An exploratory study into the perception of Crime Prevention Police Officers regarding policing accountability in Gauteng

By

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DECLARATION

I, Mduduzi Simon Khumalo, hereby declare that the Dissertation submitted for Fulfilment of the degree Magister Artium (MA) at the Faculty of Humannities of the University of Pretoria is my own work and has not previously been submitted for a degree at another university.

_____   31 October 2006

MS Khumalo

DEDICATION

THIS STUDY IS DEDICATED TO ALL THOSE MEN AND WOMEN IN THE SA POLICE SERVICE WHO MADE IT THEIR DAILY BREAD TO RISK THEIR LIVES IN ORDER TO SECURE AND SAFEGUARD ME, MY FAMILY, MY COMMUNITY, MY SOCIETY, AND MY COUNTRY – SOUTH AFRICA. THANK YOU!

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◊ **My wife, Busisiwe Sophie Khumalo.**
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SUMMARY

The democratization of South Africa (SA) officially took shape in 1994. This was after the first democratic elections on 27 April 1994. The elections were preceded by the acceptance of the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993). The new dispensation was characterized by the adoption of Constitutional principles as national values of democracy. As a result of the adoption of a constitutional dispensation (namely both the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) and the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) the Constitution became the supreme law of SA above all other laws that were in place. This era also enabled the elevation of the powers and status of the courts, and the system of checks and balances was enshrined.

This research was initiated by a lack of a standardized formula for calling the police to account for their actions and decisions. The current study sought to explore whether there are any national, regional, and global standards for calling the police to account. Furthermore, it sought to establish if there are any comparative studies that sought to assess police accountability efficacy within regional and global perspectives. In order to make these determinations within a qualitative approach, the study sought to determine the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng police practices. This determination was done by determining the perspectives of the operational police officers (crime prevention) who are rendering the first priority core business of the police in SA, namely the prevention of crime.

To achieve this goal, two questions needed to be answered, namely: What is the police definition of policing accountability?; How can policing accountability be enhanced and promoted within the daily practices of crime prevention police officers? To have these questions answered, the following objectives were formulated for the study:

- To explore and describe the perception of crime prevention police officers in Gauteng Province with regard to "policing accountability".
- To identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers to enhance and promote policing accountability in their day-to-day police practices in the Province.

To achieve these objectives, a mixed research design, consisting of a qualitative-, explorative-, descriptive-, and contextual research design, was utilized. The target population consisted of all crime prevention police officers who were at that time attached to the seven policing areas/precincts of the Gauteng police service. Twenty eight- (28) focus group interviews were scheduled for the study throughout Gauteng Province. The sampling technique that was used in the study was the non-probability purposive sampling technique. The interviewing process was conducted until saturation was reached.

To ensure validity and reliability of the results of this study, Guba's model (in Lincoln & Guba, 1985:295-300) of ensuring trustworthiness, was applied. Data was collected by means of in-depth, semi-structured phenomenological focus group interviews, as well as supportive field information (in the form of field notes and observation). A tape-recorder was used to capture data, which was then transcribed "verbatim" to facilitate the process of data categorization. Data was analyzed according to the descriptive approach of Tesch (1990:142-145). This method helped the researcher to reduce the data into themes, sub-themes, categories, and sub-categories. The findings of this study were then controlled using available literature.

From the analysis of the findings, six themes were identified as obstacles hindering the practice and a culture of policing accountability. In order to deal with the obstacles within the police practices, six strategies were developed to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of policing accountability within the Gauteng police practices. From the findings of the study and themes that developed therein, a six-tier framework/model was developed for the study. Recommendations that emanated from the study are presented in the last chapter.

OPSOMMING

Die demokratisering van Suid-Afrika (SA) het amptelik in 1994 plaasgevind. Dit was na die eerste demokratiese verkiesing in SA op 27 April 1994. Die verkiesing is voorafgegaan deur die aanvaarding van die Tussentydse Grondwet (Wet 200 van 1993). Die nuwe bedeling is gekenmerk deur die aanvaarding van Grondwetlike beginsels as nasionale waardes van 'n demokrasie. Nadat die Grondwette (naamlik die Interim Grondwet (Wet 200 van 1993) en die Grondwet (Wet 108 van 1996), aanvaar is het hierdie wette die hoogste gesag in SA geword. Die Grondwet word as die hoogste gesag in SA beskou. Hierdie era het ook magte en status van die howe verhoog; en 'n stelsel van wigte en teenwigte is ingebring.

Hierdie navorsing is geïnisieer deur 'n gebrek aan 'n standaardformule waardeur die polisie tot verantwoording verplig kan word ten aansien van hul optredes en besluite. Die onderhawige navorsing het ten doel om vas te stel of daar enige nasionale, streeks, en wêreldwye standaarde bestaan om polisie tot verantwoording te roep. Voorts het die navorsing gepoog om vas te stel of daar al enige vergelykende studies onderneem is om die verantwoordbaarheid en doelmatigheid van polisie binne streeks- en wêreldwye perspektiewe te bepaal. Om hierdie vasstellings binne 'n kwalitatiewe benadering te maak, het die navorser gepoog om die praktyk en kultuur van verantwoordbare polisiëring binne die Gautengse polisiepraktyk te bepaal. Hierdie bepaling is gedoen deur die perspektiewe van operasionele polisie-offisiere te ondersoek. Hierdie polisiebeampte is getaak met die kern werksaamhede van die polisie in SA naamlik misdaadvoorkoming.

Ten einde dit te bereik, moes twee vrae beantwoord word, naamlik, Wat is die polisie se omskrywing van polisiëringverantwoordbaarheid?; Hoe kan hierdie verantwoordbaarheid verhoog word en deel wees van die daaglikse funksionering van die misdaadvoorkoming polisiebeampte? Om dit te bepaal is die volgende oogmerke vir die navorsing geformuleer:

- Om die persepsie van misdaadvoorkoming polisiebeamptes in Gauteng rakende polisiëring-verantwoordbaarheid te ondersoek.
- Om riglyne te identifiseer en te beskryf om hierdie polisiebeamptes te ondersteun en om die verbetering en uitbreiding van verantwoordbaarheid van polisiëring te bevestig in hul daaglikse polisiëringtaak in die Provinsie.

Vir die bereiking van hierdie oogmerke is gebruik gemaak van 'n gemengde navorsingsontwerp, bestaande uit 'n kwalitatiewe, eksploratiewe, beskrywende en kontekstuele navorsingontwerp. Die teiken populasie is al die misdaadvoorkoming polisiebeamptes wat op daardie stadium verbonde was aan die sewe polisie-streke van die Gauteng Provinsie. Die steekproef tegniek wat gebruik is in hierdie navorsing, is 'n nie-waarskynlike, doelgerigte steekproef. Agt-en-twintig fokusgroep onderhoude was geskeduleer in die hele Gauteng Provinsie. Onderhoudsvoering het voortgeduur totdat 'n versadigingspunt bereik is.

Om die geldigheid en betroubaarheid van die bevindiging van hierdie navorsing te verseker, is gebruik gemaak van Guba se model (in Lincoln & Guba, 1985:295-300). Data is verkry deur middel van indiepte, semigestruktureerde fenomenologiese onderhoude met fokusgroepe, asook ondersteunende inligting vanuit die veld (in die vorm van veldnotas en waarneming). 'n Bandopnemer is gebruik om response vas te lê, waarna dit verbatim oorgeskryf is om die data te verminder en te kategoriseer. Data is ooreenkomstig die beskrywende benadering van Tesch (1990:142-145) geanaliseer. Hierdie metode het die navorser in staat gestel om die data te reduseer tot temas, subtemas, kategorieë en subkategorieë. Die bevindinge van hierdie navorsing is daarna gekontroleer teen die beskikbare literatuur.

Uit die analise van die bevindinge is ses temas ontwikkel oor die beperkinge wat die praktyk en kultuur van polisiëringsverantwoording belemmer. Om die beperkinge aan te spreek binne polisiepraktyk, is ses strategieë voorgehou ter verstewiging en bevordering van die praktyk en kultuur van polisiëringsverantwoordbaarheid binne die Gautengse polisiepraktyk. Die bevindinge van die resultate van die navorsing en die vasgestelde

temas wat daaruit voortgespruit het is gebruik om 'n ses-vlak raamwerk te ontwikkel. Aanbevelings wat uit hierdie navorsing voortgevloei het word in die laaste hoofstuk aangebied.

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1. GENERAL OVERVIEW AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1 A HISTORICAL BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

South Africa was emancipated from the British colonial rule in 1960 and became a Republic in 1961. However, the British system of governance, called the *Westminster system,* was retained (Joubert, 2001: 2-3). This Westminster system of governance included the principle of Parliamentary sovereignty. According to Carpenter (Joubert 2001:4) this principle implies that Parliament is sovereign and supreme above all national institutions (including the judiciary) and structures. The judiciary could not invalidate an Act passed by Parliament irrespective of its voidability. As a result, Parliament started to pass discriminatory laws. These laws were somehow against the values of democracy, human dignity, freedom, and human rights. The international outcry this caused resulted in South Africa being ousted from the international community and placed in isolation for approximately 30 years.

