool of effective crime reduction and control through Community Police Forums.

### **Communication**

Law enforcement agencies do not always provide a public response when crimes are committed due to the absence of effective communication channels. There is a defective communication gap between the police and community members who form the CPF. To fill this gap, an effective communication channel as part of its operating strategy must become crucial between law enforcement agencies and the community. The CPF also needs to discover all likely approaches of communication exchange so as to keep their corresponding groups knowledgeable on security and safety matters, and to enhance a thriving crime prevention platform.

### **Trust reconstruction**

There must be public awareness programmes across various communities about the need to facilitate and reconstruct an effective work relationship between the public and the police. Over the years, the police and the public have found it difficult to work together due to the attitudes of many police officials towards community members. This attitude remains a central construct for the lack of trust between the public and the police organisation. Even though this is true, the SAPS plays a vital role in protecting and enforcing the law in society. In the long run, both society and the police need each other, and by trusting each other and working together, most issues can be resolved.

## **CONCLUSION**

The study's objective was accomplished with regard to assessing CPFs effectiveness in reducing crime in rural and urban regions of South Africa. The findings of this research are compatible with

other research inquiries by contending that CPFs require assistance from both the police and the community in order to be effective. It is therefore argued that crime cannot be reduced by the police alone but that a collective social action is required to achieve this outcome. Based on the research outcomes, the public and the police are not working collectively to combat crime and delinquency in South Africa. As authorised by the 1993 Interim Constitution of South Africa, the CPF must be set up under the aegis of the police in order to alleviate crime prevalence. Nevertheless, despite the problems that hinder the effective functioning of CPFs, the community and the police are still struggling to work together as the success of this partnership has not been fully accomplished.

It was also disclosed that community members do not fulfil their CPF responsibilities by consulting CPF authorities when issues arise. On the contrary, the police are making endeavours to create a kind of community collaboration so that crime perpetration can be brought to the minimal. However, they also fail to achieve their CPF responsibilities by being brutal and secretive towards community members whom they are supposed to collaborate with in crime reduction. Consequently, police members and the CPF's crime prevention techniques designed to prevent and reduce crimes have not produced the desired results in the country. It can therefore be concluded that CPFs are ineffective in their objective of reducing crime in South Africa. It is also essential to create an improved corporation in order to ensure close collaboration between the SAPS and communities. It should be brought to the fore that the CPF cannot be abandoned, keeping in mind that the initiatives were formed when the thought of community policing was not fully conceived.

Having said that, a great deal has been achieved by bringing the public and the police collectively into CPFs. However, this article concludes that CPFs still encounter a host of challenges with the police and the community. Hence, a clarion call is made for joint work and further strengthening of the forums is still required to achieve the goals in this programme. Further empirical research inquiries on this discourse are suggested as a means of bringing the community and the police together, so that the age-long mission of community policing can be realised across a wide range of South African societies.

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# ARTICLE

## A POLYVALENT CONSTRUCT OF THE ROAD TRAFFIC ENVIRONMENT GENERATED THROUGH INTEGRATED THEORY

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### ABSTRACT

Road traffic is generally and rather simplistically described as the movement of persons and goods on a road transportation network. The environment in which road traffic takes place, is however, much more complicated than meets the eye, as it fundamentally relates to a wide and diverse array of man-made and natural phenomena. Building on this sentiment, this article postulates that the road traffic environment is multi-dimensional and multifaceted in nature, subsequently taking the form of a complex polyvalent socio-economic construct, where the observable segment thereof exists as the cumulative result of interactions between a variety of structural and bioecological dimensions hidden from casual observation. By making use of integrated theory, a polyvalent construct of the road traffic environment from which the complex and multidirectional nature thereof can be explored, were developed. This construct made use of an original theory that posed reality as resembling the double helix structure of DNA, together with Hemmingway's theory of omission and Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. By integrating these theories, it was articulated that the road traffic environment essentially extends from the visible into the invisible, with the majority of dimensions remaining hidden from casual observation if observed from a commonplace perspective.

### KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Road traffic; integrated theory; iceberg theory; ecological systems theory; traffic management and nature of reality.

### INTRODUCTION

Road traffic is largely construed to simply refer to the movement of persons and goods on road transportation networks (Gibbons, Lyytikäinen, Overman & Sanchis-Guarner, 2012:1). Although this might seem simple enough, authors such as by Bucchi, Sangiorgi and Vignali (2012:973); Ajala (2017:1); De Souza, Brennand, Yokoyama, Donato, Madeira and Villas (2017:2); Engström (2016:1444) and Boyce (2009:161) suggest that the environment in which this takes place is much more complicated than meets the eye, as the transportation of persons and goods essentially forms part of a much larger societal milieu. The construct implied by these authors holds that the road traffic environment is not limited to the arrangement of drivers, vehicles, pedestrians, roads, road furniture and traffic flow that society interacts with on a daily basis, but that it relates to a wide and diverse array of man-made and natural phenomena. Worryingly, it appears that literature exploring the true nature of these phenomena and the implicit complexity it brings to the road traffic environment is fairly limited. Contemporary works, as presented for example by Cirillo, Han, Kaushik and Lahiri (2018:428); Chen, Chen, Bui, and Hà (2017:2251); De Paola and Scoppa (2013:966), Gang, Yuan and Elhoseny (2019:433); Gopalakrishnan (2012:144); Grant-Muller and

Xu (2014:129); Oluwabemi (2010:3016); and Sadik-Khan, and Solomonow (2020:142) tend to focus on specific occurrences and conditions within the road traffic environment, such as road traffic crashes, technology, safety, maintenance and construction, law enforcement, traffic congestion and traffic flow. Although these works are of extensive significance as they address critical issues within the road traffic environment, the collective impression thereof tends to create a rather fragmented view of this environment, thus not illuminating the true complexity thereof.

Posed from this notion, this article postulates that the road traffic environment is multidimensional and multifaceted in nature, subsequently taking the form of a complex polyvalent socio-economic construct, where the observable segment thereof exists as the cumulative result of interactions between a variety of structural and bioecological dimensions hidden from casual observation. To explore this postulation, integrated theory was used to create a suitable, contemporary relevant and multidimensional archetype in which the road traffic environment can be considered. Widely used in criminology, integrated theory, as is highlighted by Elliott (2012); Krohn and Eassey (2014:460); Grubb and Posick (2018:289) together with Henry and Lanier (2018:317) essentially involves articulating the key concepts, assumptions and propositions of two or more existing theories into a single, unified and consistent theoretical premise. Although researchers who use integrated theory are subjected to the threat of selecting the wrong mixture of theories for integration, it provides a notable opportunity to expand and refine current theoretical propositions (Shoemaker, 2010:345). Most critically, yet rarely explicitly stated, is the notion that a theoretical premise developed in relation to a particular phenomenon is either directly or with slight alteration transferable to other phenomena.

Taking this sentiment into consideration, this research used one original and two existing theories to create a polyvalent construct of the road traffic environment, from which the complex and multidirectional nature thereof can be explored. By equating reality with the double helix structure of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), multidirectional dimensions existing throughout the whole road traffic environment were identified. Through Ernest Hemmingway's theory of omission, various structural dimensions which effectively dictate the condition in which the road traffic environment exists emerged. By using Urie Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory of learning, bioecological dimensions representing various systemic environments present and at work within the road traffic environment were highlighted. These theories were then integrated into a single polyvalent construct of the road traffic environment, revealing an assortment of visible and latent dimensions fundamentally enabling and shaping the existence thereof.

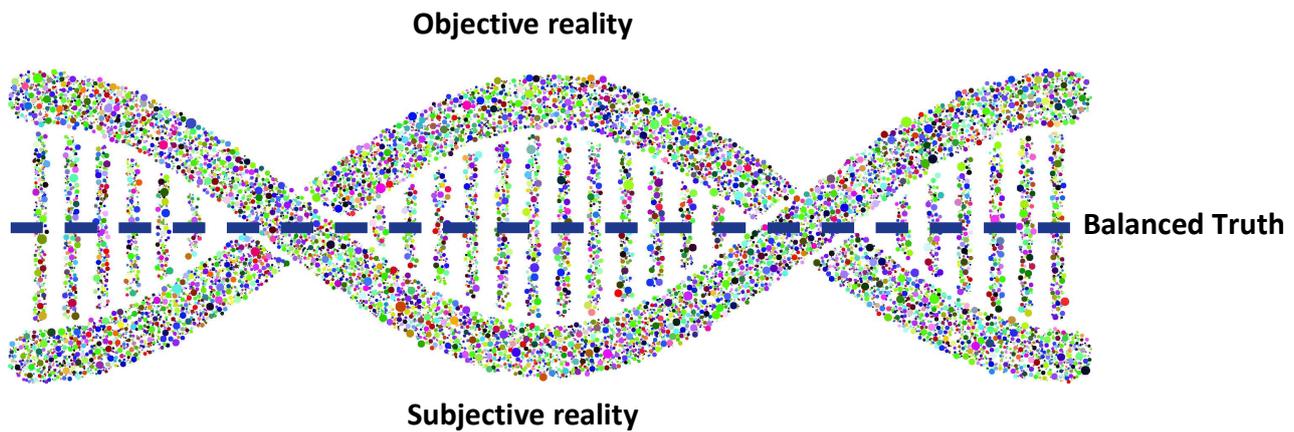
## MULTIDIRECTIONAL DIMENSIONS

Although the nature of reality has stood at the centre of scientific and philosophical debate for millennia, humanity is yet to fully articulate the complicated realm in which it exists (Forrester, 2017:4). Central to this debate is the notion of an objective

*vis-à-vis*, a subjective reality. These paradigms, although not without criticism, denote two central epitomes which shape our contemporary understanding of reality (Webb, 2017:163). The ontological and epistemological positions held by these paradigms, as is outlined by Atieno, (2009:13); Crotty (1998:7); Moon and Blackman (2017); Mulder (2004); Savoia (2015:96) together with Stefanidou and Skordoulis (2014:184) appear to be directly opposed to each other, thus creating the traditional belief that they are fundamentally incompatible (Ratner, 2002:3). Yet, there is a growing body of literature suggesting that these paradigms are not only compatible with each other, but are to some degree interconnected and may even be symbiotic in nature (Altman, 2003:2; Glatfelter, 2019:515; Gleib, Goldman & Weinstein, 2018:695; McDowell, 2003:695; Heylighen, 1997:66; Wang 2017:3). In this regard, Richmond (2019) introduced an interesting hypothesis on the transferability of these paradigms through what he calls the "objective-subjective equivalence principle". He argues that any event that is described either objectively or subjectively will inescapably have a *mutatis mutandis* corresponding objective or subjective explanation, as it is the same phenomenon being viewed from a different perspective. From this perspective, reality can be better understood if it is viewed as being both equally objective and subjective at the same time. The objective and subjective dimensions of reality accordingly exist as parallels and are translatable to each other, as they are fundamentally inseparable.

Building on Richmond's hypothesis, this article proposes a consideration of reality based on the double helix structure of DNA. The double helix structure finds its origins in the work of Watson and Crick (1953:737), who brought together data from several researchers to construct a three-dimensional model of DNA molecules (Pray, 2008; Xu, 2019:1). Within Watson and Crick's construct, a DNA molecule is described as two anti-parallel sugar and phosphate strands coiling around a common axis, while being connected through the interactions of various nucleotide base pairs (Bansal, 2003:1557). Watson (1968:72), reflecting on their discovery, provides a much simpler explanation of this structure by describing it as resembling a spiral staircase, with the base pairs forming the steps thereof. In terms of functionality, Bailey (2020), Cobb (2015:593), Olby (2003:402) and Travers and Muskhelishvili (2015:2280) contend that the manner and sequence in which the base pairs are connected to the sugar and phosphate strands constitutes a wide array of biochemical information, collectively accumulating into the building blocks of life.

With some minor alterations, the double helix structure provides for a pragmatic means of considering the nature of reality. While the sugar and phosphate strands within the biological double helix construct are described as anti-parallel, thus meaning that they run in opposite directions, let us, for the purpose of this construct hold the position that they are parallel, thus moving in the same direction. This adjustment is necessary as reality can, until irrefutably proven otherwise at least, move only in one direction through time and space (Kitching, 2016; Siegel, 2018; Weiner, 2016). These then parallel strands twisting around each other, symbolise objective and subjective reality moving forward in time



and space. These strands are twisted around each other as a result of the interactions of the base pairs (Baily, 2020), which is representative of the exchanges that occur between objective and subjective reality. These interactions have an inescapable influence on both realities, thus shaping how both realities exist. The central axis around which these strands revolve, is the place where these interactions exist in equilibrium and thus, is the point from which a balanced observation of reality can be made.

This double helix-based consideration of reality provides for a polyvalent paradigm in which the road traffic environment can be considered. This consideration can best be demonstrated by means of an example: let's presume that road traffic in a particular region is characterised by an unusually high rate of road traffic crashes. This crash rate forms part of the objective reality, as it fundamentally exists independent from the human mind and subsequently is the same for everyone. However, it will be a reasonable assumption that this high crash rate is the result of occurrences

within the subjective reality of road traffic, such as perceptions, attitudes and beliefs. On the other hand, the high crash rate in all probability will alter subjective reality, as it ultimately will have an influence on the very same perceptions, attitudes and beliefs that created it. Subsequently, reality should be considered to be both subjective and objective at the same time. These realities exist in parallel and are intertwined with each other as a result of natural, yet inescapable interactions between them. One reality fundamentally shapes the other, while a balanced observation of reality can be made at the point where these interactions meet. This construct of reality subsequently implies that the road traffic environment should be viewed from the central axis around which both objective and subjective reality twists and turns. From this central point, reality can be viewed in multiple directions, thus enabling the identification of various structural, bioecological and referential relationships that exist within and between the subjective and objective dimensions of the road traffic environment.

## STRUCTURAL DIMENSIONS

The author wants to highlight from the very start that the principle discussed here is by no means something new, as it has been applied in relation to the road traffic environment before (Tshwane University of Technology, 2004). Despite its existence, the notional and material absence thereof in both literature and real-world application is not only noticeable, but disconcerting. As will become evident later, the theory, as is outlined below, provides for a bisectonal view of the road traffic environment, thus revealing an array of latent, but significant structural complexities that this environment consists of.

The theory of omission, also known as the iceberg theory, is a well-known concept that over time, has been applied in a wide variety of notional and material settings (Business Dictionary, 2019). This theory largely emerged from the writings of the American author Ernest Hemingway, who introduced a new apothegmatic writing style during the 1920s, which was directly contradictive to the over-elaborated penmanship of that era (Bajagain, 2018; Darzikola, 2013:9). Hemingway summarised his theory as (Daoshan & Shuo, 2014:80; Farooq, 2015):

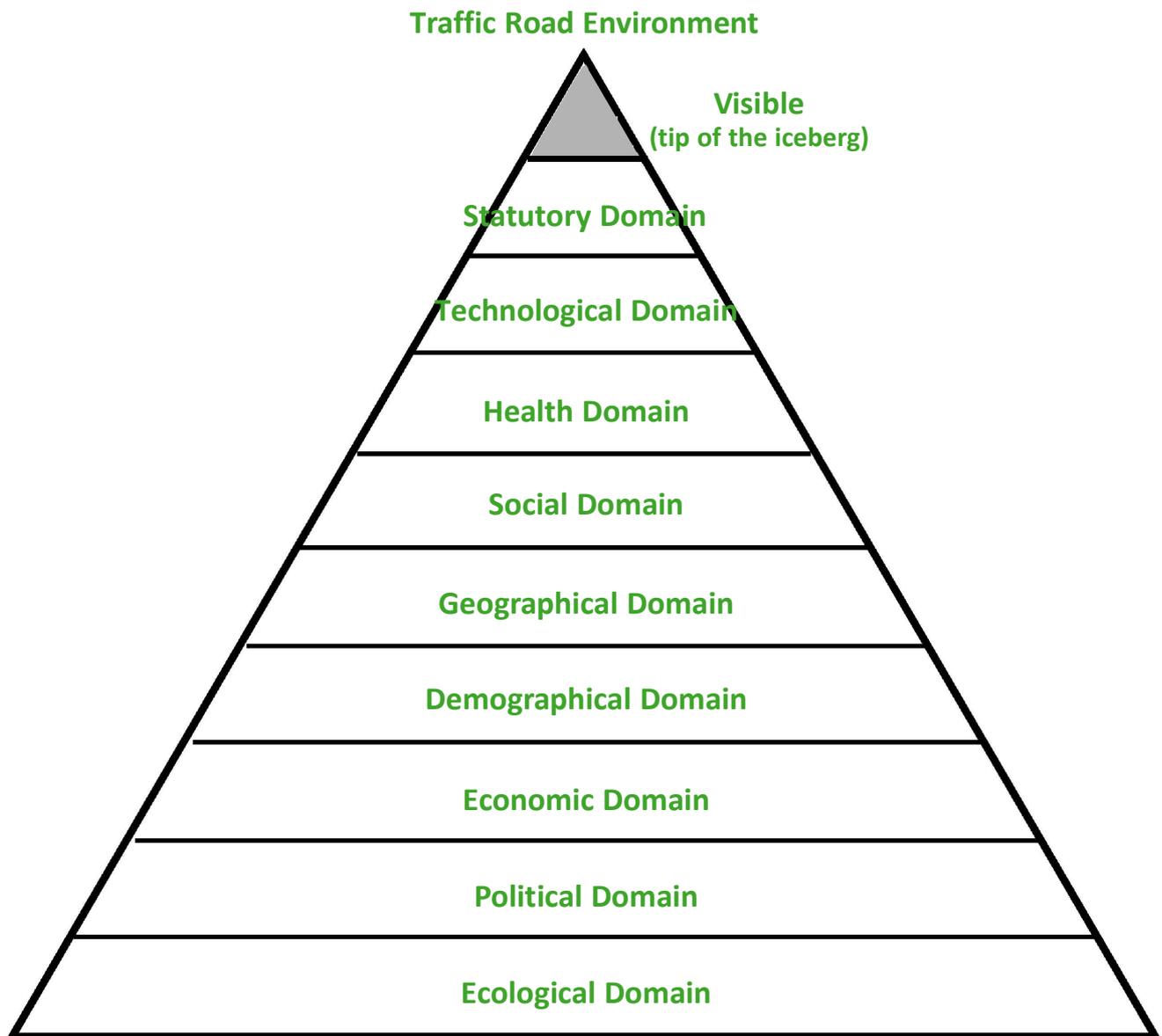
"If a writer of prose knows enough of what he is writing about he may omit things that he knows and the reader, if the writer is writing truly enough, will have a feeling of

those things as strongly as though the writer had stated them. The dignity of movement of an iceberg is due to only one-eighth of it being above water. A writer who omits things because he does not know them only makes hollow places in his writing."