Apart from the principle of Parliamentary sovereignty that lowered the status of the judiciary and placing the powers of Parliament above all state institutions (including the judiciary), the government of the day was unacceptable and illegitimate to the majority of South Africans and the international community. The whole organisation and control system implemented by the apartheid government on the police force after 1961 was questioned and found to be careless, unwise, and unacceptable.

This government was found illegitimate in two ways. First, the Black community had neither franchise nor the formal political control over governance of their own country. Second, this illegitimacy resulted from the White community possessing both the franchise and formal political control. Whites in other words, electing the ruling party that appointed the national minister of police, who in turn appointed the national commissioner. The White electorate however had little or even no say in the day-to-day control of the police. There were also, for these electorates, no structures of local accountability in which local communities could participate, liaise, consult, or advise police bodies in respect of their fears, concerns, and perceptions (Haysom, 1989:140-144).

A systematic change of governance was required in order to change that undesirable system of governance. In 1994, the Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) was adopted. It replaced the Westminster system of governance. Through this Act, every citizen of South Africa was allowed

the right of franchise and it also contained a Bill of Rights. A new federal system of governance was adopted. The judicial powers were elevated and that elevation placed the onus on the judiciary to preserve the Constitutional values and principles against incursion by government (Davis, Chaskalson, & De Waal, 1994:2-5; Joubert, 2001:4).

The judiciary was empowered to invalidate any Act, including any Act of Parliament, if found to be inconsistent with the provisions of the Interim Constitution (1993). Also the *"Trias Politica"* or the principle of the separation of powers was fully entrenched in the Constitution. The judiciary became independent. The actions of both the executive (government) and legislature (Parliament) were subjected to judicial review. In this way, the Interim Constitution (1993) did away with the concentration of powers in one organ of state. It is for that reason that today there is no a more concentration of power in Parliament (Davis et. al., 1994:2-5; Joubert 2001:4). That is why constitutional supremacy was adopted as a guiding principle in securing South Africa's constitutional democracy. The Interim Constitution (1993) was replaced by the current Constitution (Act 108 of 1996). According to section 1 of the Constitution (1996), the South African community is governed by three national values. These values are, Democracy, Freedom, and Human dignity.

Section 199 of the Constitution (1996) provides for the establishment of the security services for the Republic of South Africa including the South African Police Service (SAPS). According to Joubert (2001:15) this provision is in line with the earlier requirement of the Interim Constitution which stipulated that a South African Police Service be established and regulated by an Act of parliament. Section 205(3) of the Constitution, 1996 sets out the following as aims and objectives of the SAPS:
- To prevent, combat, and investigate crimes.
- Maintain public order.
- Protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property.
- Uphold and enforce the law.

Although the Constitution does make provision for the establishment of a national police service, however, the specifics regarding the powers, duties, and functions of the members, regulations, and orders and instructions are not contained in the Constitution. Section 205(2) of the Constitution provides that national legislation must be enacted to make these specific provisions. The main aim of the Police Act is to provide for the establishment, organisation, regulation, and

control of the police service. The preamble of the SAPS Act requires a police service that embraces and bears the following values and characteristics:

- Ensures the safety and security of all persons in the national territory.

- Upholds and safeguards the rights of every person as guaranteed by the Constitution.

- Ensures cooperation with the communities it serves in combating crime.

- Reflects respect for victims of crime and an understanding of their needs.

- Functions under effective civilian supervision (Joubert, 2001:16).

1.2   MOTIVATION AND RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

An exploratory International Symposium was held in 1995, in Onati (Spain). The objective of this symposium was to analyze the challenges of policing democracies, and to develop implementation mechanisms. Various views from different systems of governance were echoed about the challenges of policing democracies. Wholly democratic societies, represented by the United Kingdom, the Netherlands, and Switzerland, perceived the police role in democratic societies as one pursued in accordance with popular wishes. They viewed the police role as requiring proper and adequate supervision to ensure conformity to democratic principles. Policing must be people-oriented, thereby giving citizens a role in crime prevention and control (Das, 1995:610-611; Walker, 1999:268). It was expected of these delegates from experienced democracies to provide guidelines and lessons on how states can transcend from oppressive regimes towards fully-fledged democracies.

Recommendations were made regarding the structure and content of the police role in states in transition, semi-democratic states, and states characterized by full democracies. The Austrian delegation, representing semi-democratic societies, recognized the inherent conflict between state (police) power and people power. In order to eliminate this conflict in the implementation of an accountable policing system of governance, they recommended that police decision-making required stringent transparency. On the other hand, Poland delegates who were representing new democracies, added that democratic policing demanded giving the local people a role in it. The South African delegate, representing countries in transition, viewed the democratic policing demands as decentralization, community policing, civilian control, and commitment to the minimum use of force. This delegate identified and emphasized these as hallmarks of democratic policing that South Africa wished to usher in (Das, 1995:611).

In line with its proposed way forward, this symposium laid down the foundation that underpins the policing of democracies. Participants in the symposium highlighted the importance, requirements, and the vision for policing democratic societies. Almost all of the participants, except Israel, emphasized the importance of inculcating and embedding accountable policing practices within the daily practices and activities of their respective police organizations. It is in view of this that this study was conceived. This study is based on the enormous needs and demands for accountable policing practices within the daily activities of the South African Police Service. Embedding and inculcating accountable policing practices within the daily practices and activities of the police will ensure three important things:

- First, it will ensure that both policing and the police agency (SAPS) can respond to the policing needs of South Africa.
- Second, it will ensure that public views will, hitherto, form part of the policy directive of the SAPS.
- Third, it will ensure that public account will be rendered and that it will be rendered properly and in time.

It will appear that South Africa already started with the implementation of the above recommendations immediately after the symposium. This is demonstrated by the fact that police accountability mechanisms have already been put in place. To prove this, national police performance mechanisms have already been implemented. These mechanisms have been established through the SAPS National Commissioner's responsibility to provide an annual account of how public monies have been expended, in each financial year, which is provided for by the SA Police Service Act (Act 68 of 1995) and the Public Finance Management Act (Act 1 of 1999) as amended by the Public Finance Management Act (Act 29 of 1999). The national Commissioner of the Police discharges this responsibility by providing an annual report, explicating how police operations have been implemented, and how effective they have been in developing and securing public safety.

For both the Public Service and the SAPS, as an organ of that Public Service, various mechanisms of public account have been put in place. These mechanisms are triad. They are, State-, institutional- (internal), and independent monitoring mechanisms. First, State (government) monitoring mechanisms have been established in accordance with section 181 of the Constitution, 1996. Government has established these mechanisms through the

establishment of the five Public Institutions Supporting Constitutional Democracy. These institutions are:
– the Public Protector,
– the Human Rights Commission,
– the Commission for Gender Equality,
– the Auditor-General, and
– the Public Services Commission.

The role of these institutions is to act as "watchdogs", thereby fully entrenching the system of checks and balances, and preventing the government from abusing its power. These institutions help to provide for both a pro-active and a reactive system of monitoring police organizational performance. The SAPS as an organization is also monitored by Parliament. Parliament achieves this by requiring the National Minister of Safety and Security to develop a national policing policy which requires that the National Commissioner of Police must implement this policy in accordance with ministerial directives and manage the day-to-day police operations, develop a police plan (Strategic Plan for the SAPS, 2004-2007), and account annually with regard to how public monies were expended.

The second monitoring mechanism of the SAPS is known as the "independent monitoring". This mechanism is achieved by means of the role of the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD). The ICD acts as an independent and external structure for monitoring the police. This monitoring takes place at both the national and the provincial level. The ICD is a State organ that was created by section 222 of the Interim Constitution. It was created to ensure that complaints, in respect of offences and misconduct allegedly committed by members of the SAPS, are effectively and efficiently investigated.

Third, the SAPS is monitored internally through the national Secretariat for Safety and Security, as provided for by section 2 of the Police Act. Section 3 of this Act provides for four functions of the Secretariat for Safety and Security. These functions are:
- Performing such functions as the Minister may consider necessary or expedient to ensure
  civilian oversight of the police service.
- Promoting democratic accountability and transparency in the police service.
- Monitoring the implementation of policy and directions issued by the Minister.
- Evaluating the functioning of the police service.

At provincial level, both the provincial Secretariat for Safety and Security and the Provincial Commissioners, are encumbered with a responsibility to respectively monitor, oversee, evaluate, and liaise provincial policing within a national policing policy framework. This responsibility is reinforced by the White Paper on Safety and Security (1998), asserting that the purpose of monitoring at provincial level is broadly to ensure that national government policy is adhered to, government objectives are achieved, and that the needs of communities are addressed. The provincial boards act as external structures in monitoring the SAPS. The Interim Constitution encumbered the Provincial Commissioners with the responsibility to establish these boards in their respective provinces. Pelser (1999:4) observes that this institutional arrangement ensured that community consultation and input are structured throughout the command structure of the SAPS.

At local level, the SAPS is monitored through the creation of station Community Police Forums (CPFs). In this regard, local consultation and inputs (at local level) with the police is regulated by the Interim Constitution under section 221 (1) and (2). According to this section, the Interim Constitution (1993) directed that an Act of Parliament was to "provide for the establishment of community-police forums in respect of police stations", which would include the following functions:

● The promotion of the accountability of the Service to local communities and cooperation of communities with the Service.
● The monitoring of the effectiveness and efficiency of the Service.
● Advising the Service with regard to local policing priorities.
● The evaluation of the provision of visible policing services. This includes:
  - the provision, sitting, and staffing of police stations,
  - the reception and processing of complaints and charges,
  - the provision of protective services at gatherings,
  - the patrolling of residential and business areas, and
  - the prosecution of offenders, and
  - requesting enquiries into policing matters in the locality concerned.