As is clear from this description, Hemingway believed that only the "tip of the iceberg" should be shown in fiction, while the knowledge that the author has about the characters, contexts and situations, that form the bulk of the story are omitted (Scanlan, 2005). The reader is subsequently free to uncover these elements, giving the story weight and gravity (Rodríguez Pazos, 2018:2; Stoltzfuz, 2015:106; Xie, 2008:156). Over time, this notion translated into the postulation that in many, if not all cases, only a very small amount of information of a situation or phenomenon is available or visible, while the "true" information or bulk of the data is either unavailable or hidden from casual observation (Thompson, 2014). A situation or incident should thus be thought of like an iceberg; while only one-eighth of a phenomenon, situation or structure are visible above the water, the most prominent and essential part of such phenomenon, situation or structure, the remaining seven-eighths thereof remain hidden from sight (Fairchild, 2013; Hanley, 1999:2; Rogers, 2017).

Taking the diversity of regional conditions and socio-economic dynamics across global regions into consideration, the application of the theory of omission within the context of the road traffic environment can potentially take countless forms. However, for the purpose of illustrating the application of this theory within the context of this environment, a generic prototype based on contemporary conditions across the African continent were constructed. The African region is broadly characterised by rapid

urbanisation, poverty, economic and social inequality, violence, poor political leadership and a relatively high rate of fatal road crashes, in addition to outdated and under-developed transportation and technological infrastructures (Awumbila, 2017:4; Güneralp, Lwasa, Masundire, Parnell, & Seto, 2017:4; Kazeem, 2019). Considering the real-world impact these conditions have on the road traffic environment, the following model emerged:



From this diagram it becomes clear that the application of the theory of omission to the road traffic environment provides for a bisectional view of the structural domains that this environment within a real-world setting consists of. It suggests that the road traffic environment is not limited to the consortium of vehicles, pedestrians, road networks, cyclists, traffic crashes and congestion that society observes, experiences and interacts with at the "visible tip of the iceberg". These observations, experiences and interactions, irrespective of whether they are objective or subjective in nature, rather embody the cumulative result of relationships and

interactions that exist between and within a variety of seemingly unrelated structural domains, imperceptibly interwoven into observable day-to-day road traffic-related occurrences. These structural domains exist "below the water line" as they are fundamentally hidden from causal observation if the road traffic environment is observed from a typical everyday perspective. Despite their inconspicuousness, these domains constitute the largest and most crucial segment of the road traffic environment, as they not only embody the key enabling factors that allow for this environment to exist, but also shape the condition it exists in over time

and space. Visible "above the waterline" is thus a small segment of a very large and intricate environment that extends far beyond the notion of a concrete visibility.

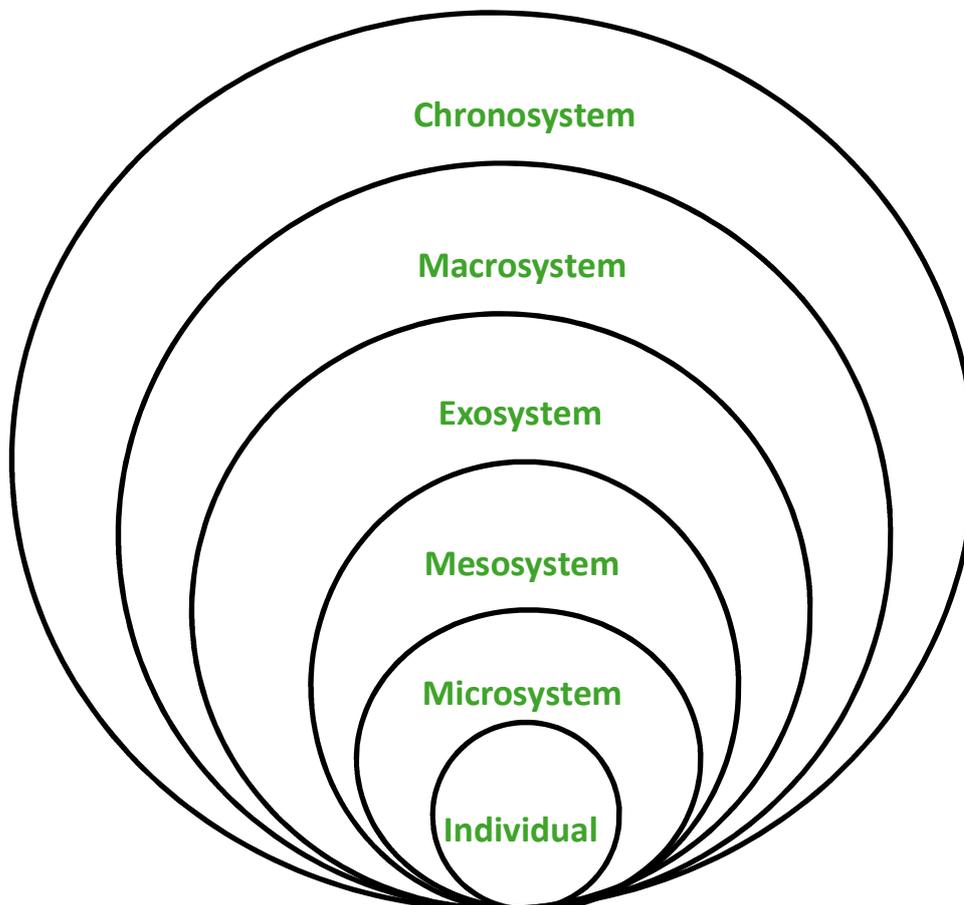
Applying the theory of omission within the context of the road traffic environment further suggests that this environment should not only be thought of in terms of observable everyday occurrences, but rather as a cumulative result of a wider array of interconnected structural domains, which constantly changes the appearance thereof. Multiple examples can be used to demonstrate the application of this premise: social conditions such as unemployment, poverty and social cohesion will undoubtedly have a negative impact on the state of this environment.

Geographical and demographical factors will impact on society's accessibility to this environment while the statutory domain will define the regulation thereof. An ailing or dysfunctional economy will typically result in a shortage of resources for infrastructure development and technological advancement, while a poorly maintained health system will impact on post-crash responses and driver fitness. On the other hand, the opposite of these illustrations will also be true; a booming economy will be accompanied by contemporary-relevant infrastructure development and a rapid onset in the use of technology, while an efficient and accessible health system will contribute towards reducing road fatalities and improved injury rehabilitation.

## BIOECOLOGICAL DIMENSIONS

Developed by American psychologist Urie Bronfenbrenner during the late 1970s, ecological systems theory, also known as the bioecological theory, primarily seeks to explain how different environmental systems impact on human development (Etekal & Mahoney, 2017:239). This theory is directed towards understanding how systems and relationships existing in a person's societal environment shapes such a person's development and growth (Johnson, 2008:2). Similarly, Darling (2007:203) describes this theory as a critical tool towards determining and examining the context emerging from various interrelated and multidimensional environmental elements and the interactions between them that

affect the development of an individual. As is highlighted by Christensen (2016:20); Guhn and Goelman (2011:206); Swick and Williams (2006:372); Tudge, Mokrova, Hatfield and Karnik (2009:201) together with Vélez-Agosto, Soto-Crespo, Vizcarrondo-Oppenheim, Vega-Molin and Coll (2017:902), Bronfenbrenner postulate that human development transpires across various interrelated systemic environments interacting with an individual and where appropriate, with social groups. Over the course of 20 years, Bronfenbrenner identified five systemic environments in which development takes place (Leong & Tang, 2016:260):

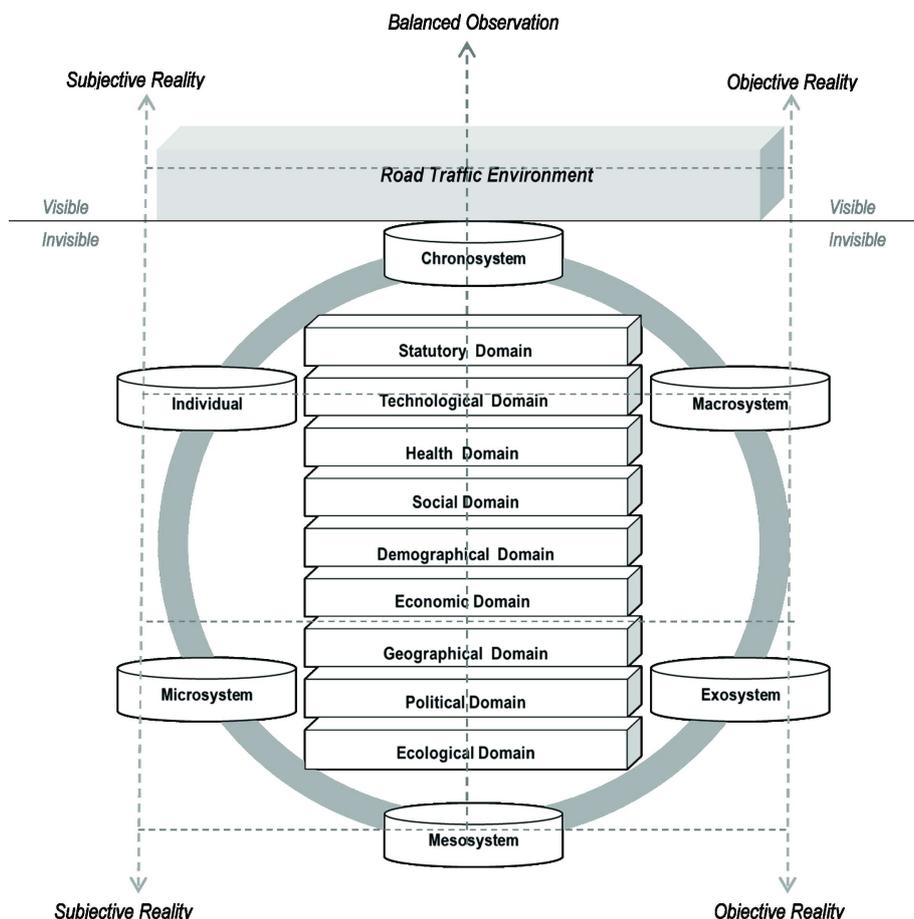


As is clear from the diagram on p35, the individual, or in some cases a social group, stands central to a variety of interrelated systemic environments. These systems which provide the context in which development takes place, not only interact with each other, but also with individuals and groups while these same groups and individuals interact with these various systems, thus resulting in multiple proximal processes (Rosa & Tudge, 2013:243). Within this framework, the microsystem represents the innermost level of development and largely encompasses the interpersonal interactions a person has with other individuals or groups (Pleck, 2007:199). The mesosystem involves various settings or structures that an individual has frequent contact with, while the exosystem defines the larger social system in which an individual or group does not necessarily function directly in (Shen-Miller, Isacco, Davie, Jean & Phan, 2013:500). The macrosystem is representative of the various cultural and social norms found in today's diverse societies. Lastly, the chronosystem fundamentally denotes systemic or environmental changes that occur across time and space (Sincero, 2012). Proximal processes both within and between these various systems subsequently influence how a person or group subsequently develops and behaves (Taylor & Gebre, 2016:205).

Although this theory is primarily directed towards studying, learning and development, the transferability of its premise to the road traffic environment is obvious. There is no question that the various systemic environments, as was highlighted by Bronfenbrenner, are indeed present and at work within the structural and referential existence of the road traffic environment. The proximal processes occurring both within and between these systemic environments play a significant role in how the road traffic environment exists at a specific point in time and space. Within this paradigm, a road user for example interacts directly with other road users, thus representing the microsystem. The interactions emerging from the microsphere, sequentially interact with the mesosphere, represented in this case by various material elements, such as road furniture, road conditions, traffic control mechanisms, traffic-related incidents and transport modes. The exosystem is both metaphysical and psychological in nature, as it encompasses interactions between road user groups, such as those between drivers and pedestrians, drivers and cyclists, private drivers and taxi drivers, while law enforcement, other regulatory structures and political systems form the macrosystem. The chronosystem considers how the road traffic environment changes referentially and structurally over time and space.

## THE ROAD TRAFFIC ENVIRONMENT: A POLYVALENT VIEW

Even if considered individually, the various theories outlined above each provides for a pragmatic and extensive perspective of the road traffic environment. However, when they are viewed collectively, a thought-provoking articulation of the multidimensional nature of this intricate environment emerges. By integrating these theories into a single paradigm, a polyvalent architype of the road traffic environment that is not limited to the visible manifestation thereof emerges:



From the diagram published on p36, it becomes clear that the section of the road traffic environment that is observable through casual observation, constitutes a relatively small portion of a much larger construct. As was postulated by Hemingway's theory of omission, the bulk of the information relevant to a phenomenon, in this case the road traffic environment, exists "below the waterline", as both the structural and bioecological dimensions thereof fundamentally exist below this line. The structural dimensions of this construct, also emerging from the theory of omission, denote various relationships and interactions that exist between and within a variety of seemingly unrelated structural domains existing below the waterline. Although these relationships and interactions are generally hidden from casual observation, the cumulative result thereof manifests above the waterline, impacting directly on how the road traffic environment exists at a particular moment in time and space. While the principle denoted by the theory of omission is traditionally demonstrated by means of a triangle, this construct opted to move away from this tradition by depicting the structural dimensions existing both below and above the waterline as a set of three-dimensional rectangular shapes. This adjustment was necessary as a triangle generally indicates the presence of a predetermined or existing hierarchy within a specific context. While it can be argued that these structural dimensions can be arranged into a hierarchy, this will only be possible if these dimensions are considered in relation to specific conditions prevailing in a particular region at a specific time. Therefore, for the purpose of simplicity it is argued that within this construct, these structural dimensions have an equal impact on what can be seen above the waterline. Despite this notion, within a real-world application of this construct there will be substantial flexibility to arrange and prioritise these structural domains as is relevant to the conditions concerned.

The various systemic environments, as was denoted by Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory, constitute the bioecological dimensions relevant to this construct. While the premise of this theory is normally demonstrated by means of a stacked Venn diagram, this construct opted to move away from this traditional articulation by presenting these environments as a set of inter-linked bioecological dimensions that fundamentally encircle the various structural dimensions. This adjustment emerged as a result of a prominent, yet underlying assumption: It would be reasonable to accept that these systemic environments will be present and at work within each of the various structural domains, as applicable to the context of the environment concerned. If viewed from a real-world perspective, it will however be a practical impossibility to articulate and manipulate the bioecological relationships and interactions that exist within the individual structural domains specifically in relation to the road traffic environment. It will thus be more sensible to consider only the collective outcome of these interactions and relationships in relation to the various bioecological dimensions when thinking about the road traffic environment. It thus encircles the structural dimensions, as in principle it should not be considered in relation to an individual structural domain but the collective outcome, thus applying equally to all structural

domains at all times. In contrast to the structural domains, the bioecological domains are not changeable in relation to the context concerned, as they will fundamentally always be present.

The ontological position that reality is simultaneously both objective and subjective in nature, while being interconnected to each through a range of metaphysical and material interactions, thus taking on the shape of a ladder, is imperative to this construct. This ladder will inescapably transform into the shape of a spiral staircase, as the interactions taking place between objective and subjective reality will bend and twist them around each other. This spiral staircase essentially binds the structural and bioecological dimensions together, as it exists consistently both "above and below the waterline", thus extending beyond the visible into the invisible. As can be seen from the diagram, both objective and subjective reality exist in parallel on the outskirts of this construct, thus enclosing both the structural and bioecological dimensions, implying these realities exist equally throughout all these dimensions. As interactions between these realities take place, a central axis between them that signifies where these interactions are equally objective and subjective, will emerge. By viewing the road traffic environment from this central axis, a balanced observation encompassing both the structural and bioecological dimensions can be made. This balanced observation can be considered to be multidirectional, as the road traffic environment can be observed vertically and/or horizontally. A vertical observation will involve viewing the road traffic environment for example from the visible domain downwards into the invisible or upwards from the invisible towards the visible. Similarly, a horizontal observation can be made in either the direction of subjective or objective reality. Subsequently, this diagram suggests that the road traffic environment and its various dimensions should be viewed from the inside, rather than from the outside.

## CONCLUSION

By using integrated theory, this article explored the multi-dimensional nature of the road traffic environment. Instead of concentrating on that segment of the road traffic environment with which society interacts each day, emphasis was placed on those dimensions that are generally hidden from sight when this environment is subjected to casual observation. By using Hemingway's theory of omission, it was held that the visible segment of the road traffic environment is a small segment of a much larger construct. This visible segment fundamentally exists as a result of an array of interactions and relationships that take place between an assembly of structural domains which are seemingly unrelated to the road traffic environment, thus existing "below the waterline". By transferring the premise of Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory of learning to the context of the road traffic environment, various bioecological dimensions encircling the mentioned structural dimensions were identified. The bioecological dimensions, also existing "below the waterline", denote various proximal processes existing within and between various systemic environments that alter the context in which the road traffic environment should be considered. Both these structural and bioecological

dimensions are binded together by reality that assumes the form of the double helix structure of DNA, where subjective and objective reality bend and shape around each other as a result of inescapable interaction between them. A central axis emerges between these interactions from which a balanced and multidirectional observation of the road traffic environment can be made.

Although the construct presented here provides for a new paradigm in which the road traffic environment can be considered, it is limited in the explanation of significantly complex phenomena. To explain the true complexity of the road traffic environment will be a mammoth and ongoing endeavour, requiring constant empirical adjustment and reconfiguration. The author hopes that this construct will at least provide for a starting point from which such an exploration can take place. Although this construct was articulated in relation to the road traffic environment, it does present a suitable school of thought from which to consider other societal phenomena. The premise presented by this construct for example, will be easily transferable to other contemporary conundrums, such as public safety, community-based crime prevention and local economic development.

As we move forward through the 21<sup>st</sup> century which, at least until now, has been characterised by rapid technological advances, significant socio-economic change and a variety of potential ecological crises in addition to global rethink of everyday interactions brought about by the COVID-19 pandemic, it is necessary to expand the way we think about everyday occurrences and conditions. We simply cannot continue to consider routine phenomena as, one, two or even three-dimensional events. Humanity occupies a domain which is fundamentally an articulation of various perceivable and unperceivable dimensions, simply appearing as everyday life. If we do not acknowledge the multidimensionality of the human existence and incorporate this notion into our contemporary school of thought, I fear that we will make little progress towards understanding our place and purpose of the plain we occupy in the infinite expanse of the universe.

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# ARTICLE

## THE STATE OF IMPLEMENTATION OF CRIME PREVENTION COORDINATING STRUCTURES (COMMUNITY SAFETY FORUMS) BY MUNICIPALITIES IN SOUTH AFRICA

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### ABSTRACT

This article describes the role that municipalities should play in the implementation of Community Safety Forums (crime prevention coordinating structures), according to policy. It further assesses whether municipalities are playing such a role in the study area in order to establish whether municipalities are the correct structures to implement these forums. The success of crime prevention strategies is based on the involvement of all role-players in every level of intervention. The approach to be adopted in preventing crime must be collaborative in nature at theoretical, policy, strategic and tactical/practical level. This calls for a paradigm shift from police to policing and from crime prevention to community safety. This shift should ensure that other role-players in locale are aware of the role that they must play as part of the total service delivery process. Community safety is an important service as it deals with the development of a particular local community. As the Department of Cooperative Governance and Traditional Affairs (COGTA) is embarking on Integrated Urban Development projects, aimed at facilitating work relationship between different stakeholders to ensure proper working municipal systems, community safety is the measured part of such initiative. Crime repels investors and municipalities that do not attracts investors become a government liability and lack the necessary infrastructure. The article focuses on two provinces namely the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal. The findings assist to answer the question posed in the research and in formulating recommendations on how to improve the role of municipalities in the implementation of CSFs. In order to achieve the objectives of this article, a qualitative research design was followed. Descriptive and explanatory approaches were followed. One-on-one semi-structured interviews with police officials, municipal representatives, COGTA representative, CS&L representatives and APCOF representative were conducted. Sixteen people were interviewed. Research of this nature assists in ensuring that existing and contemplated strategies are tested to check whether they are yielding the desired results.

### KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Crime; community safety; crime prevention; role-player; service delivery.

## OVERVIEW OF CRIME PREVENTION THROUGH MUNICIPALITIES

The majority of countries in the world have realised that the most effective way to prevent crime, is by devising crime prevention strategies at local or municipal level. The logic behind this shift in approaching crime prevention is the fact that crime occurs at this level of governance. In addition, municipalities consist of various stakeholders that can pool their expertise to prevent crime (Pheiffer, 2013).

These structures also have a broad range of community representations which comprise ward councillors and different NGOs that can be found in a particular locality (National Development Plan, 2011). Communities are better represented at municipality level than in a law enforcement agency such as the police. A variety of South African legislation regulates the role of municipalities in crime prevention in general and community safety in particular.

Chapter 3 of the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 states that municipalities must set targets for the delivery and promotion of safe and healthy environment. This Act, together with the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, directs local municipalities to establish appropriate mechanisms, processes and procedures to enable local communities to participate in the affairs of the municipality. The objectives of such participation include reviewing the needs of communities and to involve the community in decision-making. Municipalities must count on the involvement of communities and community organisations in the affairs of the municipalities.

Act 32 of 2000 is in line with the provisions of The White Paper on Local Government (1998), which also emphasises the role of local government in crime prevention by strategising and implementing social crime prevention measures to promote healthy, prosperous and well-informed communities in which criminal activities have little opportunity to increase. This entity's service delivery function comprises different political parties, various community organisations and government departments (Pheiffer, 2013:98).

However, what is not clear from this legislation is how the police can be involved in crime prevention approaches if they are organised by a municipality since it is expected of the South African Police Service (SAPS), for instance, to execute their own crime prevention initiatives. Local police stations have to meet the targets that are either set by the national or provincial office. Some crime prevention initiatives cannot be announced and discussed in an open community meeting as would be with the majority of municipal initiatives. To discuss crime prevention initiatives such as stop and search operations, roadblocks or raids will yield negative results and not achieve the intended objectives if discussed in a public platform.

Some components in the SAPS, such as Social Crime Prevention, facilitate community participation in preventing crime. This latter component allows for some crime prevention issues to be discussed in the open and to include community representatives. This component resonates well with crime

prevention being organised at municipal level. The question is whether this mean that municipalities are better located to organise social crime prevention and prevent crime in total? The mentioned legislation does not adequately cover the role of municipalities in the prevention of crime and provision of community safety.

If municipalities are going to take away the whole crime prevention function from the police, it will mean that all cities must have municipal police with an extended crime prevention mandate. The absence of crime prevention units in itself leaves the community vulnerable because there will be no well-formulated plans to provide for their safety. The ideal would be if more resources and funds can be channelled to municipal police to cater for a crime prevention unit.

Although this article deals with the role of municipalities in crime prevention, the participants were asked about their preference with regard to the placement of the crime prevention function. The majority indicated that it should remain with the (national) police but that municipalities should play an important role to ensure that community safety is ensured. They suggested that municipalities should be part of the performance assessment of the station commander/crime prevention commander. It will also be important to ensure that various stakeholders are included in the planning and execution of crime prevention initiatives, unless it will jeopardise such planned operations. Instead of municipalities being burdened with the crime prevention function, the local police station must be empowered to ensure the provision of crime prevention.

Local municipalities should be one of many stakeholders and/or be given a watchdog status regarding the performance of the local police station in terms of crime prevention in a particular locality. Although the former discussion provides the alternative that can be considered to ensure proper crime prevention strategies, it is not the focus of this article. Crime prevention strategies should be guided by some established concepts and contexts. The following discussion conceptualises crime prevention.

For any crime prevention initiatives to be a success, it must be based on a particular model to ensure that they are well-thought and accurately conceptualised. Models are useful because they reflect broad tendencies at practical and policy level and also indicate the strengths and weaknesses that exist in crime prevention strategies. It should be stated that at a practical level no one model can be used in a strategy but that elements of different models should be fitted in a crime prevention strategy/approach. The politics of crime prevention is of crucial concern in terms of the means and goals that are adopted in making the world a safer and better place. Accordingly, the manner in which crime prevention politics is construed has significant ramifications for how intervention in practical level is developed (Fleming, 2006:198).

Crime prevention is a simple and direct approach that seeks to protect potential victims from criminal attacks, by anticipating the possibility of an attack and eliminating or reducing the opportunity for it to occur, as well as the possibility of personal harm or loss

of property should it occur (The National Crime Prevention Institute, 2005:1). The International Centre for the Prevention of Crime (2010:2) identifies the following four types of crime prevention approaches:

- Crime prevention through social development or social crime prevention: This includes a range of social, educational, health and environmental measures which can help to reduce the risk of offending and victimisation, and reinforce protective factors. Social approaches are based on policies which support the most vulnerable populations or areas and have been integrated into all prevention programmes.
- Situational crime prevention: This includes various approaches which aim to reduce opportunities for and the benefits of offending, as well as increase the risk of being caught, primarily through the design of the built environment.
- Community or local crime prevention: This includes all activities that help to change conditions in neighbourhoods that influence crime, victimisation and resulting insecurity.
- Prevention of recidivism: This is concerned with the prevention of recidivism through the social reintegration of offenders.

Well-planned crime prevention strategies not only prevent crime and victimisation but also promote community safety and contribute to sustainable development. Effective and responsible crime prevention enhances citizens' quality of life. The long-term benefits include a reduction of the costs associated with the criminal justice system as well as the social costs that result from crime (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime Prevention, 2009:16). The UN Office on Drugs and Crime Prevention (UNODC) outlines the following basic principles for crime prevention:

- Government leadership at all levels is required to create and maintain an institutional framework for effective crime prevention;
- socio-economic development and inclusion refer to the need to integrate crime prevention into relevant social and economic policies and focus on the social integration of at-risk communities, children, families and youth;
- given the wide-ranging nature of the causes of crime and the skills and responsibilities required to address them, cooperation and partnerships between government departments and authorities, civil society organisations, the business sector and private citizens are required;
- sustainability and accountability can only be achieved if adequate resources are made available to establish, sustain and evaluate programmes, and there is clear accountability for funding, implementation, evaluation and achievement of planned results;
- knowledge-based strategies, policies and programmes need to be based on a broad multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge, together with evidence regarding specific crime problems, their causes and proven practices;
- interdependence refers to the need for national crime prevention diagnoses and strategies to take into account, where appropriate, the links between local criminal problems and

international organised crime; and

- the principle of differentiation calls for crime prevention strategies to pay due regard to the different needs of men and women and consider the special needs of vulnerable members of society (UNODC, 2009:20).

The basic principles of crime prevention emphasise that government should play a leadership role. They also recognise the importance of a multidisciplinary approach which increases the base of resources that can be used to prevent crime. In order for crime prevention to be a success, strategies, implementation and evaluation should be coordinated and formalised. Crime prevention initiatives can be better coordinated and outcomes of the projects better communicated if there is a central structure in the local government where all role-players come together from time to time (Pheiffer, 2013).

As will become clear from the findings in this article, municipalities have a pivotal role to must play in crime prevention in their localities. They are capable of organising crime prevention programmes and projects, though this is the case, they must work hand in hand with the police. Even though the police might have limited resources and skills at times, if they work with various role-players, the stakeholders will achieve more.

When referring to service delivery in the context of crime prevention, one speaks about the manner in which crime is controlled. The involvement of multiple role-players should be done carefully to prevent confusion and an overlapping of executing functions. Such confusion may rob the community of their right to live in a crime-free locality. Judging from the number of service delivery protests during 2018 and the beginning of 2019, one can easily deduct that municipalities are struggling to provide in community needs. Without proper planning, it is unthinkable that an additional responsibility such as crime prevention be added to already struggling institutions.

Placing the crime prevention function at municipal level is based on the conservative model of crime prevention. This model is based on the premise that the basic issue regarding crime prevention is crime control. The key issue is adherence to the law and law enforcement, therefore crime prevention should be directed at addressing current and potential violation of the law. Crime is ultimately regarded as a matter of incentives and deterrents.

This model combines elements of the classic criminological theory (with an emphasis on voluntarism and personal responsibility) with rational choice theory (which regards human behaviour primarily in terms of calculated perceptions of the costs and benefits of a particular course of action). The solution to crime is to increase the costs and reduce the opportunities for the commission of crime, and to increase the likelihood of detection (White, 2002:102).

The model is based on traditional crime control measures which rely on community members to play an auxiliary role in support of official law enforcement agencies. The community ought to be the eyes and ears of the police and merely assist their crime control efforts. Citizen participation is channelled through official

committees that, in terms of this model, should be police-led and reflect a crime control agenda (Hughes, 2007:36). The addition to the assertion of this model is that the community, through different role-players, should also inform the crime prevention agenda.

Participation by different stakeholders does not mean involvement in action only but also in generating ideas, planning, implementation and evaluation. Such participation enhances a sense of responsibility, commitment, awareness and accountability. The idea that crime prevention belongs to any one government agency should be renounced (Palmiotto, 2011:157).

Lastly, it is important to state that crime prevention should be everyone's responsibility and not that of an individual department or institution. The department/institution specialising in policing should be allowed to lead the myriad stakeholders so that skills and resources can be allocated. According to Howitt (2012:32), crime affects the community in a variety of ways. It is part of the broader political agenda that attracts many commentators from various party affiliations. Crime prevention is a sophisticated, shared management enterprise. The process of establishing an optimal management arrangement for any shared enterprise is known as governance and the achievement of good governance is a key goal for delivering effective crime prevention programmes (Homel, 2010:120).

Viewing crime in this context brings about a shift on crime control practised which focuses on the police to prevent crime alone and redirects the focus towards policing which include different crime prevention actors. Central to this shift has been the debate on the role of civil society in the development of local crime and safety policies. Many crime prevention partnerships are based on the premise that the mobilisation of local knowledge is fundamental to the construction of just and democratic forms of security governance (International Centre for the Prevention of Crime, 2010:119).

The approach of involving a municipality in local crime prevention will ensure a shift in policing of a local community. Station commanders would have to present their police stations' crime prevention plans to the municipal manager who could, during the assessment of station commanders, add a report regarding the achievement of the set crime prevention targets. The report can be included in a report to senior managers regarding the performance of a particular station commander. This will facilitate the working relationship between the police and municipality and ensure that municipalities form part of crime prevention programmes in a particular locality.

COGTA and provincial SAPS offices can develop and an inter-governmental framework dealing with the work relationship between municipal managers and station commanders. This will aim to regulate a professional relationship between these two important crime prevention stakeholders and avoid friction where a station commander feels that he or she is reporting to the municipal manager. This also ensures police accountability in their work as part of providing community services to the community. Adopting this approach will mean that the SAPS Head Office will not set targets regarding crime prevention but that it will be done at a local level.

Crime prevention at local level is also dominating the scenes in other countries. In the United Kingdom and New Zealand, this logic has found its way into nationally mandated legislative measures to support local crime prevention actions. In countries such as the United States of America, Canada, Australia, parts of Europe and South America, it has been implemented as a strategy that best suits local circumstances. Crime prevention is locally organised and initiatives reflect the fact that relevant policies and services are directly under the control of local or regional authorities (Homel, 2010:118).

Local government is the level of government that is closer to the people therefore coordinating service delivery at this level helps to bring government closer to the people. People work hand in hand with government to improve the quality of their lives. They form part of the decisions that will impact on their well-being and form part of prioritising their needs according to their urgency (Koenane, 2007:13). Local municipalities must work closely with all state and non-state bodies to establish their safety needs and develop strategies to fulfil them (Pheiffer, 2013:102).

Building safety, using an integrated approach, is aimed at achieving long-term and sustainable safety and requires tackling the fundamental causes of criminality. This would mean mobilising state and non-state capacities and resources at all levels, and citizen involvement and co-responsibility. Increasing community participation in safety will mean the involvement of civil society organisations and their participation is the essential element of a safe and secure society (National Development Plan, 2011:350).