From the look at these institutional arrangements to effect the practice and a culture of accountable policing, two issues become important. First, it is important to analyse these policy implementation strategies. Second, it is important to assess the effectiveness of these policy initiatives. That is exactly what this study is about. It is designed to assess the effectiveness of

these initiatives and to develop operational guidelines on how accountable policing can be improved upon.

This study was therefore motivated by the need to investigate the extent of SAPS institutional transformation, from a totalitarian policing society that was inherited from the apartheid regime, to a people-based, accountable police organization. This investigation was focused on police and policing accountability. It was decided to focus this investigation on exploring the nature and extent of the practice of police and policing accountability. This exploration will help in developing strategies and guidelines to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the crime prevention police practices.

In this regard, the development of effective leadership and executive alignment of the police organization, is important to realize this objective. In this view, it becomes imperative to explore and develop strategies that can be used to develop, inculcate, and institutionalize the practice and a culture of accountable policing within these police practices. This requires the development of operational crime prevention guidelines to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing. This study will explore the perception of crime prevention officers with regard to the practice and a culture of police and policing accountability.

1.3   PROBLEM STATEMENT

It has already been emphasized under the historical background (Par. 2) that the Constitution Act, 1996 provided for the establishment of a unified national police service for the entire Republic of South Africa. In order to give effect to this provision, Parliament enacted an enabling Police Act, 68 of 1995, that provided for the structure, the functions, and the management of the police service. These SAPS transformational initiatives were aimed at ensuring that a singular, people-based, and accountable police service was put in place. However, it is not clear whether this vision has been, or is being achieved.

For purposes of this study, problems will be highlighted that indicate the nature and extent of the current police accountability dilemma in this country. In order to provide and highlight this dilemma, it became necessary to provide an in-depth analysis of the problem statement that informs this study. This analysis will be focused on the nature of the problem, extent of the problem, the need for theoretical foundation into police and policing accountability, and the need for research into accountable policing practices.

1.3.1 Nature of the problem

There exists a variety of problems with regard to the practice and a culture of accountable policing in South Africa. In this study, ten problem areas are identified. These problem areas are also described as to how they impact on the existence of a good culture of policing accountability in South Africa. These problems, which will be discussed hereunder are, poor police managerial oversight, the problem of police-public accountability, lack of a national policing strategy, the disjuncture between police legislation and police operations, poor police institutional capacity, the problem of community policing as an institution-wide policing strategy, lack of a framework for police accountability, potential conflict between policing policy and operations, lack of consensus regarding police and policing mandate, and a lack of community capacity.

1.3.1.1 Poor police managerial oversight

According to the ICD Annual Report for 2002/2003 the Minister reported that there were 4 443 complaints laid against the police. This indicates an increase of 31,8% from the 2001/2002 financial year. This annual report indicates a worrying tendency of complaints laid against the police. In this respect, police behaviour and attitude indicates a decline of operational, institutional, and structural norms and values of the police organization. It also indicates a lack of individual accountability of police officers, including crime prevention police officers. It also indicates a gap between the police mandate and the actual daily police operations.

1.3.1.2 The problem of police-public accountability

The second problem emanates from what is referred to as the historical lack of the police in South Africa of "public accountability" (Glanz, 1993:98). In this regard, Haysom (1989:140-144) identifies three ways in which the apartheid government and its police force were illegitimate, lacked public accountability, and were unacceptable. First, the Black majority community was disfranchised and lacked the formal political control over the governance of their country. Second, the enfranchised White minority community had no or even little effective control over the day-to-day activities of the police. Third, although Whites were enfranchised, there were no structures of local accountability in which local communities could participate, liaise, consult, or advice police bodies in respect of their fears, concerns, and perceptions (Haysom, 1989:140-144). It is questionable whether the current government has created enough structures for everyone to participate, liaise, consult, or even advice policing bodies in respect of their policing

needs, fears, concerns, and perceptions. The existence of these structures does not solve the problem, because their effectiveness is also still questionable.

1.3.1.3   Limitations of a national policing strategy

The third problem emanates from the perceived lack of clarity with regard to the strategy adopted to give effect to the post-1993 transformational and change initiatives. According to Pelser (1999:8) the first and only known strategy adopted for police operations was the adoption of the community policing philosophy as an institutional-wide strategy to police communities. There is thus far no political will to give effect to a proper policing strategy through an Act of Parliament, a proper vision and strategy regarding how police operations should be conducted. The White Paper on Safety and Security (1998) provides for the establishment of a National Crime Prevention Centre. Although this Centre is already in place, however the White Paper itself never became an Act of Parliament since 1998 in order to detail these operations and to give effect to the perceived new strategies. Therefore, the policing strategy is currently lacking in that there has never been a Parliamentary Strategy, in the form of an Act, explaining how the community of South Africa should be policed, post the community-policing era. The community policing era is being replaced by the recent introduction of sector-based policing in South Africa, although this policing approach is still at its infancy stage.

1.3.1.4   The disjuncture between police legislation and police operations

The fourth problem emanates from what can be referred to as a conflict between legislation and operations. The police legislation provides for an accountable, people-based and focused police service. First, the measuring of police efficiency and effectiveness, to determine whether the vision is achievable, is not an easy task to undertake. For example, an increase in sexual offences might not be indicative of an escalation of these offences but may measure that the dark figures have decreased due to police effectiveness and public trust in the police to report these crimes more often. Thus, the conflict between police legislation and policing operations appear to be that the measure of the achievement of the vision of legislation might be inappropriate in some cases. Secondly, the killing of police officers may point to conflict of interests that exist between the police as service providers and the public as recipients of that service. The killings could indicate that the police might not have been properly integrated into the mainstream new South Africa and that they have failed to win public trust. On the contrary, recent opinions from experts and operational directors indicate otherwise. In this regard, Gauteng chief of the detective service, Assistant Commissioner Bushy Engelbrecht indicated in an article on News24.com (2002/09/09) that a lack of clarity exists with regard to police killings.

He was however, inclined to indicate that police officials in Gauteng are killed for revenge and for their firearms. In this interview, he did not rule out the possible involvement of the criminal (underworld) syndicates.

1.3.1.5   Poor police institutional capacity

The fifth problem relates to what can be referred to as the problem of the police organization's institutional capacity. This is the capacity of the police to engage in the innovative practices required to revitalize or empower communities. Pelser (1999:8) appears doubtful about such capacity in citing the following constraints as problems and challenges to ensure community involvement:

- Personnel are both under-trained and under-skilled.

- The hierarchical organization of personnel inhibits individual innovation, in that the police organization has more managers than line functionaries. This is to say that there are more managers and commanders than police constables.

- The continued lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, development and succession strategy geared towards enhancing local-level service delivery. This means the lack of systematic incentives to reward innovative and effective practice at the local level (Pelser, 1999:8).

1.3.1.6   The problem of community policing as an institution-wide policing strategy

The sixth problem emanates from the adoption of a community policing tradition (philosophy and practice) as an institution-wide strategy to police communities at the local level in South Africa. The biggest problem of this is the warning that was sent by the Department of Safety and Security's Technical Team on Community Policing. This team, which initiated the community policing process and its implementation, cautioned in its recommendations that the tendency of equating the functions of CPFs and the process of community policing was detrimental to the development of alternative local policing strategies. The team also questioned the ability of community policing in the empowerment of the individual police officer to practice community policing as part and parcel of the day-to-day responsibilities and practices (Pelser, 1999:11).

1.3.1.7   A lack of a framework for police and policing accountability

The seventh problem is the lack of a unified framework for calling the police to account for their actions and decisions. In one specific incident in South Africa, following the 1994 cabinet re-structuring, the first National Commissioner of the South African Police Service, Commissioner

George Fivaz, complained of political interference in his work by the then National Minister for Safety and Security, Minister Sydney Mufamadi. This raised various questions, specifically the question of what policing accountability entails, and how it should be enforced. On the basis of this apparent lack of a unified framework for calling the police to account, and this particular incident, a number of uncertainties exist. First, to date it is not clear whether the Commissioner is directly accountable to the Minister (who is a political and cabinet member accountable to the President individually as a police policy political body, and collectively as a member of cabinet, that is accountable together with the President to Parliament). It should be noted that by legislation the minister does not appoint the National Commissioner, as the President appoints him (according to the Constitution, the Police Act, and the Public Service Act). The second question pertains to the direction and mode of police accountability. The third question emanating from this question is the identity of these institutions and mechanisms. That is, what are the mechanisms of police accountability? If the Commissioner (who is not popularly elected) was complaining about a politically and popularly elected structure, then to whom should the police be rendered accountable to? This uncertainty continues to exist.

1.3.1.8 Potential conflict between policing policy and police operations

The eighth problem emanates from a potential conflict between government policing policy, requiring transparency and accountability for decisions and actions of the police, and police operations, requiring smart, proper usage of resources, and covert nature of police operations. In this regard, it can be mentioned that the CPFs once had a tendency of demanding account and transparency, which the police management perceived as interfering in local police functions. This dilemma between government policing policy and police organizational operations is both a legal and an operational problem. This is because local police chiefs (police station commanders) are accountable to the area management of the police according to the Police Act. They therefore have operational independence to conduct policing operations according to their expertise, and without any external interference. This is, however, not desirable for the accountability institutions like the CPF's, who know how notorious the police can be, when left un-policed and unchecked (Pelser, 1999:4).