Given the complex factors that facilitate criminal activity, successful crime prevention interventions require multi-agency partnerships. However, this is often the reason for the failure of such initiatives as partnerships are not necessarily built properly and can be difficult to sustain. The fact that it is unclear in South Africa where crime prevention in its entirety must be placed, presents a serious problem in the executing of initiatives.

The approach adopted by the ruling party regarding the implementation of Community Safety Forums at municipal level is not yielding desired fruits. When all else fails regarding crime prevention at municipal level, the police are called to the rescue (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010:09). Another reason that is not clarified in the policy that deals with CSFs, is the crime prevention budget. The budget for policing South Africa provides for crime prevention as part of the entire policing function. If this function is transferred to municipalities, the budget thereof must also be transferred. The document on the implementation of CSFs is again quiet on the budget for implementation.

The above argument seems to suggest that SA is not yet ready to implement crime prevention at a municipal level. As much as there is a full takeover of community safety by local municipalities in other countries, the policing approach in general and crime rates are not the same as in South Africa. The manner in which municipalities are providing services to the communities is better than in South Africa, hence they do not suffer the same service delivery protests as South Africa does. While South Africa has to learn from other countries, it is important to adapt whatever

inherited model to the country's situation (Pheiffer, 2013 & National Development Plan, 2011).

## RESEARCH PROBLEM

According to Fischler (2010), a research problem sets out the need for a research project. It is also followed by a more detailed set of objectives. Hence, defining the research problem is a researcher's most important responsibility. The researcher should ensure that the problem at hand is accurately and precisely defined.

The research problem in this research is based on the fact that South Africa is faced with a dynamic situation where it is unclear where crime prevention and community safety should be placed to yield the desired results. Currently it looks like social crime prevention should be coordinated by the local municipality through the structure known as Community Safety Forum (CSF). Other types of crime prevention are left for the SAPS. The reason is that municipalities do not currently have the capacity to implement the entire spectrum of crime prevention.

The problem statement of this article is that municipalities in South Africa are not yet (if they will ever be) capacitated and ready to accommodate crime prevention at a local level. If this function is moved to these institutions, like all other services that are rendered at local level, the citizens will not get the required service. Ironically, this will make communities more vulnerable to crime.

### Research aim and objectives of the research

The aim of this article is to describe, explain and establish the status regarding implementation of crime prevention coordinating structures by municipalities in the research area. In order to do that, the following objectives will be considered:

- To provide information on the role that can be played by municipalities in crime prevention in their areas;
- to provide empirical information on the current state of municipalities in the research area regarding the implementation of CSFs; and
- to formulate recommendations to improve the implementation of CSFs at municipal level.

### Research questions

According to Maree (2011), research questions should fulfil four criteria. They must relate to the statement of the purpose of the research; they should be logically connected; they must be linked conceptually through key terms which appear in each; and they should be self-explanatory and clear to outside readers and able to stand on their own as a researchable question. The following questions guided the data gathering and literature study. The paper aimed at responding to these questions:

- What is the role of a municipality in providing crime prevention in its area of jurisdiction?
- What is the current role of municipalities in the implementation of CSFs in the research area?
- What can be done to improve the implementation of CSFs in a local area?

## Research methodology

### Literature review

A variety of literature, including books, journals, articles, newspapers, annual reports, enabling legislation and articles, was reviewed and formed part of the secondary sources of information. Primary sources comprised all transcripts of the interviews.

### Research method

A qualitative research method to collect qualitative data was followed in the Western Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). A qualitative approach is based on the fact that the research is premised on a social constructivist paradigm. This paradigm holds the assumption that individuals seek to understand the world in which they live and work (Creswell, 2012: 8).

An interview guide was developed and guided the data collection to ensure that research questions were answered, objectives achieved and the aim of the research was covered. Working with an interview guide ensures that the manner in which data is collected is structured, while ensuring that new concepts that arise in the course of interviews are also accommodated.

To assist with the compilation of questions that formed part of the guide, three experienced researchers working in the criminal justice environment were used. The interview guide contained a mixture of questions. The questions were phrased in the third person to allow participants to speak freely, especially about negative experiences or situations. One-on-one semi-structured, open-ended questions interviews were conducted with people involved in policing and CSFs.

All interviews were conducted by the author at a time and place convenient to the participants. Handwritten notes were made at the end of each interview to record emergent thoughts and ideas. Interviews ran for approximately one hour, were recorded and transcribed verbatim by an audio typist. All participants answered all interview questions. Transcripts were checked against the tape recordings for accuracy and errors by the researcher who conducted the interviews.

### Population

The respondents comprised police officials involved in crime prevention as well as municipal representatives from the Elsies River, Knysna, Oudtshoorn and West Coast District municipalities and Mkhanyakude District Municipality. Other respondents that formed part of the research were Western Cape Provincial and KZN Community Safety and Liaison (CS&L) coordinators, a West Coast District (CS&L) coordinator, a KZN COGTA representative, the Oudtshoorn CPF Chairperson and an African Policing Civilian Oversight (APCOF) representative.

Purposive sampling was used because the traditional areas and leaders that were used for data gathering were identified prior to process. The aim was to involve people with experience and who were part of the implementation of CSFs as part of providing crime prevention at local municipalities. Their views can be used to influence policies aimed at provisioning crime prevention. According to Bowen (2005:208), purposive sampling is used to ensure that

quality information about the topic is obtained from the case study. It is not used to maximise numbers but to become saturated with information on the topic.

### **Data collection**

A standardised semi-structured interview schedule was used to gather qualitative data from participants. An interview guide is used to bring structure to the interviews, even though interviews were treated as conversations during which the interviewer drew detailed information and comments from the respondents. According to Patton (in Rubin and Babbie, 2001:407), one way to provide more structure to a completely unstructured, informal conversational interview, while maintaining a relative degree of flexibility, is to use the interview guide strategy.

### **Data analysis**

A thematic method was followed to analyse the data in which one looks for patterns that emerge within transcripts (Lebesse, 2009:64). In this case, the themes were formulated before interviews were conducted, while the new themes that emerged from the interviews were also added to the predetermined themes. In order to ensure that sufficient information was gathered, a set of questions was also formulated although respondents were at liberty to give information beyond the scope of the formulated questions. According to Green and Thorogood (2009:198), by using data such as discussion notes or transcripts, the researcher is able to categorise respondents' accounts in ways that can be summarised.

Data analysis started during the interview stage. The author conducted the interviews which enabled him to gain an understanding of the meaning of the data, while he also transcribed this information on the data to obtain more insight and understanding of the recorded data. The author then read the transcript several times to familiarise himself with the data and identify commonalities and differences in the manner the traditional leadership are involved in crime prevention and community safety in their respective areas.

## **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS**

The findings are based on various questions that were asked to the research participants in order to uncover the role of municipalities in the study area. This was done to assess whether crime prevention could be rendered through municipalities, and if so, which role municipalities could play.

### **The role of municipalities in crime prevention in the research area**

To establish the current state of the role of municipalities in crime prevention in the study area, the following questions was asked:

#### **■ What role is your municipality playing in crime prevention and implementation of CSFs?**

Crime prevention at municipal level is to be actualised/realised through the establishment and leadership of CSFs. The

policy on implementation of CSFs states that a Member of the Executive Council (MEC) responsible for policing, in consultation with the mayor, are supposed to establish a CSF as part of providing crime prevention at municipal level (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010:13). This will ensure that crime prevention is regulated by the municipality of a particular area.

The assumption from the provision of the policy is that the municipality should lead the implementation of these forums, but in 2010, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison was instructed by the Civilian Secretariat for Police to implement this policy for municipalities and yet expect municipalities to lead the process (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010). According to Safrika Development Services (2006), CSFs are driven by municipalities and located at that level. It is therefore not clear why the department was expected to establish these forums for municipalities instead of assisting them as the policy provided (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010).

The research article also found that in the four municipalities in the Western Cape that had implemented CSFs, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison led the implementation of the CSFs and that the municipalities were reluctant to take ownership of those forums. In other words, the institutionalisation of crime prevention was neither led by the police nor the municipalities but by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison. According to the representatives of the provincial CS&L department, that was because they were complying with the National Instruction to assist municipalities, which in a way were not interested in inheriting crime prevention as one of their functions.

All participants agreed that it was the CS&L department that initiated and led the implementation of these forums in their respective municipalities. This therefore means that crime prevention in that province was led by the CS&L department. This department arranged a provincial summit to which all stakeholders were invited and the CSF concept was introduced, as articulated in the policy. The provincial representatives did not indicate how these structures will be handed over to municipalities as the policy directed.

In KZN, Mr Willies Mchunu, who was the MEC for Community Safety at the time, launched CSFs in the uMkhanyakude District Municipality, but these forums were never fully implemented. The provincial coordinator for the Department of Community Safety and Liaison argued that such initiation was never an implementation but the beginning towards the implementation. If one looks at what policy implementation entails, the initiation by the MEC forms part of implementation process.

Brynard (2015:14) argues that the implementation is both a verb and a noun, but the fact that the noun is not achieved does not mean that the verb is not happening. Taking this argument into consideration, the fact that there is no fully functional CSF in KZN does not necessarily mean that there are no implementation activities that are taking place in the province, especially in the uMkhanyakude district municipality. In compliance with the department's National Instruction, the provincial coordinator was supposed to take the leadership of implementation and ensure that the forums are implemented.

The research further found that the KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison had a meeting with ward committees in the uMkhanyakude district to explain what CSFs entail and who were to participate in such forums. According to the CS&L department, the next step would be for the provincial coordinator to draft the Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) between the stakeholders and to work out terms of references.

In both KZN and the Western Cape, the implementation process is led by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison. This is a disconnect between policy intentions and the actualisation of the policy. The reason is that, according to the policy, the role of the CS&L department is to facilitate and assist with the structuring and establishment of CSFs at a local level (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010:18). This Department is not expected to lead the implementation process but to assist municipalities in the process. One will therefore expect that municipalities initiate the process and the Department will come in when municipalities are facing problems regarding the implementation.

The importance of leadership in implementing CSFs emanates from the fact that these forums are multi-stakeholder in nature, it is therefore important that the role of each stakeholder is clearly defined. Each stakeholder must play its role and not the role of the other stakeholder for implementation and sustainability to succeed. The leadership of the initiation and implementation must be left to municipalities. These forums respond to a particular social demand, namely community safety at a local level, therefore municipal leadership will inspire those who are part of the implementation of this policy to accept change by communicating a compelling vision of the future and motivating willingness to work in a new way (Jones & Rudd, 2013:89).

The coordination of crime prevention initiatives at municipal level is the new way of preventing crime which was previously regarded as a policing role, but now requires involvement of all crime prevention actors at a municipal level. Such approach needs a well-articulated reason why these actors should come together, the role they should play, what is to be achieved and how they are going to benefit from such initiation. In order to achieve this, those who are leading the process should be identified so that they provide clarity to other stakeholders in case of any misunderstanding (Ladkin, 2013).

The involvement of various role-players in the local government or government is referred to as collaborative governance, public participation, deliberative democracy or interactive decision-making (Schaik, 2014:2). The inclusion of various stakeholders increases the likelihood of successful policy implementation.

The involvement of various role-players in community safety ensures that the safety plan, which form part of the municipal Integrated Development Plan (IDP), is informed by the crime prevention needs in that particular municipality. This ensures that the necessary resources are acquired and it also reduces informational uncertainties related to the role of the role-players (Metcalfe, 2011:7). Effective leadership provides better quality and more efficient goods and services; it promotes a sense of cohesiveness and a high level of satisfaction among those involved in the process;

and it stimulates an overarching sense of direction and vision (Neal & Ingle, 2010:89).

The fact that the Department of Community Safety and Liaison was establishing CSFs in the research area made them to neglect some of their main functions, such as the establishment of Intergovernmental Forums, which was going to ensure the involvement of COGTA in ensuring that all municipalities establish CSFs in their area of jurisdiction (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010). COGTA is responsible for facilitating municipalities in achieving their objective of meeting the needs of the local community. The provision of safety and healthy environment is the prerogative of a municipality (Municipal Structures Act, 1998). The involvement of COGTA in the implementation of CSFs would have ensured that municipalities involve these forums in their annual planning. The absence of COGTA during the implementation hampers this process and the leading role of municipalities because the Department of Community Safety and Liaison cannot force municipalities to implement these forums. According to the policy on the implementation of CSFs (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2010:17), COGTA must create a framework in which municipalities are compelled to establish CSFs.

The implementation of CSFs in the research area by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison can result in some problems which may not be anticipated, such as that if this department withdraws from the forums, these forums might cease to exist. It was only in the West Coast District municipality where the municipal representative argued that the forum is in a good position to proceed even if the Department of Community Safety and Liaison withdraws from the forum. In the other three Western Cape municipalities, the representatives stated that municipalities were not committed to the running of these forums and that if the Department withdraws, the forums will die. Such articulations were a cause for concern raised by two municipal representatives (Knysna and Oudtshoorn) who are also chairpersons of the forums as well as the chairperson of Elsies River CSF.

The important question therefore is: When are CSFs going to be handed over to be driven by municipalities? That will free the Department of Community Safety and Liaison to concentrate on other functions regarding the implementation of these forums. To answer this question, it will be suggested that because it seems that the Department of Community Safety and Liaison is leading the implementation of the CSFs, this policy must be implemented in phases. One of the phases must be a handing over of the CSF to a municipality. The Civilian Secretariat for Police must develop institutional guidelines on how to implement CSF policy, which include steps to be taken for failure to implement the policy.

#### ■ Is there a budget for the implementation of crime prevention programmes like implementation of CSFs by municipality?

The findings in the research area uncovered that municipalities were not involved in any crime prevention activities except attending the CPF meetings that are arranged by the police. There was no budget that was allocated for crime prevention initiatives or programmes in any of these municipalities. When asked about

budgeting regarding crime prevention, municipal representatives gave the following answers: "Not on our side ... even now there is no budget for safety..." This sentiment was echoed by another participant who stated that "... when planning for anything relating to crime prevention, our community safety department provides the funds through the funds allocated for other projects". This sentiment was echoed by another participant who stated that "... from municipal side, not really ... if there were money available it was through other divisions ..."

Some municipal representatives who form part of the research argue that there is no legislation that regulates the implementation of crime prevention at local levels hence no budget could be allocated for such. Municipal representatives in the research area could not link crime prevention to the existing legislation that regulates municipalities. They argued that "another limitation is that this is a policy and is not an Act, therefore it is not binding and people do not see it as something serious. It must be included in the Municipal Systems Act".

Municipal representatives in the research area did not even believe that municipalities must or should provide crime prevention initiatives and programmes. The participants have the following view about crime prevention at local municipalities "... there is no buy-in from the municipality, if crime prevention is placed there, it is going to die a slow death". Another representative agreed by stating that: "There is no support even from the municipality. This is the challenge with community structures, it is power play. Predominantly we have Democratic Alliance (DA) people but when we took over, they said we are ANC people." A social issue becomes political to the detriment of the entire community of a particular locality.

#### ■ What is the relationship between the major stakeholders in the implementation of CSFs, namely the municipality and the police?

It was discovered that there is no working relationship between the SAPS, the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and COGTA. If these structures worked together to facilitate the placement of crime prevention at municipal level, the transition was going to be smooth. The COGTA representative in KZN argued that they were not part of any policing-related issue and that questions regarding safety should be directed to the Department of Community Safety and Liaison or even the police. Despite COGTA, according to the policy on the implementation of CSFs, being responsible for ensuring that municipalities render effective services to the people, their representatives did not seem to be aware that municipalities must play a role in community safety/crime prevention. This begs the question: what can be expected of municipalities? It means that there is no monitoring and that the community served are exposed to crime and deprived of their safety.

#### ■ What would you recommend be done to ensure that the implementation of crime prevention at municipal level succeeds?

When the opinions of the participants regarding the successful

implementation of CSFs in their respective municipalities, they have different views. However, all agreed that municipalities must be willing to lead in the implementation in order for implementation to succeed. Since municipalities need to ensure the safety of their communities, it is their duty to ensure that crime, which threatens the safety of the community, is prevented. Municipalities, as the government level closest to the people, must be visible in community safety by ensuring that they are aware of crime problems in their areas and about the plans to curb crime in their locality.

The participants provided the following opinions on how the implementation of crime prevention at municipal level can be improved "... (the) municipality must ensure that the safety of the people is provided. They must take leadership in the implementation of crime prevention structures". Another argued as follows: "I still believe that (the) municipality should be a major role-player in crime prevention and ensure that all other role-players are coordinated." Another participant stated that "government must ensure proper functioning of departments, so (the) municipality must work together with local police regarding crime prevention and community safety".

It is unacceptable for municipalities to simply delegated the safety to the police, but they must ensure that they form part of rendering quality service to the community of a particular municipality. Even if the crime prevention function is removed from that level to police station level, municipalities must still be involved in policing. They must not interfere, but ensure that a working relationship with their local police is established.

Police officials that form part of the research argued that "when we work with everyone concerned, it will assist us to deliver more". Another police official argued that "some of (the) crime-related issues cannot be prevented by the police so we need to work together with others like (the) municipality". The Knysna Station Commander posited that "we had a measure(d) breakthrough in preventing thefts from motor vehicles because we involved South African Social Services (SASSA)". This emphasised the important of involving various role-players in crime and crime prevention-related issues

Though the findings depicted that currently municipalities are not playing any role in crime prevention in the research area, their role is still pivotal if the implementation of crime prevention programmes are to succeed. The government has decided that municipalities must lead the coordination of crime prevention programmes at that level. This is based on two factors, namely that crime occurs at that level, and the second is that municipalities are a government level that is closer to the people which put them in a better position to listen to and address community needs on various issues, including community safety. The narrative therefore should not be about the best institution to house crime prevention initiatives, but how best municipalities can implement crime prevention initiatives. The following recommendations are aimed at providing a better way to implement CSFs at municipal level.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings, the following recommendations can be made:

Municipalities must lead the initiation and implementation of crime prevention coordinating structures, CSFs. If this is done, it will be easy for them to accept CSFs as part of their mandate to facilitate crime prevention at their areas. This will eliminate various issues that are currently hindering the successful implementation. In places where the implementation was led by the department of CS&L, those forums must be handed over to municipalities after the latter have been properly workshopped on how to run the forums.

There is no policy that can be successfully implemented without budget which is why a budget must be a ring-fenced for the implementation of CSFs by municipalities. This can be done by revising existing legislature such as Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 to clearly explain the role of municipalities in crime prevention. Safety plans which should include crime prevention programmes must form part of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). Those who will be part of CSFs must be trained and report progress to the council at stipulated times.

COGTA and the SAPS on provincial level must develop an Inter-Governmental Framework to facilitate the working relationship between municipal managers and station commanders to eliminate friction and misunderstandings about the role of each regarding crime prevention in the locality. The CSFs role-players must each know the role to play and must each sign a Memorandum of Understanding with the municipality to ensure the utmost commitment to their role in ensuring community safety. Municipalities must coordinate meetings where role-players will meet to discuss different crime prevention and community safety issue.

## CONCLUSION

The article succeeded in describing and explaining the role of municipalities in the implementation of CSFs. The findings indicated that municipalities have a pivotal role in the implementation of CSFs in particular and crime prevention in general in the research areas. They are the relevant structure, since the majority of role-players will prefer to work with municipalities rather than the police. Therefore, municipalities can fulfil a coordinating role among the role-players which increases the pool of crime prevention actors.

When it comes to the execution of crime prevention programmes, the police must assist and lead other role-players since the police have crime prevention skills which others may lack. This confirms why an established and formalised working relationship between a municipality and the local police is required. A municipality can play a monitoring and assisting role where necessary to ensure a successful crime prevention approach.

Crime prevention cannot be left entirely to the police and other role-players must be brought on board. A municipality can assist by bringing such actors and in setting targets, planning and implementation of crime prevention programmes, especially social crime prevention programmes. The idea of placing crime

prevention at local municipality level is not far-fetched, since there are other countries where this function has been delegated and is legislated to take place at this level of governance.

Implementing the findings of this article will ensure the practical provision of community safety and crime prevention approach to be followed at a local level of governance in South Africa.

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# ARTICLE

## CLIENT SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE'S COMMUNITY SERVICE CENTRES IN THE KIMBERLEY CLUSTER: A CRITICAL EVALUATION

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### ABSTRACT

#### Background

The South African Police Force (SAP) was founded in 1913 with the aim of ensuring internal security and maintaining law and order. The South African Police Service (SAPS) was established in 1995 - the philosophy of service orientation of the SAPS were not the focus of the SAP. The SAPS is regulated according to the constitutional reform that the country has experienced since 1990. In terms of section 214 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, legislation was applied resulting in the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 being promulgated to provide for the establishment and regulation of the SAPS.

#### Aim

The purpose of this article is to investigate citizens' expectations and perceptions of the service experience when visiting Community Service Centres (CSC) of the South African Police Service in the Kimberley Cluster of the Northern Cape Province. The main aim was to determine the factors leading up to the visit and the service experience as perceived by the visitors, and whether these perceptions differed according to various demographic factors. The focus of the study was based on measurement of service quality dimensions and service delivery in order to generate quality models for the SAPS CSCs. This study focused on the determination of clients' expectations and perception of quality at the SAPS CSC.

#### Setting

The study was conducted in the SAPS environment, which could benefit from a model of factors

contributing to customer citizenship behaviour, specifically the sub-dimensions of consumer advocacy and helping behaviour.

## Methodology

A survey of 100 respondents at three CSCs measured how and why the CSC was visited, overall satisfaction and respondents' perceptions of the visit experience. The five service quality dimensions of the Servqual Model were used to measure clients' expectations and perceptions. The study employed a quantitative approach in getting the relevant data to satisfy the purpose and objectives of this study. The data was analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics.

## Results

The results indicated that in all five service quality dimensions; namely tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy, there was a negative quality gap. The significant differences between perception and expectation of clients in all five service quality dimensions were noted. Improvement is needed across all five service quality dimensions to enhance service delivery. Furthermore, the results have revealed that clients' perception of service quality at the SAPS CSC is up to standard. Actions needed to improve the visit experience for citizens include customer service training, regular assessment and monitoring of clients' experiences, as well as CSC employees' behaviour.

## Conclusion

From a theoretical perspective, the research findings provide more insight into the role of customer satisfaction and commitment in contributing to customer citizenship behaviour and the extent to which both relationship quality factors are needed in order to do so. From a practical perspective, the SAPS should adapt their marketing strategies to facilitate greater relationships with clients' responsible for citizenship behaviours. Clients promoting the benefits of the service to other clients and helping them to use the service may ultimately contribute to greater adoption.

## KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Community Service Centres; customer expectations and perceptions of service; customer services; customer behaviour; service delivery; service quality; policing; police accountability.

## INTRODUCTION

The South African Police Service (SAPS) was established in 1995 when the South African Police was integrated with the police forces of ten ethnic homelands created under apartheid (apartheid in this context implies separate economic, political and social development of races). During apartheid, the South African Police was the principal instrument through which apartheid policies were enforced and maintained (Bruce, Newman & Masuku, 2007). With the rise of the "new" political dispensation, under the African National Congress, and the formulation of the "new" Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, a crucial re-assessment of the nature of policing in South Africa was required. The SAPS needed to discard policies which contradicted the laws of the country. The term "charge office" at police stations, for example, was changed to Community Service Centre (CSC) which was in line with the new thinking around customer care. The term

charge office/CSC denotes a frontline office manned by members of SAPS, 24 hours a day, seven days a week, where clients are served (Zondi, 2012:21).

The main issue regarding service delivery by the SAPS centres around professionalism and the manner in which these services are rendered. Customer care is a key issue for the government as members of the community need professional and efficient service. In their requirement for such services, organisational policies about how things should be done or why they cannot be done do not matter to community members (Ford, 1997:10). The SAPS is therefore expected to demonstrate its actions in line with all relevant laws of the country and organisational policy documents. Community Service Centres are at the forefront of the public eye. For the public to perceive that the police have really changed from a "force" to a "service", professional, effective and efficient

service delivery must be foremost and be demonstrated by members working at the CSC.

The SAPS's policing objectives, in accordance with the provisions of section 205 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996, are to prevent, combat and investigate crime; maintain public order; protect and secure the inhabitants of the country and their property; and to uphold and enforce the law. The South African Police Service's (SAPS) Code of Conduct (1997) provides that the objective of the SAPS is to create a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa and prevent anything that may threaten the safety of any community member.

## STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

According to the expectancy disconfirmation theory, customer satisfaction with service delivery is determined by comparing their expectations with the disconfirmation experienced during actual service delivery (Churchill & Surprenant, 1982:491). When service providers fail to meet their customers' expectations during service delivery, service failures (negative disconfirmation) are experienced as a consequent unequal exchange. Service providers therefore attempt to restore customer satisfaction (Huang, 2012:513) by eliminating the perceived inequality by means of service recovery (Kau & Loh, 2006:102).

It has been argued that the relationships between customers and service providers should be considered a key determinant of service recovery, which is required if post-recovery attitudes and behavioural intentions are to be restored (Singh & Sirdeshmukh, 2000:163, Forrester & Maute, 2001:10; Kaltcheva, DeWitt & Brady, 2003:202-203; Winsor & Parasurman, 2013:526). It has further been suggested that it is possible to ensure customer satisfaction by means of service recovery without compensation (Blodgett & Tax, 1997:202), seeing that customer satisfaction following service recovery can be restored by offering a simple apology or an explanation, and providing adequate and truthful information about the service failure (Fang, Luo & Jiang, 2013:341, Wang & Mattila, 2011:434). This study considered complaints as one of the measures to be used to measure the quality of service rendered by the South African Police Service. Currently, there is an increase in the number of service delivery complaints against the police, problems in the administration of the police, political interference in policing matters and an increasing reluctance of the community to cooperate with the police. The aim is to adjust service delivery based on the continuous complaints of the community (Shadi, 2013:26).

## RESEARCH QUESTION OF THE STUDY

Research question were set to examine the views of community members regarding whether there is a lack of understanding of the service delivery process from the "clients'" point of view, in the Kimberley cluster.

## OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The core objective of the study was to establish whether quality management systems, that the South African government had put in place, have been implemented at the three police stations where the case studies were conducted, and whether there has been and is continuous improvement in order to satisfy the community's expectation. This required an understanding of current practice. To do so, this study sought to fulfil the following objectives, namely to:

- Examine the quality of services delivery at CSCs at the police stations in order to provide recommendations to the management of the SAPS on the improvement thereof;
- evaluate the client's understanding to the process of making a service request; and
- evaluate whether a client's demographics play a role during service rendering.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A quantitative approach was utilised to explore research methodologies. Questionnaires were used to obtain the responses from the participants and were analysed and interpreted. The populations for this study were police officials and community members at the following police stations, namely Kimberley, Modderivier and Roodepan.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Legislative framework governing service delivery

The legislative framework governing service delivery details the mechanisms through which government departments can attain their objectives and goals in delivering services to the public. It also ensures that government is transparent in respect of the processes of providing services and remains accountable to the people. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 is the foundation on which all other legislation is built, and such legislation has to comply with its requirements. As such, any public service delivery legislation, policy or strategy must comply with the Constitution. Furthermore, it is the guiding document on how the public service is to be transformed in order to provide efficient service delivery to the public. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 addresses improved government service delivery where it is stipulated that the public administration should adhere to various principles including that:

- A high standard of professional ethics must be promoted and maintained;
- efficient, economic and effective use of resources must be promoted;
- public administration must be development-oriented;
- services must be provided impartially, fairly, equitably and without bias;
- people's needs must be responded to and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making;
- public administration must be accountable;

- transparency must be fostered by providing the public with timely, accessible and accurate information;
- good human-resource management and career-development practices, to maximise human potential, must be cultivated; and
- public administration must be broadly representative of the South African people, with employment and personnel management practices based on ability, objectivity, fairness and the need to redress the imbalances of the past to achieve broad representation.

Section 195(2) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 states that the above principles are applicable to administration in every sphere of government, organs and public entities. The Constitution, through the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2), also affords citizens certain rights to take action against the state if they believe their constitutional rights have been infringed, and to have access to information held by the state which they need in order to be able to do so. Various policy documents and legislation have put mechanisms in place to support this vision, such as the Promotion of Access to Information Act 2 of 2000 and the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000. The South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995 provides guidance for the effective operation of a police service, from administrative duties to the conduct of policemen and -women. This Act 68 of 1995 provides for a relationship between the SAPS and communities. It also sets out rules for Community Police Forums (CPFs), area (cluster) community police boards and provincial community police boards. The promulgation of Act 68 of 1995 required the formation of CPFs at all police stations. Given the recurring crime problem in South Africa, it appears that part of the problem is the lack of coherency and clearly articulated vision of senior managers responsible for formulating policies. The results of bureaucracy and fragmentation impact negatively on the operational level where these policy initiatives have to be implemented with a lack of clear knowledge and effective coordination. Among the policy weaknesses that will be briefly examined in this article are community policing and CPFs; the National Crime Prevention Strategy and community safety forums. The Public Service Act 103 of 1994 is the foundation for administration and conduct within the public service and provides rules to which every government department must adhere. The Batho Pele principles are used by the South African Government to ensure that quality service is provided to the public (Phillips, 2002:12). The promulgation of the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery of 1997, known as Batho Pele, should be viewed in the light of the government's intention of changing the culture in the public institutions to follow a more customer-service approach as practised in the private sector. Its purpose is to provide a policy framework and practical implementation strategy for the transformation of public service delivery. It also contains a flexible framework for the delivery of public services, which puts citizens/customers first and enable them to hold public servants to account for the service they provide. Every police official signs a formal Code of Conduct which was introduced in October 1997. This written undertaking

indicates that each member of SAPS has to act in accordance with the law and constitutional principles (Faull & Rose, 2012:1-2). The Code of Ethics further demands that all employees of SAPS act with integrity and respect for people's diversity and the law, thus enriching service excellence to the approval of the public (SAPS Code of Conduct, 1997). When properly managed, police codes of conduct can shape individual officials' attitudes and police organisational culture more broadly. However, for this to happen, easily understood standards of behaviour drawn from the code should be complemented by monitoring and evaluation systems that hold police organisations and individual officials accountable for their actions. This should enhance service excellence to the approval of the public (Faull, 2017:2).

## PREREQUISITE FOR QUALITY SERVICE Policing

Policing can be described as the coercive and service delivery actions by the police that are directed at the maintenance of internal order in compliance with the prescribed legal jurisdiction and the constitutional rights of individuals (Zondi, 2012:9). As an example, in policing, there is a strong belief among many police officials that they stand as the frontline of defence against community lawlessness - reflecting what is often a rather narrow definition of order. For the purposes of the article, a SAPS functional police official is an individual who was recruited, trained and subsequently appointed as such in terms of the South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995.

### Service quality

Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner and Gremler (2013:107) define service quality as a comparison between the service quality clients expect to receive and the service quality they perceive that they have received. Responsiveness is characterised as the extent to which service providers are willing to accommodate clients and provide timely service. Eagerness to assist clients and offer quick service is known as responsiveness (Armstrong, 2012:162). Providing service in a timely manner is highly appreciated by clients. Good service providers understand this aspect (Ahmed, Iqbal, Nawaz, Usman, Shaukat & Iqbal, 2010:98-113). According to Deng, Lu, Wei and Zhang (2009:289), the capability of a service provider to create satisfaction of high degree is significant for product differentiation and setting up strong relationship with customers. Mohsan, Nawaz, Khan, Shaukat and Aslam (2011:182) demonstrate that customer satisfaction plays a critical part for their retention, but it does not guarantee repeat purchases. One of the crucial components which influence customers' satisfaction is the quality of service (Timothy, 2012:1-8). At the point when service quality is raised, it will prompt customer satisfaction that will result in great business outcomes (Nilsson, Johnson & Gustafsson, 2001:5). According to Hossain (2012:1-21), customer satisfaction is a vital component in positioning organisational performance.

### Customer expectations and perceptions of service

In general, customer expectations include what customers wish

for, what they expect from an excellent service provider and what they think should happen during the next service encounter (Lotz, 2009:27). Expectation is "a belief that something will happen because it is likely to happen" (Wehmeier, 2000:219). Expectations can be formed before or during the delivery of a service. They reflect beliefs as to what will or should happen (Mudie & Pirrie, 2006:267). Perception is "the process by which an individual selects, organises and interprets information inputs to create a meaningful picture of the world" (George, 2004:165-180). Perceptions of service comprise a complex series of judgments formed during or at the end of the experience (Williams & Buswell, 2003:16).

## Customer behaviour

Consumer behaviour relates to the study of individuals, groups or organisations and the process they use to select, secure, use and dispose of merchandise, services, experiences or ideas to satisfy needs and the impacts that these processes have on the customer and society (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:6). Furthermore, Schiffman & Kanuk (2010:23) state that consumer behaviour refers to the behaviour that customers display in searching for, purchasing, using, evaluating and disposing of merchandise and services that they expect will satisfy their needs. A customer is a person or an organisational unit that plays a role in consummation of a transaction with the marketer or an entity (Sheth, Mittal & Newman, 1999:5).

## Customer service

This comprises two primary dimensions, namely procedural and personal dimensions. The procedural side of the service refers to established systems and procedures to deliver products and/or services. The personal side of the service refers to how service personnel (using their attitudes, behaviour and verbal skills) interact with customers (Marinkovic & Obradovic, 2015:243). There is no generally accepted and complete definition of services. Services could basically be referred to as dynamic activities and processes, while goods are static objects.