1.3.1.9 Lack of consensus regarding the police and policing mandate

The police and policing mandate is causing problems of identity and enforcement strategy for operational officers and their management. It is not clear whether the police mandate is restricted only to the four police functions encapsulated in section 205 of the Constitution or not. This is particularly important in the light of present policing, where the policing strategy of

community policing requires a pro-active and innovative police service. This policing strategy is not totally in line with the traditional policing functions, which can be summed up as law enforcement and the execution of the law. For example, where the police are called in for domestic disputes and the social welfare and judicial structures are called in at the same time, the question that comes to mind is what then should the police role be in this instance? There are no clear-cut guidelines in this case because of the variety of opinions in this regard. Some researchers prefer the total law enforcement approach while others insist on the alternative dispute resolution strategies mandate. This approach relies heavily on the problem-solving policing style that ensures the longevity of decisions as a measure of police effectiveness (Robinson & Chandek, 2000; Goldstein, 1990; Moore & Braga, 2003).

1.3.1.10 Lack of community capacity

The tenth problem emanates from the dilemma between "community" and "capacity". According to the *Community Policing Policy Framework*, community policing is defined in terms of a collaborative, partnership-based approach to local policing to the civil realm while establishing the police as facilitators and brokers of civil policing. It further advocates problem-solving strategies promoting the use of non-state resources and knowledge by establishing an enterprise culture that mobilizes the entrepreneurial efforts of the citizenry. Lastly, it requires an exploitation of the commodification of security that the emergence of private security has made possible. The problem is that this change and mind shift requires a lot of re-training of the police and their local communities to accomplish this vision. Thus, it appears that the problem lies in the distinction between the will of the community and the capacity of the police. Pelser (1999:6) is, however, pessimistic about the availability of such ability and capacity within the police to change their mindset and direct their initiatives into the vision of community policing as envisaged. Furthermore, police institutional capacity relates to the uncertainty whether the police as an organization, are able to engage in the innovative practices demanded by the today's police operational environment, as well as required to revitalize or empower the country's communities. Pelser (1999:8) is adamant however, holding that the severe capacity constraints facing the police organization makes it inevitable not to question the availability of such capacity.

1.3.2 Extent of the problem

There exists a variety of problems with regard to the practice and culture of accountable policing practices in South Africa. In this study, ten problem issues are identified and described with regard to how they impact on the practice and culture of accountable policing practices within the operational crime prevention police practices. These issues are, poor police managerial

oversight, the problem of the police-public accountability, limitations of a national policing strategy, the disjuncture between police legislation and police operations, poor police institutional capacity, the problem of community policing as an institution-wide policing strategy, a lack of a framework for police and policing accountability, potential conflict between policing policy and operations, lack of consensus regarding the police and policing mandate, and a lack of community capacity.

1.3.2.1   Poor police managerial oversight

According to the ICD Annual Report for 2002/2003, police allegations of misconduct and improper behaviour increased by 31,8% from the previous year. This indicates an increase in complaints by the public against the very same people who must protect them, the police. This further indicates that there exists no overseeing, evaluation, and monitoring of police officers by their line of command. Recent studies confirmed that this lack of managerial oversight does contribute to the lack of accountable police behaviour by junior police officers (Cancino, 2001:154). Furthermore, the lack of guidance and supervision is perceived to have a contributory effect to the increase in complaints laid against the police. In this regard, it is believed that the inadequacy of supervisors, internal coaches, and mentors is present within the police service. This is because the adequacy of these supportive mechanisms helps in providing adequate guidance to police officers on a continuous basis (Manning, 1999; Slovak, 1986).

1.3.2.2   The problem of police-public accountability

There exists a perceived gap existing between the White and Black communities with regard to policing. This is believed to be attributable to the historical imbalance in the formal political control, lack of public control over the day-to-day police practices and activities between the two race groups (Haysom, 1989:140-144). The issue is exacerbated by the lack of previous studies carried out to establish whether the standards for policing the country are the same between White and Black communities. In this respect, Pelser (1999:12) asserts that it is reasonably uncertain to believe that, given the history of racial conflict and evolution in this country, the White communities who had been supporting the oppressive police would care about police oversight. One can also not believe that the Black communities, who had been silenced and oppressed through the police agency before 1994, will willingly give off their time and resources to assist the police in fighting crime. Thus, for both groups in society (Black and White) police support is not believed to be forthcoming.

1.3.2.3   Limitations of a national policing strategy

There is no clarity with regard to the extent of transformation of the police from a police force to an accountable police service. No studies have been undertaken so far in South Africa to make this determination. One study nearer to this suggests that the police have regarded community policing not as a national policing strategy but rather just an add-on to the other responsibilities executed by the police. This study concluded that one of the primary goals of the community policing policy – to effect the fundamental transformation of the SAPS – has not transpired in the manner envisaged by the policy-makers and government in general (Pelser, 1999:12).

1.3.2.4   The disjuncture between police legislation and police operations

The fourth dilemma is related to the police organizational resource capacity, which is perceived to be a problem. This problem limits the ability of the organization to deliver basic community safety services. It is believed that there exists a conflict between the legislative provision, from the Constitution up to and including all the enabling legal frameworks of the police, and the police eventual operations. The operations are supposed to give effect to what the legislation provides. For example, in his State of Nation Address of 2004, President Mbeki voiced his concern over the sluggishness and inefficiency of the public service officials. That was in 2004 (10 years after democratization) and such concerns are not even supposed to be an issue after the "*Batho Pele*" (Putting People First) public service strategy document was operationalised (6 February, 2004, State of Nation Address, www.gcis.gov.za; www.anc.org.za/speeches). This indicates a huge gap between police-enabling legislation and the eventual police operations.

1.3.2.5   Poor police institutional capacity

The police organizational incapacity is identified as a problem. This is because this incapacity inhibits their organizational ability to respond to and deal with its own environmental influences. Three reasons are cited for this incapacity. These are, a lack of an integrated human resources plan, resulting in the personnel of the SAPS being still largely under-trained and under-skilled. In this regard, Pelser (1999:8) observes that some 25% of the overall national police workforce remains functionally illiterate. The second reason is the hierarchical organization of police personnel that inhibits individual officer innovation. The SAPS is perceived to be extremely top-heavy and centralized, with very little actual management authority being delegated to the local police station operational command (station commissioners). The third reason is the perceived continuing lack of a coherent and integrated training, deployment, development, and succession

strategy, which is geared towards enhancing local level service delivery. This means that there exist no systemic incentives for rewarding innovative and effective police practices at the local level (Pelser, 1999:8-9).

1.3.2.6 The problem of community policing as an institution-wide policing strategy

There is a total lack of an organizational vision with regard to what is an accountable police service and how it can be structured. Two reasons are cited for this blinded action and decision. Firstly, it is alleged that the SAPS has tantamounted the functioning of Community Police Forums (CPFs) with the process of community policing. This resulted in over-reliance on CPFs as a organizational policing strategy, with the result that there has never been any endeavours from the side of the police officers and their management to come up with alternative local policing mechanisms. Secondly, community policing has been accepted with skepticism, as a result of the SAPS Technical Team that warned and questioned the ability of community policing to empower individual police officers to practice community policing as part and parcel of their day-to-day responsibilities and practices (Pelser, 1999:11).

1.3.2.7 Limitations of a framework for police accountability

There exists no universal framework for calling the police to account. There are various schools of thought in the policing environment regarding policing accountability (see Dixon, 1999 & 2000(a); Reiner & Spencer, 1993; Walker, 1999). For example, the English tradition regards the office of the chief constable as an independent office. In this tradition, there exists a strong belief that is held against political accountability *vis-à-vis* public accountability. Other schools, like the South African school of thought, consider the office of the National Commissioner as merely one office in the various departments of the public service. This causes police operational decisions to be questioned frequently.

1.3.2.8 Potential conflict between policing policy and operations

The current lack of policing operations giving effect to legislative vision has been detected. There are two reasons that can be viewed as contributing to this state of affairs. First, the police-public attitude, perception, and behaviour differ greatly. The incident of police killings and police-caused homicides, and irresponsible, uncaring attitude it takes place with, can be regarded as good examples. There has been a total decrease in the number of deaths in police custody as well as police-caused homicides for the period 2002/2003. This decrease indicated good rapport

and work between the ICD and police management. However, the incidence of police-caused homicides indicate that 71% of the race of suspected police members involved in shooting incidents were White, that the incidents occurred at the scene of crime while the police officer was effecting an arrest or preventing an escapee from fleeing (ICD Annual Report, 2002/2003). Apart from the involvement of the same race as victim and accused, the incidence of this type of police officer behaviour is still rampant within the police service. One particular incident cited in the ICD report indicates that in Tsakane (East Rand), it is alleged that a SAPS member driving in an unmarked police vehicle, randomly fired shots at a group of civilians. One civilian was fatally wounded and members of the community recovered the victim's body the next day. The police member alleged that the deceased attempted to rob him. He, however, failed to report an armed robbery case or report the shooting incident at all. He further denied having discharged his firearm (ICD Annual Report, 2002/2003).

1.3.2.9   Lack of consensus regarding police and policing mandate

The police and policing mandate is not clearly described within the various works of the policing sciences. Various authors view the police mandate from differing perspectives. In South Africa, some (Dixon, 2000(a):72) view the police mandate as encapsulating the four constitutionally enshrined functions. Others believe that the police mandate should be better understood as a mechanism for the distribution of non-negotiable coercive force, employed according to the dictates of an intuitive grasp of situational exigencies (Bittner, 1975). This means that the police mandate should be viewed from the perspective of what the police should be held to account for, namely their distribution of coercive force against public threats, in this regard. Other writers see the police mandate as calling for a parsimonious application of coercive power to ensure that the social uneven and unequal distribution of power does not impact and negatively affect the administration of justice (Alderson, 1979:11). The last writer views the police mandate as demanding and that the police should not see themselves as the sole suppliers of public peace and tranquility. Rather, they should see themselves as co-producers of social peace, good governance and harmonious communal life along with other institutions and organizations. In short, there is no consensus regarding the right content of the police mandate as indicated above (Pelser, 1999:1-9).

1.3.2.10   Poor community capacity

There exists a dilemma of both policy and practice between "community" and "capacity". Police accountability is viewed as the ability and interests of the police in becoming agents of the

community, advocates of community interests, and facilitators of public harmony and tranquility. However, the policing dilemma informs of the current adamancy by the police in holding this view. This is because the severe capacity constraints facing the police, makes it inevitable not to question the availability of such capacity (Pelser, 1999:8). This results in police failure to embed police accountability in their daily activities and practices. The outcome of this is that problem-solving and its strategies fails to be promoted as a policing mandate, and results in the failure of the police to promote the use of non-state resources and knowledge by establishing an enterprise culture that mobilizes the entrepreneurial efforts of the citizenry. Lastly, it appears that the problem lies in the distinction between the will of the community and the capacity of the police (Pelser, 1999:6).

1.3.3 A need for theoretical foundation

There is a great need to explore the inculcation, institutionalization, and an embedment of accountable police practices within the police practices in South Africa, and Gauteng Province in particular. This need is of supervening importance within the operational echelons of the SAPS, as an operational crime prevention in everyday activity and practice. Therefore, the current exploratory study will address this by identifying and describing factors that hinder the practice and culture of accountable policing within the crime prevention echelons, by eliciting suggestions on how to implement the practice and culture of accountable policing as an everyday police operational crime prevention practice. Furthermore, this exploration will help to make recommendations and suggestions in the form of guidelines on how the Gauteng police service can practice accountable policing as an everyday crime prevention police practice and activity. As a result, these operational guidelines will contribute to the development of a theoretical foundation into operational accountable police practices within the police service in South Africa, with specific reference to Gauteng Province.

Moreover, these guidelines will determine strategies that can be applied to develop and manage accountable policing practices in Gauteng Province. These strategies will be refined to develop a framework or a strategic instrument that can be used to enhance and promote both the practice and a culture of accountable policing within a crime prevention operational perspective.

1.3.4 A need for research into police and policing accountability

The need for a theoretical foundation has identified a great need for research into the exploration of crime prevention accountable police practices. The current study will, first, explore

the perception of crime prevention police officers with regard to accountable police practices and culture. Second, it will investigate obstacles that hinder operational crime prevention accountable practices. Third, it will identify strategies to enhance and promote accountable operational crime prevention police practices on a day-to-day basis. Overall, the sum total of these angles will contribute to the development of a framework for enhancing and promoting accountable policing practices and culture within the operational crime prevention echelons of the Gauteng police service. It will also assist in the development of an operational framework for accountable police practices.

1.3.4.1   The state of the existing research

The existing studies on the topic is based upon Anglo-American studies. These studies, as explained in the literature review above, do not indicate any empirical work undertaken on the topic on a comparative basis, starting with studies by various researchers in one country and ending up with various research undertaken in other countries. All the research reviewed in this study only indicate an inclination to view police accountability as taking place in two ways, namely the answering of the what of it and the how of it. In this regard, Bayley (in Bennett, 1983:146-7) states:

> At the present time, we have no data that allow judgement to be made about the relative efficacy of different accountability devices. Whether we like it or not, we must fly by the seat of our pants. Not only do we not know what would be useful to do, we don't even know what is being done on any comparative basis.

Limited empirical studies have been undertaken in South Africa with regard to this topic, namely:

- Masuku (2001) overviewed the charging and conviction rates of police officers between 1994 and 1997.

- Dixon (2000(a)) used a four-dimensional analysis framework that was developed as a Ph.D study in London's Brunei University entitled "Popular Policing? Sector policing and the re-invention of policing accountability". He used this framework to overview and analyze the South African policing system and style.

- Pelser (1999) overviewed the challenges of community policing in South Africa.

- Rauch (1998a) used a station commissioner's perspective to overview crime and its prevention in the Greater Johannesburg Metropolitan area.

- Rauch (1998b) overviewed the South African policing policy to analyze the role of provincial executives in safety and security in South Africa.

1.3.4.2   The shortcomings in the existing research

The biggest shortcoming of these studies is that very few of these studies were conducted empirically through fieldwork. Almost all of these studies were conducted through the strategies of documentary/literature analysis, except the studies conducted by Rauch (1998a). Rauch conducted an interview with a sample of the Gauteng police station commissioners with a view to determining the causal factors of crime and the strategies to control and manage crime within their policing precincts.

The second shortcoming was indicated by Bayley (1983:146-147) in an International Conference entitled "Accountability and Control of Police: Lessons for Britain". In this conference, he indicated two shortcomings in the current research. First, the current literature has failed to indicate the state of existing knowledge about the effectiveness and efficiency of the various accountability devices. Second, the failure of the global academic community to undertake international comparative studies regarding the practice of accountable policing in various countries and to make suggestions and guidelines on how accountability within the various countries can be improved upon.

The third shortcoming within the South African studies is that they were mostly, if not all, conducted using related topic of police accountability except, Khumalo (2001). Khumalo's studies were only focused on the perception of Gauteng police investigators/detectives. This was also the only study that went into the field to explore these perceptions with a view to formulating guidelines to enhance and promote accountable policing practices in Gauteng police service.

1.3.4.3   The need to explore the problem

There is thus a great need to study police accountability in South Africa using the frameworks developed in other countries as a point of departure, for example studies conducted by Daly (1987). She studied public accountability among senior civil servants in Australia. The potential impact of these studies is their focus on the perception of senior public servants on their understanding of public accountability.

There is a further need to focus studies on the objectives of the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) of 1996. These studies can be focused on developing a framework for the

accountability of the Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICJS), namely the accountability of the ICJS in South Africa.

Another need is to focus the findings of the current study on the municipal policing system. This will also help to formulate guidelines to enhance and promote police accountability within the policing practices of the municipal police services.

The findings of the current study must be extended to the whole of South Africa with a view to establish two things. Firstly, to determine the perception of the police officers with regard to policing accountability. Secondly, to establish guidelines that can be used to promote and enhance police accountability within the police practices in South Africa.

Future studies are also required to explore ways to develop a framework/s to manage accountable policing practices in South Africa to ensure that we help in arriving at the ideal constitutional vision of policing in South Africa. In other words, policing with consent and that the policing system is conducted and managed in a way that enhances and promotes accountable policing.

1.3.5 Importance and objectives of the study

Limited empirical studies have been undertaken in SA with accountable policing practices in mind. Although there were various relative studies that were conducted by previous researchers towards police accountability, none of these studies helped in developing a crime prevention operational framework that enhances and promotes accountable policing in South Africa. For example, Masuku's study (2001) overviewed the charging and conviction rates of police officers between 1994 and 1997; Dixon (2000(a)) developed a four-dimensional analysis framework to analyze the South African policing system and style; Pelser (1999) overviewed the challenges of community policing in South Africa; Rauch (1998a) used the perspectives of station commissioners to overview crime and its prevention in the Greater Johannesburg Metropolitan area; and Rauch (1998b) overviewed public policing policy to analyze the role of provincial executives in safety and security in South Africa. All these studies failed to address accountable policing practices. This dearth in research will be addressed by the current study.

Furthermore, this study will complete the on-going study, which was started in 2001 by the researcher. The first leg of that study was to develop guidelines for police criminal

investigators/detectives as operational police officers. In that study, the researcher explored the perception of Gauteng criminal investigators/detectives with regard to policing accountability. It was intended to develop operational strategies to enhance and promote police accountability within the daily police practices of the police investigators and as an everyday police practice of the detective service within the Province. The biggest shortcoming of that study was that it failed to cover all operational police officers, as it only concentrated on the detective service. The current study will address that limitation.

The current study aims to develop strategies that can be used to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the operational crime prevention police practices. This study will assists in providing a viewpoint of crime prevention police officers in the inculcation, embedment, and institutionalization of accountable police practices in Gauteng Province.

The objectives of this study are two-fold, namely:
- To explore and describe the perception of crime prevention police officers in Gauteng Province with regard to "policing accountability".

- To identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers to enhance and promote policing accountability in their daily police practices.