## Customer satisfaction

Customer satisfaction refers to the outcome of the customers' assessment that the chosen retail store meets or exceeds their expectations (Blackwell, Miniard & Engel, 2006:42). According to Van der Vyver (2008:28), customer satisfaction is a reaction to the emotional expectations, merchandise experience, merchandise performance after the purchase, or the total retail experience. Therefore, customer satisfaction relies on whether customers' prior expectations regarding the retail experience are fulfilled. Oliver (2010:28) argues that "customer satisfaction is the customer's fulfilment response, the degree to which the level of fulfilment is pleasant or unpleasant", while Schiffman and Kanuk (2010:29) describe "customer satisfaction is the individual's perception of the performance of the merchandise or service in relation to his or her expectations". Customer satisfaction refers to customers' emotional responses regarding the perceived evaluation

of merchandise standards, experiences and performances and whether these responses meet or exceed their expectations (McDaniel, Lamb & Hair, 2013:194).

## Community Service Centres

As noted earlier in the article, a CSC refers to a office at the police station which is occupied by members of the Service for a period of 24 hours of each day, where complaints are reported and administered, and where suspects are handled and other additional community services are provided. We may call it a "front office". This office was previously known as a charge office (Zondi, 2012:10). A community service centre is one of the most important front offices of the South African Police Service. There are specific functions which are supposed to be performed by the police officials who work in this office. It also serves as an information office and sometimes even a shelter to destitute persons since it is the only government office available on a 24-hour basis. It is a place where people should feel safe and where they can request help without having to pay. Indeed, many tasks which are requested from CSC members often do not fall within their jurisdiction, but some police members will exercise their discretion to help members of the community (SAPS, 2006:9).

## Services and good service

The definition of services has been presented differently in literature by different scholars despite a consensus on its characteristics and attributes. Services are described as deeds, processes and performance. Furthermore, service represents trade undertakings of which the outcome is an intangible product and is simultaneously produced and consumed (Wilson, Zeithaml, Bitner & Gremler, 2012:5). Another school of thought, put forward by Solomon, Marshal and Stuart (2012:302), explains that services are classified into four categories and caution organisations to properly examine these classifications because they sometimes overlap with service characteristics, yet they have different implications, namely;

- Firstly, a service cannot be delivered in the absence of a recipient and if certain conditions are not met, hence it is the responsibility of employees to provide sufficient information to customers.
- Secondly, services are directed at people's tangible possessions which implies that services can be executed in the absence of a customer although he or she has to be available at the beginning and completion of the transaction.
- The third classification refers to services as directed at people's minds so they can be stored using digital recording and the performance shown afterwards.
- Lastly, services are directed at people's intangible possessions which means that a service can be executed with minimum involvement of parties to a transaction.

Karr and Blohowiak (1997:8) describe the concept of good service. It is noticed that their definition is not confined to a single idea but that it includes all aspects which may be expected from the service provider. These include the following:

- Dealing with people who know their work;
- not passing the buck or begging for permission;
- anticipating a customer's needs and wants;
- getting help, getting a problem solved completely with no hassle, no running around and no delay;
- dealing with people who are authorised to provide information right away or to make things happen for a customer;
- being treated in a way that the customer wants, which usually means respect and quick response and an appreciation for the customer's position; and
- concluding a transaction or interaction in such a manner that the customer feels better than before it began.

## Service delivery

Service delivery in the White Paper in Transforming Public Service Delivery (WPTPSD) refers to the manner in which public services are rendered, specifically when it comes to improving its effectiveness and efficiency (SA, 1997). However, Zimmermann and Blythe (2013:207) state that there is no agreed upon definition of service delivery. The researcher's opinion differs from the second statement as services can be tangible or intangible and a service provider can offer services free of charge or for a fee. Service delivery is supported by the Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP) that requires divisional, provincial and station commanders to develop and implement Batho Pele action plans in support of the implementation of the Batho Pele principles which are revisited each financial year (SAPS Strategic Overview 2018-2019, 2019a). It is generally consumed at the time it is produced and provides added value in many forms such as convenience, amusement, timeliness and comfort (Zeithaml, Bitner, Wilson & Gremier, 2008:16). Services create value and provide benefits for customers at specified times and places, as a result of bringing a desired change in, or on behalf of the recipient of the service (Lovelock & Wright, 2001:6).

Service delivery implies "the way in which public services are provided and specifically about improving the effectiveness and efficiency of the way in which services are delivered" (Naidoo, 2004:12). In this research, service delivery refers to the services which are rendered by police officials which are, to prevent, combat and investigate crime; to maintain public order; to protect and secure the inhabitants of the community and their property; and to uphold and enforce the law. High service quality will improve customer satisfaction, give a company an edge in the market share and attract profit (Hansen, Samuelsen & Hossan, 2012:47).

## Police accountability

Nkwenyane (2011:13) refers the relations of the police to civil society and to the state. The author further states, that the police should not see themselves in the end as autonomous and self-controlled, whether that claim is based on expertise, professional skills, power or merely rejection of outsiders looking over their shoulder. This researcher further argues that the police must accept that they have to explain themselves, what they do and fail to do, to outsiders who pay their salaries (through taxes), supply

their resources and suffer the consequences of their work. That is, the police need to accept their political status, not directly as a partisan agency of rule and repression, but as a government organisation constrained by democratic values and practices.

The police should not solely be responsible for policing themselves, nor should they be placed directly under the control of the ruling party, as was the case in South Africa's apartheid regime because it might further worsen the legitimacy crisis in the SAPS. The researchers are of the opinion that police officials in South Africa are still being influenced by the ruling political party as some members of the community receives special attention when a certain crime is committed against them (ibid). Govender (2010:81) states that police accountability should be regarded as a process consisting of judicial and parliamentary control linked to societal control. According to Govender (2010:82), there should be a relationship between the independence of the police and their accountability to the public or democratically elected bodies. Legitimacy, operational independence, use of discretion and police accountability are still challenges faced by police officials. Accountability is the most important aspect of the SAPS that has been altered and there is a continuous process to achieve full accountability. It has not been a smooth process for the SAPS to learn and adapt to the new situation in South Africa and over the past couple of years of democratic rule, problems have developed for the SAPS. Their reaction to these problems will serve as an indicator of how far the organisation has come to become a democratic police force (William & Pruitt, 2010:117).

## MEASURING SERVICE QUALITY

The five gaps of quality in services and the attributes that have an impact on customer perception and expectation, such as word of mouth, personal requirements, previous experience and outside communication. The detailed explanation and regarding the five quality gaps are indicated below.

### Gap 1: Customer's expectations and management's perceptions gap

This situation can arise due to the absence of initiatives by management to get customer feedback. Management should not overlook the importance of research as it may help to understand customer expectations and other elements that are critical to service quality evaluation. The marginal propensity to consume (MPC) can organise frequent customer satisfaction surveys to facilitate collection of information on performance of the service and customer expectations (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:371).

### Gap 2: Management's perceptions and service quality specifications gap

To close this gap, any organisation such as the MPC, should introduce effective service processes, specify quality standards and also ensure that employees understand the service standards and priorities. Furthermore, service providers can standardise work processes to foster consistency and reliability by using soft technology (Wirtz, Chew & Lovelock, 2012:436).

### Gap 3: Service quality specifications and service delivered gap

This gap arises due to an absence of management assistance or commitment to personal employee training and other resources that facilitate the execution of work. Without support, even the best performing employees can be demoralised if they are using faulty and outdated equipment. It therefore follows that when employees are not properly motivated and supported, there is low productivity, unsatisfied customers and the delivery gap increases (Bateson & Hoffman, 2011:332). Furthermore, failure to recruit high calibre staff and to train existing staff members affects the provision of uniform or steady service which may eventually result in poor service quality (Jobber & Ellis-Chadwick, 2013:371).

### Gap 4: Actual service delivered and external communication gap

There is a need to close internal and external communication gaps by ensuring that communication is realistic and universally understood by customers. This can be done by, among others, involving frontline employees to contribute to the development of communication programmes (Wirtz, Chew & Lovelock, 2012:347). It is important for companies to come up with initiatives they will be able to maintain rather than promising what they may not reasonably deliver on a continuous basis (Ferrell & Hartline, 2012:349).

### Gap 5: Consumers' expectation and perception of service gap

Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1985:41) explain that this latter gap is the total sum of all four gaps and the decision on whether quality is low or high depends on the actual performance being consistent with initial expectations. In order to close this gap, companies should provide tangible proof of signs that are visible in the service being delivered (Wirtz, Chew & Lovelock, 2012:437).

## RESEARCH METHODS

### Population and sample of the study

To gather the information, a descriptive and survey method was used along with quantitative data collection. The combined target population of the three participating police stations consisted of a sample size of 100 respondents, which was determined to be adequate for the purpose of the test. There are no demographic descriptions of the respondents, since these are irrelevant in terms of service delivery. The only requisite was that respondents had to be 18 years of age or older. Convenience sampling was used, as it allowed the researchers to survey participants who were available at particular times in the CSCs. The sample selection process was continued until the required sample size was reached (Welman & Kruger, 2005:69).

Kimberley Cluster Police Stations	Distributed questionnaires	Answered questionnaires
Kimberley Police Station	45	42
Roodepan Police Station	35	35
Modderivier Police Station	20	20
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>97</b>

Table 1: Demographic information of research participants

### Measuring instrument

The instrument used in the data collection was a questionnaire with a scale measure of a five-point rating response. The validity of the instrument was determined by giving the draft copies of the instrument to experts in the field of measurement and evaluation. The reliability of the instrument was determined in a preliminary survey of the instrument among respondents. The questionnaire was divided into various sections, namely:

- Section 1: Tangibility: Statements 1 to 4 refer to the physical facilities, equipment and appearance of personnel.
- Section 2: Reliability: Statements 5 to 9 deal with the ability to perform the promised service dependably and accurately.
- Section 3: Responsiveness: Statements 10 to 13 refer to the willingness to help customers and provide prompt service.

- Section 4: Assurance: Statements 14 to 17 refer to the knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence.
- Section 5: Empathy: Statements 18 to 22 deal with the caring, individualised attention the company provides its customers.

### Research procedure

A statistician assisted the researchers in compiling the structured questionnaire. An outline of the purpose of the study, the importance of completing the questionnaire, as well as the procedures for completing the questionnaire were explained to the participants in a cover letter. The questionnaire was administered by one of the researchers and a research assistant.

## STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The data collected was edited, coded and analysed. The quantitative data that was generated by the study was processed and analysed using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) computer software program. The units of analysis for the study were citizens at the three stations.

Dimensions	Distributed	Number of items
Tangibles	4	Good
Reliability	5	Good
Responsiveness	4	Good
Assurance	4	Good
Empathy	4	Good
<b>OVERALL</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>GOOD</b>

**Table 3: Average communalities score of the dimensions**  
Source: Parasuraman (1988b)

The overall Cronbach alpha of the score indicates that the research instrument was statistically reliable with a high degree of consistency for the scoring on each dimension of the expectations and perceptions in different categories in this research.

Dimensions	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Number	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Dimension 1: Tangibility</b>					
C1	45	48	1	1	2
C2	43	50	1	2	1
C3	44	47	2	2	2
C4	47	44	1	2	3
<b>Dimension 2: Reliability</b>					
C5	60	34	1	1	1
C6	49	45	0	1	2
C7	66	28	0	1	2
C8	59	35	1	1	1
C9	35	58	0	2	2

Dimensions	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Number	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Dimension 3: Responsiveness</b>					
C10	62	30	2	1	2
C11	62	33	0	1	1
C12	63	29	0	2	2
C13	36	57	0	2	2
<b>Dimension 4: Assurance</b>					
C14	62	32	1	1	1
C15	60	34	1	1	1
C16	58	35	0	2	2
C17	55	39	1	1	1
<b>Dimension 5: Empathy</b>					
C18	61	33	0	2	1
C19	63	29	1	2	2
C20	65	29	1	1	1
C21	59	33	2	2	1
C22	49	45	1	1	1

**Table 4.4: Frequency table for customers' expectations of SAPS service delivery**

Table 4.4 outlines the frequencies pertaining to Section D (D1 to D22) of the questionnaires, which aimed to measure customers' perceptions of the SAPS service delivery. A low score indicates high customer perceptions and a high score indicates low customer perceptions of the services delivered by members of the SAPS.

Dimensions	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Number	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Dimension 1: Tangibility</b>					
D1	61	30	2	2	2
D2	58	30	2	3	4
D3	68	24	2	1	2
D4	76	16	1	1	3

Dimensions	Strongly agree	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Number	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Dimension 2: Reliability</b>					
D5	73	20	1	2	1
D6	89	3	2	2	19
D7	76	14	1	2	1
D8	87	8	0	1	1
D9	87	8	0	1	1
<b>Dimension 3: Responsiveness</b>					
C10	87	6	1	1	2
C11	57	36	1	1	1
C12	61	33	1	1	61
C13	58	35	2	1	1
<b>Dimension 4: Assurance</b>					
D14	89	3	1	2	2
D15	93	1	1	1	1
D16	91	1	0	1	4
D17	78	13	2	2	1
<b>Dimension 5: Empathy</b>					
D18	75	14	4	3	1
D19	86	1	4	4	2
D20	89	2	1	2	3
D21	85	5	3	2	2
D22	80	12	2	1	1

**Table 4.5: Frequency table for customers' perceptions of SAPS service delivery**

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The study mainly determined the effect of customer satisfaction of service quality provided by the SAPS to the community. The study used quantitative methodology to investigate the effect of customer satisfaction of service quality. A structured questionnaire was used to gather data for the study. Customers' satisfaction of service quality delivered by SAPS were measured perceptually. Questionnaires with a high reliability (Cronbach's alpha >0.70) were delivered through personal contact and self-administered by the customers. Overall, 100 respondents were selected. The outcome showed that, demographically, 54% were males and 46% females. Overall, 100% of the respondents were 18 years and older with mean age between 18 and 29 years.

Regarding the extent of customer satisfaction of the services of the SAPS, the customers were "satisfied" (Mean: 4.00-4.99) (reliability good) with all the dimensions of customer service which included: tangibility, responsiveness, assurance, empathy, reliability. While empathy and reliability had significant positive effect on customer satisfaction, none had a negative effect on customer satisfaction. The proposed model was found to be adequate in explaining the relationship between customers' satisfaction of service delivery by SAPS.

## RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research purpose also serves as a criterion against which the outcomes or results can be evaluated. The objectives of this study were as follows:

### To determine whether clients get the service they expect in the CSC

Table 4.4 in the study indicated that the subjects reflect significant differences for service expectations and perceptions (gaps) for all the service dimensions of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The table also depicted that the percentage scores between the expectations and perceptions of the Servqual dimension of quality. The values indicate the subject satisfaction level with their respective SAPS CSC. Based on the results depicted in Table 4.3, the dimensions in a descending level of importance include that all five dimensions demonstrate that the gaps in all categories are small which implies that the expectations are being met. The average score is an indication of the direction of the respondents scores - some of these may be significant, others not. These findings present a scenario in which the respondents are satisfied with the service receive from SAPS. This means that the CSC is responsive enough to the needs of the respondents.

The study reveals that the majority of respondents, 95% (65% + 30%), expected that the SAPS should always provide flexible personalised service to meet clients' individual needs. On the other hand, 93% (89% + 4%) of the respondents perceived that the SAPS has always provided flexible personalised service to meet clients' individual needs. The results indicate that respondents' expectations about the service they receive from the SAPS CSC exceeded their perceptions. The gaps in all the dimensions present a challenge for the SAPS staff and management. The SAPS is expected to

offer clients excellent service at all times. If the customer perceives that he or she has received poor service, the decision about future patronage will be based on that perception.

Expectations have a direct effect on perceived quality. The higher the level of expectation, the higher the level of perceived quality. The perceived level is then compared to expectations, resulting in a gap, or repudiation, that may be either positive or negative.

### To determine whether client's service requests are handled with care and sympathy in the CSC

The study depicts that the majority of respondents, 98% (64% + 34%), expected that the SAPS staff should provide prompt service to clients. On the other hand 96% (59% + 37%) of the respondents perceived that the SAPS staff provides prompt service.

The study indicated that the majority of respondents, namely 95% (65% + 30%), expected that the SAPS staff should listen to clients' problems. With regard to perceptions, 96% (62% + 34%) of the respondents perceived that the SAPS staff listen to clients' problems. A minor segment of the respondents (3%) disagreed with the statement.

The study illustrates that the majority of respondents, 97% (62% + 35%), expected that staff should have reassured clients about their personal anxieties, concerns and problems. With regard to perceptions, 97% (96% + 1%) of the respondents perceived that staff have reassured clients about their personal anxieties, concerns and problems.

With regard to SAPS's staff showing sympathy towards respondents' needs, the study depicts that the majority of respondents, 97% (57% + 40%) expected that staff should be sympathetic to clients' individual needs and respect clients' privacy. On the other hand, 94% (80% + 14%) of the respondents perceived that staff are sympathetic to clients' individual needs and privacy. The above replies from respondents indicate that the objective had been achieved: The SAPS handles its clients with care.