1.3.6 Value of the study
This study will be worth pursuing for the following five reasons:

1.3.6.1 Police officers and their police organizations
This study is worthwhile and will help an ordinary crime prevention police officer that is operating in Gauteng Province to understand police accountability in various ways. They will understand what the concept "police accountability" is within an operational crime prevention perspective. They will also understand the operational obstacles that hinder the practice and a culture of policing accountability. They will also understand, through operational police strategies, how they can enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing within their daily police activities as operational crime prevention police officers.

The study will also be helpful for the police organizations to understand the following important aspects of their role in society:

- The meaning of both police and policing accountability within a functional police officer''s perspective.
- The obstacles that hinder the practice and a culture of police accountability.
- Strategies to enhance and promote accountable policing practices.

The above will be forthcoming from the viewpoints of the Gauteng crime prevention police officers.

1.3.6.2   Members of the police quality assurance bodies

The findings of this investigation will be useful to teach members of the various policing quality assurance bodies within and outside the police hierarchical structure (namely members of the Community Police Forum (CPFs), Secretariat For Safety and Security, internal structures like management services and training, Community-Based Organizations (CBO's), politicians that are serving the portfolio of Public Safety and Security, and police managers/commanders). Members of the policing quality assurance bodies will be able to understand what police and policing accountability is, what hinders it within the police practices of Gauteng Province, and the strategies to enhance and promote accountable police practices within the Gauteng Province.

1.3.6.3   The Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICJS) and its members

This study will help the members of the Integrated Criminal Justice System with knowledge about the frameworks applicable within their everyday CJS life especially members of the policing organization. It will further assist in the ironing out of most, if not all, grey areas in the application of legal frameworks in the operational policing environments.

It will further assist in the total integration of the Integrated Criminal Justice Clusters. These clusters are supposed to share knowledge and coordinate activities. The total integration of these clusters will eventually assist in the combating of violent crimes, especially both the killing of police officials and the police-caused public homicides.

The study will also help to strengthen the integrity of the ICJS. This will be achieved in three ways. The first is through improved community participation and an effective police investigative management practices. The second is by training the ICJS officials in the operational and managerial police practices. This training will ensure that the ICJS has a competent and trained

workforce at the forefront. The third way is through the development of strategies that can be applied to promote accountable ICJS on an everyday basis. These strategies will help to identify obstacles hindering the practice and a culture of accountable policing practices within the everyday practices and activities of these officials.

1.3.6.4   Gauteng Province in general and its research communities

The study will assist in the identification and formulation of guidelines on how to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within the daily lives of police officials with specific reference to Gauteng Province. The exploration of police perceptions will help in the formulation of a police-based framework of accountable policing practices, and the whole study will assist in the development of a research database of police practices in the country and internationally.

The methodologies that will be pursued in the study will be helpful to confirm the viability or non-viability within the police practices. The integration of these methodologies into police research will be helpful for future studies and for other studies in comparative areas.

1.3.6.5   The international policing community

The study will in its literature utilization, apply literature developed in other countries in the assessment of those country's policing systems. This will eventually contribute towards the promotion of democratic policing within the African continent and abroad. Also regional policing styles could be improved through the guidelines produced from this study.

The findings of this study will fill the gap of the non-existence of comparative findings that can be used to assess the efficacy and effectiveness of police accountability devices. This study can be seen as pioneering research that can be used to inform future studies.

The exploration and development of an operational framework for inculcating and embedding accountable police practices within the crime prevention police practices will help in the formulation of a crime prevention-based framework for managing accountable policing practices. The study will assist in the development of a research database of police practices in the country, thereby contributing to the development of a database on how to police democratic societies.

1.4   HYPOTHESIS / KEY THEORETICAL STATEMENT

The current study is qualitative in nature, and does not have or follow pre-conceived hypotheses. Instead, a key theoretical statement guides the study. The exploration and description of the perception of Gauteng crime prevention police officers with regard to accountable policing will provide a basis for developing and describing operational guidelines. These guidelines will be helpful in order to facilitate the process of enhancing and promoting policing accountability within the policing practices of Gauteng police service as an integrated public safety strategy for this Province.

1.5   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

For purposes of this study, four concepts are central to this study. These central concepts are "perceive and perception", "police and policing", "police accountability", and "accountable policing". These concepts will be defined in order to operationalise them. Their operationalisation will assist in clarifying any uncertainty with regard to their meaning in the study.

1.5.1   Perceive and perception

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1997:1128-1129) defines the concept "perceive" as to apprehend through the mind or regard mentally in a specified manner. This definition is insufficient to provide guidance to the study. For that reason, an operational definition will be formulated in order to guide the study. For purposes of this study, perceive is defined as conception of something in a specified manner through the mind.

"Perception" is defined as the ability of the mind to refer sensory information to an external object as its cause. This definition is limited for various reasons for it to be used as an operational definition. First, it fails to demonstrate that the perceptual mechanism is an on-going process. Second it fails to explicate the mechanisms that are utilized by the mind to convert sensory stimuli into a meaningful and coherent whole.

Swanson and Holton (1999: 134) define perception as a personal feeling, impression, belief, or comprehension of an object, event, or quality that may not be factual. This definition is incomplete to be accepted as an operational definition to guide the study. The reason is that it fails to demonstrate how the perceptual process takes place.

Matteson and Ivancevich (1987:26-40) define perception as the cognitive process by which an individual gives meaning to the environment. This definition would have been accepted as an operational definition if it had explained how the sensory stimulus is converted into meaningful data to give meaning to the surrounding world.

Van Heerden (1984:89) defines perception as a complex process by which man selects sensory stimuli and arranges them in such a way as to form a rational and meaningful image of the world around him. This definition is found wanting in that it also fails to explain how the sensory stimuli is converted into meaningful data to interpret to the surrounding world. It will for these reasons not be accepted as an operational definition.

Schiffman and Kanuk (1983:136) define perception as the process by which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets stimuli into a meaningful and coherent picture of the world. This definition explains the stimuli conversion process to provide meaning to the surroundings. However, it fails to explain why this conversion is done and why it takes place. It is also rejected as an operational definition.

For these reasons, it has been decided to formulate an operational definition that will guide this study. For purposes of this study, perception is defined as a cognitive process by means of which an individual selects, organizes, and interprets sensory stimuli into a coherent picture in order to interpret and understand his/her surrounding environment.

1.5.2 Police and policing

The writings of Colquhoun describes policing as (Stead 1977:85-86):

> Policing is an improved state of society besides to the blessings which a Nation derives from an excellent Constitution and the system of general laws, are those advantages resulting from a well-regulated and energetic plan of police, conducted and enforced with purity, activity, vigilance, and discretion.

It is for these reasons that an operational definition of both the police and policing must subscribe to these historical guidelines. First, policing is supposed to improve the quality of life of the citizens and it services. Second, it must be undertaken with a proper plan of action. Third, it must be connected to the country's Constitution and/or its general laws.

Dixon (2000(a):71) defines "police" as any individual or organization involved in policing. This definition is not acceptable for it fails to differentiate the state policing system from the privately-operated private police. It fails to distinguish between public police and private security organizations.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1997:921) defines police as the civil force of a state, responsible for maintaining public order. This definition fails to capitalize on the strengths of the first definition, namely that individuals or an organization(s) forms the state police. It is for this reason that it will not be utilized for operational purposes. For these reasons, an operational definition will be formulated to guide this study.

Police is defined as the organization constituting the civil force of a state or government that is tasked with maintaining and executing public safety and security through a system of organized policing. This includes any person/s employed by such civil force. In South Africa, police implies the institution that is mandated through the Constitution to maintain public safety and security and to uphold public order.

Van Heerden (1984:15) defines policing as the personification of order and a guarantee that the constitutional rights of every individual, whatever his race or social class, will be protected within the framework of the order society has chosen to uphold at any given time by means of the delegated power structure. This definition will be used as an operational definition to guide this study.

1.5.3 Police accountability and an accountable police organization
The Concise Oxford Dictionary (1997:8) defines "to account for" as meaning:
- " to give a reckoning for or to answer for; and
-   call to account, require an explanation".

Walker (1999:268) defines accountability as having to answer for your conduct. This definition fails to provide a clear picture of the nature and process of this concept of "having to answer". It leaves one wondering whether it is or is not a legal prescription to account for. If not then it is merely a normative approach to assuring public conformity to societal processes. That is why this definition will not be accepted for operational purposes.

Stenning (1995:5) defines "accountability" as "… No more, no less than requirements to give accounts. It entails a set of normative prescriptions about who should be required to give accounts, to whom, when, how, and about what". The definition of Stenning is suitable because it explains accountability as a requirement. However, it fails to explain the legality of that requirement. It does not regard accountability beyond or even below a just duty to give accounts. It also sees accountability as a norm and not a legal requirement formulated through a consensual agreement. For these reasons, this definition does not suffice to be used for operational purposes.

Uglow (1988:115) views accountability as implying some form of explanation and justification, usually a public one. What is also worrying about it is that the nature of the said "explanation" is not known or even unclear because it sees accountability merely as "some form of explanation". Two issues are very important in highlighting the limitations of this definition. First, it fails to explain the nature of the accounting process, and secondly, it fails to point out that actions or inactions must have taken place. These are the reasons for rejecting this definition.