### To evaluate the client's understanding of the process of making a service request

With regard to the reasons why individuals were visiting the SAPS CSC, the majority of respondents reported a crime. It was also found that the majority of respondents visited the SAPS CSC for administrative purposes to certify copied documents (36%) and to get information (7%).

In terms of the waiting time at the CSC to be served by an official, the study indicated that of all the respondents (35%) had to wait less than two minutes to be served and that (26%) of the respondents indicated that they had to wait three to five minutes to be served at the CSC. A small number (5%) indicated they had to wait for half an hour or more to be served.

The study also determined the frequency of the times respondents visited the CSC in the 12 months. The results revealed that (40%) of the respondents visited the CSC twice during the year. Followed by the second largest group (26%) who visited the CSC three times a year and the third group (20%) of the respondents

who visited the CSC more than three times in 12 months.

The study indicated that the majority of respondents (41%) indicated that they would complain about poor service delivery to the respective station commander. A large proportion of respondents (38%) indicated that they would complain to the Independent Police Investigative Directorate. A minor segment of respondents (6%) indicated that they would report to the Minister of Police.

In terms of changes in the SAPS CSC, the study illustrated that (39%) of respondents would like to see changes in customer care priority. Followed by the second largest group (26%) who indicated that response time should change and (17%) of the respondents would like to see officials' attitude change. The above rejoinders from respondents who indicate that the objective had been achieved. The clients do understand the process of making a service request.

### To evaluate if clients' demographics play a role during service rendering

Male respondents represented the majority of this group (54%), while female respondents held the minority (46%). The difference of (7%) indicates a relative even gender distribution. The gender variable requestee in this study was relevant in order to acquire a better understanding of the uniqueness of each individual. Statistically, it is important to note the different perceptions of the different genders within the organisation. No differentiation is made between transgender as every person is regarded as an individual.

The results of the survey indicated that the largest number of respondents was in the age category of 35 and 39 years (31%), followed by the age group of 30 and 34 years (23%), and the age category of 45 and 50 years (12%) while (7%) were 51 years and older.

The majority of the respondents (49%) were single, while (28%) of respondents were married. A minor segment (8%) of the respondents was divorced.

## CONCLUSION

In order to satisfy customers and retain them, companies must concentrate on relational exchanges instead of transactional exchanges. Ultimately, it is believed that the relationships established with customers will contribute to a sustainable competitive advantage. It is therefore imperative for companies to establish quality relationships with their customers. Relationship quality reflects the strength of the relationship between the company and its customers and provides an indication of the closeness or intensity of the relationship. As mentioned in the introduction to this article, customer satisfaction and commitment are regarded as key indicators of relationship quality and as such are further explored in this study.

In terms of the empirical findings of the study, the results of the main survey were tabulated and the coding information was discussed. The information was analysed and summarised using descriptive statistics and multivariate measures. Graphic illustrations and tables were used to explain the results. The data were

tested for reliability and descriptive statistics were used in the study, which were calculated to summarise the sample data distribution. Through this case study, the current levels of service rendered at the CSCs of the three police stations were evaluated. The main objective of this project was to determine the gaps identified by the respondents. The structured questionnaire was intended to validate information obtained from the respondents to establish the current status on service levels of the CSC. The analysis indicated that the results were statistically significant and did not happen by chance. The findings indicate that, for the majority of the questions, the expectations exceeded the perceptions.

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# ARTICLE

## THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TALENT MANAGEMENT, PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT AND WORK ENGAGEMENT IN THE (EKURHULENI) BENONI CLUSTER POLICE STATIONS

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### ABSTRACT

#### Purpose

To explore the relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement by collecting data from the sampled population and reviewing the literature published by previous researchers.

#### Motivation

The South African Police Service needs to ensure workforce satisfaction and quality performance. Therefore, talent management needs to become a focus area so that it can increase the work environment, the well-being of employees and the skills of the individuals in the organisation.

#### Method

A quantitative research method was used to conduct research. Questionnaires were distributed to a sampled group of 287 respondents for completion.

#### Findings

Performance management was predicted and influenced by talent management and work engagement. The enforcement of the identified talent is dependent on other items of talent management and work engagement.

#### Practical and managerial implications

Managing the enforcement of the identified talent can cause improved work engagement of the workforce and improved performance management in the South African Police Service.

## Contribution/value added

The research will contribute to a better understanding of the different aspects of talent management, performance management and work engagement in order to achieve the strategic goals of an organisation.

## KEYWORDS/PHRASES

Performance management; talent development; talent management; talent retention; work engagement.

## INTRODUCTION

The South African Police Service (SAPS) needs to ensure work-force satisfaction and quality performance. Therefore, talent management needs to become a focus area so that it can increase the work environment, the well-being of employees and the skills of the individuals in the organisation.

A variety of literature on how talent management significantly impacts on performance management and work engagement has been reviewed. The review did not exclude previous studies that could assist the comparison of previous findings with the current research findings.

The objective of this article is to explore the relationships between three hypotheses variables, namely talent management, performance management and work engagement. An understanding of the definitions of the three variables plays a vital role in determining how one variable impact on the others. The research gap of this study is that the relationship between talent management, performance management and work engagement, in order to assist with achieving the strategic goals of the SAPS, is unclear.

## LITERATURE REVIEW

### Talent management

According to Fegley (2006:1), the concept of talent management was initially created to advance the course of action for recruiting and developing employees while focusing on the obligatory skills and abilities that would assist employees to achieve existing goals aimed at meeting organisational needs. Creelman (2004:3), on the other hand, defines talent management as a way of thinking, which includes attitude and interpretation. Performance is defined as an optimistic behaviour that drives and strengthens the relationships between talent management, individual performance, and in the end, the organisational performance. Fegley (2006:1) states that talent management has changed from being an administrative process and developed into a continual organisational exercise with a tactical central point that drives organisational outcomes. According to Cohn, Khurana and Reeves (2005:64), talent management is viewed as the processes that ensure adequate inflow of capable and skilled employees to fulfil the needs of the organisation. Considering the many definitions of talent management, it is thus preferred that managers should look at talented employees and manage them according to their performance levels. High-level performers need to be retained while those with potential and ability need to be

developed. In addition, rewards and acknowledgement should be tabled for the retention of those with abilities (cf Huselid, Beatty and Becker, 2005:110-117; cf Tucker, Kao & Verma, 2005:20-27). The definition of Hartley (2004:23) supports Fegley (2006:9) that "talent management is the process of recruiting, on-boarding and developing, as well as the strategies associated with those activities in organisations". This speaks to the alignment of talent management with organisational strategies. According to the Human Capital and Labour Report (2017), skill levels are regarded as a great challenge, hence, it is important to use training and development as a tool that will ensure that talent growth in the organisation is encouraged. It is also viewed that through training and development programmes in the company, the attraction of external talent can be experienced. According to Stewart (2016:64), an understanding of the set of knowledge and skills that the company requires, can help to compare the value of the talent and the complexity of substituting such talent, while at the highest positions in the organisation, there is no such talent. Ntonga (2007:95-96) emphasises that there is insufficient linkage between talent management practice and the broader human resource systems. According to INSEAD (2016), compensation of employees is fundamental and is set as the standard gauge to ascertain human resource outcomes, and not just as an economic rationality. For this reason, the recognition of employees becomes important in the strategic talent management system, hence, individual commitment and motivation play a vital role in the organisation. It is difficult to give an exact definition of talent management without considering performance management and the work environment. However, there is commonality in most definitions with regard to recruitment and development of talent towards achieving the organisational objectives (Lewis & Heckman, 2006:145).

### Performance management

According to Senaratne and Samaraweera (2015:74), leadership skills should be portrayed by avoiding segregation where people who regard themselves as high performers would like to associate with other high performers. They further highlighted that such people are commonly considered for benefits such as development and promotion because the organisation regard them as important. Boudreau and Ramstad (2005:17-21) as well as Mafini and Dlodlo (2015:939-952) argue against the approach of managing talent by placing people in performance groups. They argue that such a division will result in segregating low performers from

high performers while providing more opportunities to the high performers. These authors further emphasise that this approach diminishes the whole intention of talent management. According to Wright and Haggerty (2005:167), a key challenge is the relationship between practices and organisational performance. The key to performance development and growth in the organisation is the need for the employer to recognise, acknowledge and engage the skilled and motivated employees in order to achieve objectives (Skuzza, Scullion & McDonneli, 2013:455). Nwoye (2016:7) mentions that a successful organisation is an organisation that acknowledges performance management and develops it into an organisational culture. Bakker and Demerouti (2016:211) describe the relationship of performance management and work engagement as the bond that could not be disjoined, and when the bond is increased, it will lead to an enhancement of performance. Singh (2017:1) reflects the interlink of the talent management and performance management being different on approaches. The South African Police Service (SAPS) requires all its members to perform well in order to achieve organisational goals. Performance management is the way to operationalise a strategy and reach the goals. The effective way to raise employees' performance is by implementing proper promotion systems because it assists to manage people in order to increase success (Sarwar, Ahmed & Muneer, 2013:100). In this study, the behavioural indicator to rate the performance level of employees unequivocally during the performance assessment and appraisal process was employed to determine the capabilities of talented employees. Although the use of performance management systems is considered to be effective in motivating and retaining high performing employees, according to Cohn, Khurana and Reeves (2005:64-65), some organisations are progressively offering employees bonuses for individual performance. This approach of paying performance bonuses stimulates non-performers to improve their performance while minimising their intent to leave the organisation (Marquez, 2006:1).

## Work engagement

According to Ebrahim (2017:34), supported by Heyns and Rothmann (2018:113), committed employees derive from work engagement and become willing to give something of themselves in order to contribute to the organisational survival and objectives. According to Du Plessis and Boshoff (2018:27), there is a view that the success of the organisation is the result of improved work engagement. If management shows that they trust employees, it creates a healthy environment that enables job satisfaction and commitment to achieve organisational goals (Coxen, Van Der Vaart and Stander, 2016:7-9). According to Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter and Taris (2008:189), work engagement is defined as a "positive, fulfilling, work-related state of mind that is characterised by vigour, dedication and absorption". In the same vein Lee (2017:34) states that support of the psychological well-being of an employee is a good and suitable approach by the management to effective talent managing. It is important to have an understanding of the organisation's own human capital with regard to their skills, abilities and

potential. Employees who engage with their work demonstrate a high level of energy in their work which impacts positively on job performance. Jyoti (2014:239) mentions the importance of conducting a proper workforce skills audit and planning to ascertain who needs to be redeployed, where to focus on redeployment and who to develop, while taking into account the type of development programmes that need to be in place to address shortcomings identified by the organisation. According to Ng and Parry (2016:17), there is a need to consider organisational objectives and job evaluation to be able to transfer skills according to job requirements. Such skills, efforts and abilities will inform the approach to identify the required and potential end results as well as individuals with potential to contribute to the organisational strategic intent (Huselid, Beatty & Becker, 2005:110-117). According to Boselie, Dietz and Boon (2005:74), human resource (HR) departments has a responsibility to ensure that the interests of the organisation are served and employees' interests are attended to, whereby ability, motivation and opportunities to perform are considered. Bakker and Demerouti (2008:211) state that job resources such as the organisational support, career path or advancement and growth opportunities are positively linked to work engagement, which stimulate personal development and growth. This is supported by Graham (2018) who emphasises the positive contribution offered by the happy employee in ensuring the company financial growth.

## RESEARCH DESIGN

A quantitative design with a descriptive, predictive and explorative research approach was employed by distributing questionnaires to SAPS members at two selected police stations in the Ekurhuleni District (previously the Benoni Cluster). According to Babbie and Mouton (2008:212), this design is appropriate to obtain the objective of the research, namely to determine the relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement. Hence, for this research study, the researcher preferred to do a correlation research. In this design, the depth and the impact of the relationships between three variables were established, while the tendency of the occurrences emanating from the hypotheses was also considered.

## Research approach

The talent management questionnaire of Oehley (2007), the performance management questionnaire of Molapo (2007) and the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES) (2003) were used to collect data at the two worst-performing stations. This structured questionnaire was piloted to five respondents with similar characteristics to ascertain understanding of the questionnaire and to determine the need to review and adjust the questionnaire. Feedback from the pilot study informed the distribution of questionnaires without having to make any adjustments. Upon completion, the structured questionnaires were collected with care and handled properly to avoid interference with the questions. During the data collection process, the questionnaires were personally delivered to the respondents and collected by the researcher after

completion to prevent a low response rate and to protect the information from falling into the wrong hands.

### Research method

The researcher opted to use a stratified random sampling method to collect data from the two worst-performing police stations with a total number of 287 employees. From this population, the respondents were selected. The target group included

employees ranging from the top managers to the lowest level employees in each of the two worst-performing stations in the Ekurhuleni District. The researcher applied the Raosoft (2004) sample calculation method. Of the 287 questionnaires distributed, only 176 questionnaires were received back from the respondents, of which only 153 questionnaires could be used for data analysis since 23 were incomplete questionnaires. The formula below was applied to obtain a sample:

$$\begin{aligned}
 x &= Z\left(\frac{C}{100}\right)^2 r(100-r) \\
 n &= \frac{N x}{((N-1)E^2 + x)} \\
 E &= \text{Sqrt}\left[\frac{(N-n)x}{n(N-1)}\right]
 \end{aligned}$$

### Research procedure

After the topic of the research was approved by Southern Business School (SBS), the researcher obtained permission to conduct the research study from the National Commissioner of the SAPS for ethical reasons. The researcher also obtained permission from the relevant station commanders after explaining the purpose of the research. Thereafter, the researcher manually distributed the research questionnaires to respondents during their on- and off-duty parade. The purpose of the research was clearly explained to the respondents. The respondents participated voluntarily and anonymously.

### Research sampling

The population group consisted of SAPS employees, representing employees from all the components and subcomponents of the station. The sampling was descriptive and the respondents included employees of all race -, gender - and age groups, educational qualifications and work experience to allow a true picture of analysis. The researcher targeted employees from the visible policing, support and the detective environments. The target group included employees from the lowest ranks up to the rank of colonel. Table 1 below shows the demographic details of the respondents.

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Gender	Female	67	43.8	43.8	43.8
	Male	86	56.2	56.2	100
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	
Race/ Ethnic group	Black	127	83	83	83
	Coloured	9	5.9	5.9	88.9
	Indian	4	2.6	2.6	91.5
	White	13	8.5	8.5	100
	<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
<b>Age group</b>	55-60 years	6	3.9	3.9	100
	47-54 years	27	17.6	17.6	96.1
	41-46 years	28	18.3	18.3	78.4
	33-40 years	41	26.8	26.8	60.1
	26-32 years	45	29.4	29.4	33.3
	18-25 years	6	3.9	3.9	3.9
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	
<b>Rank</b>	General worker	10	6.5	6.6	6.6
	Constable	67	43.8	44.1	50.7
	Sergeant	34	22.2	22.4	73
	Warrant Officer	15	9.8	9.9	82.9
	Captain	17	11.1	11.2	94.1
	Lieutenant-Colonel	8	5.2	5.3	95.3
	Colonel	1	7	7	100
	Incomplete	1	7		
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>		
<b>Qualification</b>	Grade 11 and below	4	2.6	3	3
	Grade 12/ Matric	73	47.7	54.1	57
	Diploma/ Adv diploma	42	27.5	31.1	88.1
	Bachelor's degree	9	5.9	6.7	94.8

Item	Category	Frequency	Percentage	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage	
<b>(Qualifications continued)</b>	Honours/ BTech degree	5	3.3	3.7	98.5	
	Masters/ MTech degree	2	1.3	1.5	100	
	Incomplete	18	11.8			
<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>			
<b>Work experience</b>	18-25 years	6	3.9	3.9	3.9	
	26-32 years	45	29.4	29.4	33.3	
	33-40 years	41	26.8	26.8	60.1	
	41-46 years	28	18.3	18.3	78.4	
	47-54 years	27	17.6	17.6	96.1	
	55-60 years	6	3.9	3.9	100	
	<b>TOTAL</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100</b>		

**Table 1: Demographic details of respondents**

Table 1 shows the demographic data of 153 respondents in terms of gender, age, position, qualification and work experience. The majority (45%) of the respondents had between 26 and 32 years of experience followed by 41% of the respondents who had between 33 and 40 years' experience.

It appears that the Human Resources Department made inroads in recruiting young new talent. This is evident when analysing the years of work experience of respondents who had 0 to 5, 6 to 10 and 11 to 17 years' experience. They occupied the lower ranks from constables to warrant officers and non-commissioned officers in the SAPS and comprised 73.8% of the respondents, which is a good indicator of new talent and young blood coming in. Figure 1 and Figure 2 indicate the age and position of respondents. The

### Data collection methods

A questionnaire was designed to gain a better understanding of matters to collect the data required for the purposes of this study. The questionnaire used six- and seven-point scales for respondents to rate performance management.