Daly (1987:3) defines accountability as the existence of some authority or person to who account has to be given, and the performance of actions that have to be accounted for. Although Stenning's definition was rejected for operational reasons, he did pave the way by setting out certain yardsticks for measuring accountability by providing a checklist of elements that must be met during the accounting process. Also although the authority to whom account has to be given is mentioned; however the "performance of actions" is a preceding process that comes before the process of "giving account". It is for this reason that Daly's definition is found wanting and not sufficient for operationalization.

Dixon (2000(a):71) sees accountability as referring to the quality of a relationship where one party (the police) have a duty to report on, to explain, and/or to justify their actions and decisions to another (A), and that duty arises because the police have powers that are not originally theirs but are in some way delegated to them by or through party (A). Dixon's definition is by far the best definition. It adheres to almost all the checklist elements provided by Stenning and also explains the rationale behind the accountability process. The only limitations of this definition are that it does not accept that one has to account for failure to take a decision and that it does not explain the nature of that "quality of a relationship". This definition will be used as the basis for operational purposes. The limitations will be addressed in the operational definition.

For purposes of this study, police accountability can be defined as a quality of a relationship between the police as service providers and the public as consumers of that service, emanating from a legal responsibility to give account of their actions and decisions as well as their failure to take decisions/inactions and that duty arises because of the agent nature of the policing function/their powers are not original but are delegated to them through the social contract.

"An accountable police organization" (or accountable policing practices) is defined by Bayley (in Bennett 1983:146) as one whose actions, severally and collectively, are congruent with the values (and norms) of the community in which it works and is responsive to the discrepancies when they are pointed out. This definition suffices to be operationalized for purposes of this study.

1.6 LITERATURE REVIEW

There are currently two approaches that guide the current literature on police and policing accountability. These are the American perspective and the British perspective. Both these approaches will be described in this study.

1.6.1 American perspective regarding police and policing accountability

According to Walker (1999: 268) the police accountability framework is dual, consisting of the following elements:

- Substantive accountability, which addresses policing accountability through answering the question "What should the police be held accountable for?"

- Procedural accountability, which addresses policing accountability by addressing the question "What procedures should be pursued to hold the police accountable? That is, how should accountability be achieved?"

The question of "what should the police be accountable for" is approached from the theme of what they do and how they do it. This question is guided by the contexts of the Constitution, the Police Act, as well as the Police Regulations. Trying to ascertain these frameworks would thus require an evaluative approach to the provisions of these frameworks with regard to the wording to establish if they were properly formulated in order to prevent them from being misleading.

With regard to the "how" which are the procedures of police accountability of substantive accountability, one needs to ask the question: How do the police execute their tasks? The how is measured in terms of efficiency, effectiveness and rectitude. Effectiveness has to do with their ability to control crime. Efficiency has to do with the means applied to achieve this goal, and rectitude has to do with whether this goal is pursued within the prescribed frameworks (e.g. Do the police yield to human rights in their investigations?).

With regard to the procedural character of policing accountability, (How to achieve policing accountability?), two institutions are vital:

- External accountability includes all the institutions, outside the command structure of the police organization, that are reaponsible for ensuring the police compliance and quality assurance. For example, the general public, the media, public interests groups, CPFs, Secretariat for Safety and Security, the Public Protector, Human Rights Commission, Commission for Gender Equality, the Auditor-General, the Public Service Commission, etcetera.
- Internal accountability refers to the internal structures within the command structure of the police that are responsible for both police compliance and quality assurance. For example, the police unions, the ICD, police Management Services, and the Inspector-General of the police.

1.6.2 British perspective regarding police and policing accountability
The British approach views police accountability within a four-dimensional framework, consisting of the following dimensions:

1.6.2.1   The content of police accountability
The main question that is posed here is, "What are the police held accountable for?" This is deduced from the police function. The British have been spearheading the developments in South Africa and this can be determined from both the traditional and the neo-police roles. In South Africa, these roles are regarded as the objects of the SAPS and they are provided for in section 205 of the Constitution (Dixon, 2000(a):72-73).

1.6.2.2   The direction of police accountability
The main question asked here is, "To whom are the police held accountable?" There are many structures within the British police system created to hold the police accountable and to exert

control over the police. These structures include both internal and external structures of police governance (Dixon, 2000(a):73-74).

1.6.2.3 The mode of police accountability

The main question that is asked here is, "What type or kind of account must the police discharge and provide?" In this debate it is important to note that the police are held to account *post facto.* This implies that they do have their operational independence while still being in a position to be held to account for their actions or even inactions. The whole debate is resolved through the concept of operational independence versus policing accountability as well as the issue of policing by consent. It is also important to note that the office of the chief constable has a historical tradition of independence within the British tradition (Dixon, 2000(a):75; Uglow, 1988:118).

1.6.2.4 The mechanisms of police accountability

The main question that is asked here is: "To whom are the police held to account?" In Britain, there are various structures created for police explanations and conduct. The office of the Ministry of Police is just one of them. Other mechanisms or structures of police accountability include such structures as the legal, public, political, police governance, organic, accountability by the media, and public interest groups (Dixon, 2000(a):76; Uglow, 1988:119).

1.7 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study will be conducted in South Africa. South Africa consists of nine provinces. These provinces are the Eastern Cape, Western Cape, Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, North West, Northern Cape, KwaZulu Natal, and the Free State. The study will be conducted in Gauteng province. The rationale for selecting this Province for the study is to contribute towards the "Johannesburg Pilot Project" which earmarked Gauteng Province as a province for developing and piloting policing pockets of excellence. The former and only Chief Executive Officer of the SAPS, Mr. Meyer Kahn, started this pilot project. Other reasons include the geographic proximity and cost-effectiveness of the study. The researcher resides and is employed in this Province. He has been a police officer here for ten years, and was attached to the National Police Head Office in Pretoria.

Since this study is a qualitative study, its findings will only apply in Gauteng Province. The study cannot be generalized as a universum representation of the perception of the police officers in the rest of South Africa.

1.7.1 Geographical area

Gauteng Province is made up of seven policing areas and all of them will be included in the study. These provincial policing areas are the East Rand, West Rand, North Rand, Johannesburg Central, Pretoria, Soweto, and Vaal Rand.

The study will be focused only on operational police officers that are involved in a day-to-day basis policing of the Province. The main activities of these police officers are limited to the prevention of crime, including the patrol function.

1.7.2 Gender

The Gauteng Police service's employment policy includes both men and women, and that is why the study will cover both genders. However due to the militaristic, male-domination historical nature of the policing system in this country with specific reference to the employment policy, males dominate the police service in any Province. This is why more men will be interviewed in this study than women.

1.7.3 Race and ethnicity

The South African nation is made up of four race groups, namely African, Coloured (Brown), Indian, and White. However, international arguments put the number at three because the Coloureds are regarded as African. In fact the international argument will go so far as to say there are only two dominant races, Black and White.

This study will be inclusive of all four races in all the seven policing areas. Because of the diverse policing population, one race group might be dominant in specific areas. The researcher has, as far as possible, ensured that all races were included in the sample of the seven policing areas.

1.8 CONCLUSION

The rationale and motivation behind this study were provided to indicate where the motivation for undertaking this study originated from. This was followed by an analytic exposition of the

problem statement that focused on four issues. These are the nature of the problem, extent of the problem, need for research, and need for a theoretical foundation. This assisted in showing the dearth in research in the area of police accountability both internationally and in South Africa. A two-fold objective for this study was provided. The key theoretical statement that guides this study was provided. This was followed by a process where the key central concepts relevant in this study were operationalized. Reference to literature on work already done in this area was highlighted. This was followed by a demarcation of the study in three areas, namely geographic area, gender, and race.

1.9   PROGRAMME FOR THE REMAINDER OF THE STUDY
The study will be made up of five chapters. These chapters are:

● Chapter 1: General overview and rationale of the study.

● Chapter 2: An overview of literature on policing accountability.

● Chapter 3: Research design and method.

● Chapter 4: Research findings and discussion of results.

● Chapter 5: Conclusion and Recommendations of the study.

2. THEORETICAL OVERVIEW REGARDING POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

There is uncertainty regarding the date when the term "police" was first used in official documents. This uncertainty does not only pertain to the date as such. It is also uncertain where the concept was used for the first time. However, the majority of researchers (Clift, 1956; Dixon, 2000(a); Fosdick, 1969; Sullivan, 1971; Van Heerden, 1984) are inclined to accept that the year 1829 made England the official proponents of police theory. This is because England is the only country that organized and unified state policing into a coherent public policing system in 1829. This was done by means of the promulgation of the Metropolitan Police Act of 1829. Through this Act, the first organized and professional police force was created (Clift, 1956; Dixon, 2000(a); Fosdick, 1969; Sullivan, 1971; Van Heerden, 1984; Van Wyk, Dugard, De Villiers, & Davis, 1994).

There is also a continued disagreement amongst scholars regarding the official emergence of the concept "police accountability" (Alderson, 1979; Dixon, 1999, & 2000(a); Walker, 1999). Some researchers (Emsley, 1996) do not even try to provide the exact details of the official date of this. The South African research community also lacks consensus with regard to the emergence of the term "police accountability". Various dates are proposed for the emergence of this concept. For example, it is unclear whether the announcement, by the former State President of South Africa, Mr. F.W. De Klerk, of the unbanning of the liberation movements on the second of February 1990 can be accepted as the official date of the start of the concept police accountability. Some researchers may even be tempted to speculate that the release of Mr. N.R. Mandela on 11 February 1990 must be accepted as the official date of this emergence. Some researchers (Dixon, 2000(a); Van Wyk, et. al., 1994) are of the opinion that police accountability began during the 1990's. The fact is that the exact official date of the emergence of the concept police accountability in South Africa remains unknown. It is for these reasons that this study will maintain the stance that the emergence date of the police accountability debate cannot be established with certainty.