The six-point scale used the following indicators:

Strongly agree = 1, agree = 2, not sure = 3, disagree = 4, strongly disagree = 5 and unable to rate = 6.

majority of older members occupied higher positions in relation to the younger members which is a positive sign of bringing more foot soldiers into the market.

Table 1 also shows that the majority of respondents were male respondents and middle-aged (between 26 years and 40 years old). The majority were constables and sergeants. The highest academic qualifications held by the majority of respondents are a matric certificate and a diploma.

There is a good indication that Gr 12 is the minimum academic qualification accepted by the organisation for recruitment purposes. However, there is a need to improve the qualifications in the South African Police Service and to appoint more employees with a tertiary qualification.

The questionnaire also used a seven-point scale to measure agreements on talent management and the scale ranged from never = 1 to unable to rate = 6.

Questions about work engagement used a seven-point scale with the following options: never = 1, rarely = 2, sometimes = 3, often = 4, very often = 5, always = 6 and unable to rate = 7.

## Data analysis

The analysis validity and reliability of the questionnaire were determined by means of Cronbach's alpha coefficient together with exploratory factor analysis. For the correlation coefficients, the Pearson product-moment was employed to determine the relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement. Effect sizes were used "to decide on the practical significance of the findings" (Cohen, 1988).

For data analysis purposes, the researcher used the Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS) (2009) as well as principal axis factoring (PAF). The application of the SPSS reliability procedure was used for the identification and elimination of items not contributing to a consistent description of the latent variables measured by the same scales and those latent variables were not observed during this analysis.

The data collected were analysed by the researcher as per the above-mentioned programmes as follows:

- Performance management questionnaire: total = 153; dimensions = 1; items = 6; scale = six-point.
- Talent Management: total = 153; dimensions = 8; items = 27; scale = six-point.
- Work engagement: total=153; dimensions=1; items=7; scale = seven-point.

## RESULTS

The researcher took note of the fact that the overall purpose of any research was to find answers to the research questions. Hence, the starting point was to attract the reader's attention to the purpose of this research study, taking into account the importance of talent management, as this study explored the significance of the relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement.

The research makes an important contribution towards understanding the extent to which talent management influences performance management and work engagement. The research, therefore, could assist the South African Police Service with the identification of a work environment and quality talent that can ensure the improvement of individual performances that can eventually lead towards the achievement of organisational goals.

**Hypothesis 1 of this study:** There are significant relationships between work engagement and performance management and talent management. The results of this research indicated the uncompromised and significant relationship between talent management and performance management. This significance was also observed in the work engagement dimension with a reliability of 0.857 and a mean score of 0.460. Performance management had a reliability value of 0.789 and a mean score of 0.384. This hypothesis also indicates a practical and significant relationship to the dimensions of work engagement, which are vigour, dedication and absorption. The performance management dimension has a medium-negative impact while the work engagement dimension has a very low negative impact. The relationship was partially positive as it was affected in some way by the performance management dimension, especially where the factor analysis was

0.138 - far below the KMO value of 0.60. This is an indication that the workforce at these two police stations in Ekurhuleni experience that the performance management system is effective. However, the system is seen to enforce punishment rather to correct and support.

**Hypothesis 2 of this study:** Work engagement predicts performance management. The findings showed a strong, positive statistical and practical correlation between vigour, dedication and absorption as work engagement dimensions. The predictor (enforcement of the identified talent) showed a correlating impact on both work engagement and performance management. More research on the relationship between the two variables is required.

**Hypothesis 3 of this study:** Talent management predicts performance management. The prediction that resulted from the data analysis in this study indicates that talent management predicts performance management where its elements are practically significant. A significant effect is caused by the predictor (the enforcement of the identified talent), which has an impact on both talent management and performance management variables.

Before the hypothesis was tested, the properties of Molapo's (2007) questionnaire, Oehley's (2007) questionnaire and the UWES (2003) were examined. This was done with the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test to determine the sample adequacy and sphericity of the item-correlation matrix and exploratory factor analysis to discover and identify the dimensions of the measurements, and reliability analysis using Cronbach's alpha coefficients to determine the measure of accuracy of the instruments and how repeatable the results are. Molapo's (2007) questionnaire obtained a measure of sampling adequacy of 0.789; Oehley (2007) obtained 0.857 and UWES (2003) obtained 0.923, taking into account that a score higher than 0.6 is adequate for factor analysis (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 2010: 287). These score values reflected a positive significant outcome. The KMO tested remarkable for all three hypotheses smaller than 0.5, which is acceptable and also shows a positive significance.

A principal component factoring extraction method was performed on one dimension of Molapo's (2007) questionnaire with seven items. Closer inspection of the pattern indicated that the items were primarily loaded onto one factor. A principal factor analysis was done by using the direct oblimin rotation to specify the seven items where these items were accepted for the performance management factor.

An exploratory factor analysis, using the principal component factoring extraction method (PCA), was performed on eight dimensions of Oehley (2007) with 27 items. Closer inspection of the pattern indicated the items primarily loaded onto seven factors where only four factors were well-defined.

A principal factor analysis was done by using the direct oblimin rotation to specify the four factors. The four factors were labelled as follows: "identify and develop employees" (factor 1); "work life balance" (factor 2); "talent management mindset" (factor 3) and

"enforcement of identified talent" (factor 4). The four factors explained a large percentage of the total variance. The item loadings were acceptable for the four factors mentioned above.

An exploratory factor analysis using the principal component factoring extraction method was performed on one dimension of WES (2003) with six items. Closer inspection of the pattern indicated the items primarily loaded onto one factor. A principal factor analysis was done by using the direct oblimin rotation to specify the six items where these items were accepted for the factor work engagement.

## Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics were used to provide structure to the analysis and assist in making a summary in a significant manner referring to the number of responses. Descriptive statistics also provided insight into useful information collected for this research (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013:67-68).

	N	Maximum	Mean	Std Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Identify and develop employees	153	5.43	3.3165	1.12019	
Work life balance	153	5.71	3.2260	1.18344	
Talent management mindset	153	6	3.5408	1.12114	
Enforcement of identified talent	153	6	3.2277	1.15845	
Performance management	153	5.5	2.6405	81428	0.723
Work engagement	153	6.14	3.7432	1.19650	0.855
Valid N (listwise)					

**Table 2: Descriptive statistics and reliability measurements**

Table 2 shows that the reliability of all factors was above the level of 0.7 and complied with guidelines by Cohen (1988). The factor with the lowest mean score was "performance management" which scored 2.6405, which is far above 0.7. The scores of other factors were: Identify and develop employees = 3.3165; work life balance = 3.2260; talent management mindset = 3.5408; enforcement of identified talent = 3.2277; work engagement = 3.7432. The three hypothesis variables appear to be correctly implement-

Table 3 (on p73) shows the relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement. Correlation becomes significant at a level of 0.01. The analysis above shows that all values have a positive significant correlation. Performance management was significantly positive related to performance management by 1.000, which is far above the acceptable correlation level. These results mean that the utilisation of performance management practices is of good standard; it does not affect the employees much. Thus, its significance supports H1.

Table 3 also shows that all the talent management practices had positive relationship with its dimensions. The values were as follows: Identify and develop employees to identify and develop

ed. However it appears that performance management requires improvement because it has an impact on talent management and work engagement.

After the descriptive statistical analysis was done, the hypothesis testing was conducted for correlation analysis (Pearson correlation analysis) to ascertain the relationships of the variables, which are talent management, performance management and work engagement.

employees = 1.000; work life balance to work life balance = 1.000; talent management mindset to talent management mindset = 1.000 and enforcement of identified talent to enforcement of identified talent = 1.000. These results mean that the satisfactory employment of talent management is observed, hence, its significance supports H1.

Table 3 further shows that work engagement has an influence on performance management, which supports H2. This emanates from the practices that have a significantly positive impact on both variables, taking into account the correlation level of 1.000 on work engagement to work engagement. This large effect means that the application of the work engagement practices has a positive relationship with one another.

The significance supports H2 and H3. In order to prove the proper prediction to one another, considering work engagement on performance management and talent management predicting performance management, multiple regression analysis was conducted.

	Performance management	Identify and develop employees	Work life balance	Talent management mindset	Enforcement of identified talent	Work engagement
Performance management	1.0	0.24	0.211	0.141	0.265	0.167
Identify and develop employees	0.24	1.0	0.781	0.633	0.772	0.634
Work life balance	0.211	0.781	1.0	0.527	0.666	0.702
Talent management mindset	0.141	0.633	0.527	1.0	0.646	0.478
Enforcement of identified talent	0.265	0.772	0.666	0.646	1.0	0.589
Work engagement	0.167	0.634	0.702	0.478	0.589	1.0

**Table 3: Pearson correlation analysis between talent management, performance management and work engagement**

	Non standardised Coefficients		Standardised coefficients	T	Sig	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square
	B	Std error	Beta					
<b>Talent management, performance management and work engagement</b>								
						.278a	0.077	0.046
<b>(Constant)</b>	2.787	0.247		11.298	0.0			
<b>Identify and develop employees</b>	0.070	0.114	0.095	0.612	0.542			
<b>Work life balance</b>	0.029	0.102	0.039	0.279	0.781			

Talent management mindset	-0.060	0.083	-0.078	-0.724	0.47			
Enforcement of identified talent	0.166	0.098	0.226	1.684	0.094			
Work engagement	-0.011	0.078	-0.016	-0.140	0.889			
<b>Talent management, performance management and work engagement</b>								
						.326a	0.106	0.075
(Constant)	2.793	0.222		12.579	0.0			
Identify and develop employees	-0.121	0.110	-0.181	-1.101	0.273			
Work life balance	0.023	0.100	0.035	0.230	0.819			
Talent management mindset	0.006	0.075	0.009	0.084	0.933			
Enforcement of identified talent	0.266	0.092	0.397	2.888	0.004			
Work engagement	0.028	0.069	0.047	0.403	0.687			
<b>Talent management, performance management and work engagement</b>								
						.342a	0.117	0.086
(Constant)	2.796	0.215		12.988	0.0			
Identify and develop employees	-0.155	0.107	-0.238	-1.443	0.151			
Work life balance	0.010	0.097	0.015	0.100	0.921			

Talent management mindset	0.024	0.073	0.036	0.331	0.741			
Enforcement of identified talent	0.276	0.089	0.424	3.091	0.002			
Work engagement	0.047	0.067	0.080	0.691	0.491			
<b>Talent management, performance management and work engagement</b>								
						.381a	0.145	0.115
(Constant)	2.639	0.215		12.283	0.0			
Identify and develop employees	-0.147	0.104	-0.227	-1.417	0.159			
Work life balance	0.001	0.094	0.002	0.014	0.988			
Talent management mindset	0.047	0.071	0.069	0.656	0.513			
Enforcement of identified talent	0.276	0.087	0.426	3.185	0.002			
Work engagement	0.65	0.066	0.111	0.986	0.326			
<b>Talent management, performance management and work engagement</b>								
						.356a	0.127	0.121
(Constant)	2.700	0.165		16.339	0.000			
Enforcement of identified talent	0.231	0.050	0.356	4.593	0.000			

a. Dependent variable: Performance management.

b. Predictors (constant): Identify and develop employees; work life balance; talent management mindset; enforcement of identified talent; work engagement.

A regression analysis was done to test the new hypotheses 2 and 3. Hence, the analysis was done to determine the functional relationships between a dependent variable, which is performance management, and a host of predictors that are: identify and develop employees, work life balance, talent management mindset, enforcement of identified talent and work engagement. The results yielded a none-significant result for the latter variables.

Enforcement of the identified talent therefore mediates the relationships between identify and develop employees and performance management, work life balance and performance management, talent management mindset and performance management, enforcement of the identified talent and performance management and finally, work engagement and performance management. The results mean that the poor application of work life balance, talent management mindset, enforcement of identified talent and work engagement have a barring influence on poor performance management, which then lead to skewed or less identification and irrelevant or none development of employees. A value of one indicated that there is no autocorrelation while a value of five indicates a negative autocorrelation.

According to Antoncic and Antoncic (2011:591-593), general contentment relates to employees who are relatively well-rewarded for their work, who find their work challenging and stimulating, and affording them a sense of achievement, which mirror the effectiveness of the work engagement. These employees become committed to the organisation and feel an immense sense of personal fulfilment and are proud to advise others who are part of the same organisation. General fulfilment, however, is characterised by an organisation where the majority of employees are satisfied with their work and believe that they have the opportunity to be independent through their actions in their positions and feel the prestige of their position in the organisation.

With regard to talent management and performance management, Graham (2018:1) indicates that employees expect opportunities and potential for their growth, significant learning and development benefits, as well as intellectual and emotional stimulation and challenge.

In conclusion, the following hypotheses were tested in this study:

Hypothesis	Hypothesis statement	Rejected/Accepted
H1	There are significant relationships between performance management, talent management and work engagement.	Accepted
H2	Work engagement predicts performance management.	Accepted
H3	Talent management predicts performance management.	Accepted

The research showed significant relationships between the three above-mentioned hypotheses.

Lewis and Heckman (2006:139) give an exact definition of talent management without considering performance management and the working environment and the fact that there are relationships between performance management, talent management and work engagement in support of H1.

Bakker, Schaufel, Leiter and Taris (2008:187-192) supported by Bakker and Demerouti (2008:211), mention that engaged employees show higher levels of energy and identification towards their work, which have a positive impact on job performance and financial turnover in an organisation. This supports the hypothesis that work engagement predicts performance management.

Creelman (2004:3) defines talent management as a way of thinking that includes attitudes and interpretation, whereby performance is defined as an optimistic behaviour that drives and strengthens the relationships between talent management, individual performance and organisational performance. In this definition there is a predicted relationship between talent management and performance management in support of H3.

## DISCUSSION

The main objective of this research was to determine the relationships between management, performance management and work engagement of the workforce in the South African Police Service. The research makes an important contribution towards understanding the extent to which talent management and performance management impact on work engagement.

This research showed a significant relationship between the predictor (enforcement of the identified talent) as a single dimension of the variable talent management and one item of performance management (the implementation of corrective measures). However, corrected measures are effective to mitigate poor individual performance. The explanation could be that employees experienced the negative impact of corrective measures as a punitive measure.

All the dimensions of the talent management were practically significant related to the performance management with a medium effect, while statistically there was also a significant relationship with low effect. However, more research is still required to determine the relationship between the two variables.

**H1:** There are significant relationships between performance management, talent management and work engagement.

The results showed that performance management is significantly related to talent management and work engagement due to the influence of the mediating factor, which is enforcement of the identified talent. That refers to the work, vigour, dedication and absorption of employees in the workplace, taking into account the acknowledgement and development opportunities as more employees indicated a higher level of absorption in their work.

**H2:** There is a significant relationship between performance management and work engagement.

It is indicated through regression application that performance management was practically significant in relation to work engagement. All the items of work engagement were also practically significant and influenced one another, taking into account the impact made. The significant relationship was positive. However, there is a need to conduct more research to determine the relationship between these two dimensions.

**H3:** There is a significant relationship between performance management and talent management.

This research showed a significant relationship between performance management and talent management, taking into consideration that the items in the work engagement dimension and the talent management dimension are practically significant and had a large effect on vigour, dedication and absorption. The predictor (enforcement of the identified talent) had an influence on both work engagement and performance management. However, more research is required to determine the relationship between the two variables.

## Managerial implications

The South African Police Service needs to ensure workforce satisfaction and quality performance. Therefore, talent management needs to become a focus area so that it can increase the work environment, the well-being of employees and the skills of the individuals in the organisation.

Ineffective talent attraction and retention in the SAPS lead to job dissatisfaction where employees feel that their work is not longer challenging which results in poor performance. Hence, it is imperative for the SAPS management to conduct assessment of work engagement in order to revisit its policies. The attitude of members, whether positive or negative, depends on organisational practices.

## LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A limitation of this study was that it focused only on the two worst-performing stations in the Ekurhuleni District. Another limitation was that several respondents did not complete the questionnaire, including omitting certain demographic details.

It is recommended that more research needs to be conducted on the same topic. The same instruments could be used to collect the research data with the intention to broaden the findings. This will also improve the reliability and the validity of responses.

The South African Police Service needs to review its existing policies to reduce current discrepancies in order to allow for effective administration and employment practices that will attract talent. At the same time, it should acknowledge the talent that it has at its disposal while also taking performance into consideration.

The SAPS should consider recruiting more female members and also create an enabling environment for the development and improvement of qualifications beyond Grade 12 level. This would enhance government essentials and a wide range of focus points.

## CONCLUSION

There is a need for a holistic approach to talent management as it is imperative that employees are assisted with the identification of their potential and shortcomings for developmental purposes. Management has the responsibility to ensure the growth of internal talent in the work environment. To ensure satisfactory performance, the development of employees is an investment towards the achievement of organisational goals. Hence, talent management, performance management and work engagement cannot be separated due to their cross-cutting and overlapping end results. The rotation of employees enhances exposure, however, work engagement plays a vital role. The relationships between talent management, performance management and work engagement should be considered whenever strategic goals are to be achieved.

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