The intention of Chapter 2 is to provide a theoretical overview of the concept "police and policing accountability" in order to attempt to formulate a theoretical framework under which the perception of Gauteng police officers can be investigated. A thematic framework, which was

initially proposed by Dixon (1999; 2000(a)), has been adopted in this study. This framework will, therefore, be used to guide this study. In both his research works, Dixon proposes a four-dimensional analytic framework that could be followed in the theoretical analysis of policing accountability. This quadrant framework consists of the following themes:

- The content of police accountability;

- The direction of police accountability;

- The mode of police accountability; and

- The mechanisms of police accountability.

2.2 A THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE INTO POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY

Dixon (1999 & 2000(a)) opines that an informed theoretical exposition regarding the dynamics of police accountability, can best emanate if approached within what he refers to as a "four-dimensional analysis" of police accountability. There are four dynamic questions that emanate from this four-dimensional (thematic) exposition. These four questions are:

(i) What are the police accountable for?

(ii) To whom are the police held to account?

(iii) What is the kind or type of account that the police should discharge?

(iv) What are the mechanisms of this type of police accountability?

Dixon's four-dimensional analysis model will be used as a guide in a review/exposition of the literature (or what is sometimes referred to as a theoretical exposition) regarding the concept "police and policing accountability". It is strongly believed that this approach will be useful by providing a mode in which the objectives of this study can be achieved. There are two reasons why this approach will be followed. First, answering the first three questions (i-iii) will help in exploring the understanding of crime prevention police officers with regard to the concept police and policing accountability. Second, the answer to the last question (iv) will assist in determining how they perceive the implementation of accountable policing practices within their daily practices as police officers. The last question will also assist in identifying challenges posed by the implementation of both the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng Province.

Following this discussion, an in-depth analysis of Dixon's four-dimensional analysis model will be provided. This analysis is aimed at developing a clear understanding and theoretical exposition that informs police and policing accountability.

2.2.1 The content of police and policing accountability

In the following section, the content of police accountability will be analysed. This section is aimed at providing answers to the question, "What are the police accountable for?" This question will be used as a guideline in the in-depth analysis of the content of policing accountability.

On the question of the content of police accountability, the first reference is to be found in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act, 1996. This Act is the *de facto* supreme law of South Africa, and every law in place is subject to its provisions. The establishment of the security forces for the Republic of South Africa, including the SAPS, is a requirement that is regulated by section 199 of the Constitution. While section 199 provides for the establishment of the SAPS, section 205(3) of the Act outlines the objects (also referred to as the aims and objectives in other sources) of the SAPS. These objects are as follows:

- to prevent, combat, and investigate crimes;
- to maintain public order;
- to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property; and
- to uphold and enforce the law.

It is for these reasons that Dixon (2000(a):72) opines that the content of (state) policing accountability in South Africa, has been determined in a constitutional manner in section 205. He holds that such a determination requires a new order. Therefore, according to him, the determination of the content of police accountability in South Africa should not be difficult at all. This is because this content is contained in the police objects as per section 205 (3). The ease of this determination is based on the fact that these objects are clearly defined and easily accessible for all citizens. For these reasons, and according to Dixon, the police content must be sought solely from section 205 (3). That is, the search for police content must be confined to the abovementioned four police objectives.

It is promising to note that the said constitutional provisions for policing is regarded both as impressive and embrace by Joubert (2001:16). She refers to the Constitutional entrenchment process and its contents as the entrenchment of the policing powers and functions within the

supreme law of the Country. She feels that this places the importance of police powers and functions on the same footing as human rights. She argues that in the new order, the functional responsibility of policing in South Africa has been elevated to a new level of significance. In this new dispensation, the policing tasks and police activities will not be similar to the police practices of the apartheid regime. It will also not become an activity that is conducted merely as that of the public service, like other tasks within the public service. The perceived character of this new state policing is considered to rise in character. It should become a supreme executive function of the democratic state governance that requires tact, professionalism, and a clear understanding of the policing mandate. It appears that in her view, this new approach calls for a new, drastic, and human rights-based policing system for South Africa.

This anticipated content of policing accountability appears completely different from the past police practices in South Africa. Such an anticipated change in policing strategy is strongly supported by the views of Mr. Gregory Rockman (MP). He was a Lieutenant in the old South African Police Riot Squad (now referred to as Public Order Policing [POP] unit). He is a founding member of the first police union, the Police and Prisons Civil Rights Union (POPCRU). To support this need for change in police tactics and strategy, he said the following to the media in Cape Town, (quoted in Haysom, 1989:139), about the Riot Squad:

> They were just hitting people. They did not care if they were bystanders or not. It seemed to me that they were enjoying themselves, feasting on the people. The squad stormed the kids like wild dogs. You could see the killer instincts in their eyes. The cause of the riots in Mitchell's Plain was due to the unprofessional doings of the Riot Unit at Mitchell's Plain schools which I witnessed with my own eyes.

In this way, a total change in the content of police accountability is proposed for South Africa. In order to achieve this envisaged change, a legislative premised change is proposed by Lambrecht and Prinsloo (1996:86). This new approach is contained in what they call a "consistency and reprioritization" of the policing function. According to them, the wording of the previous South Africa Police Act (Act 68 of 1958) guided the police towards the enforcement of law and order in accordance with the provisions of section 5 of that Act. This resulted in the police focusing and using any means to achieve a law and order society. This approach epitomized the prioritization of their task to preserve the internal security of the Republic. Lambrecht and Prinsloo (1996:86) argue that in this way, the previous guidance that was provided through legislative wording, achieved its goals. They further applaud the consistency of the apartheid regime, in so far as what they view as the cause for the total onslaught, namely the

preservation of the internal security of the Republic, to be successful. In this way, they believe that the police content of accountability must be sought at the prioritization process of the Constitution. This means that the police are now required to account first for the way in which they execute and enforce the law in the priority order of section 205 (3).

It must be accepted that in preventing or investigating crimes, the police are armed with their capacity and authority to use legitimated coercive force. Dixon (2000(a):73) submits that it is for this use or threatened use of legitimated coercive force that the police must be held accountable. This is irrespective of whether legitimated coercive force is employed to prevent or to investigate crimes. This need to call the police to account stems from what Bayley (1995:79) notes as the dangers of using, and strong reliance on legitimated coercive force. These dangers are viewed to be prominent within transitional states, and those states that are made up of communities that were previously oppressed. In this regard, Bayley (1995:79) states that the police regulate the freedoms (in the forms of immunity from arbitrary arrests, detention, and exile, the ability to speak, write, demonstrate, and form associations) that are considered as most essential to democracy. The envisaged danger is that the clandestine surveillances conducted by the police can "chill" the impulse to participate in these political activities. For these reasons, the police must also be held to account for the way in which they prevent and investigate crimes. The focus is on the force used in executing these mandated tasks.

The call for the police to be held to account for their coercive powers and authority alone is found insufficient. Dixon (2000(a):73) proposed that such a system must be supported by another complementary system. This complementary system has to be structured in such a way that it calls for the development and implementation of a democratically accountable policing strategy in South Africa. This proposed strategy must focus on eliminating the potential police abuse of their powers and authority and police over-reliance on coercive powers to a restrained policing strategy where the focus is crime prevention. This strategy will provide a balance between the police use of their legitimated coercive force, and the enjoyment of citizen protection from arbitrary application of that force. In order to achieve this balance, an immediate replacement of unjust and inequitable coercive practices, with a more socially and economically balanced system of police governance is recommended (Dixon, 2000(a):73). This replacement will ensure that a better system of police governance that is based upon justice, equitability, and fair distribution of coercive force is achieved.

The proposed balanced strategy between police power and citizen protection is fully supported by Klockars (1988:140). He believes that this strategy is consistent with the public call for the police service. That is what the public actually calls upon the police to do. The application of this "legitimated coercive force" approach argues for an end to this unique police legitimated coercive capacity, and corresponding incapacities, brought by the police to the resolution of those issues, and for which they must be held to account. Klockars (1988:157) suggests that in order to sustain accountable policing practices, through this proposed parsimonious legal application approach, such societies must wrap up the exclusive right of their police to use coercive force. This must be done in a way that is called "concealment and evasive thinking". This will result in bringing the understanding that the police are there to protect the public.

2.2.2 The direction of police and policing accountability

The following section is aimed at answering the second thematic question that is contained in the four series of questions, provided above. This thematic question is: "To whom are the police held to account?" By answering this question, this section will provide a framework of the police direction of accountability. The framework is aimed at determining the direction in which policing accountability must flow. Such determination will be done by focusing on the source and identity of police authority to use legitimated coercive force. Dixon (2000(a):73) recommends a dual approach, as the best route in this determination challenge. This dual approach consists of identifying the nature of the source mandating the policing function, and identifying the party to whom the accounting responsibility should be discharged.

The proposed dual approach of Dixon (2000(a):73) can be provided in an activity-based framework. This will be achieved by providing the first and the second activities. The first activity requires that a distinction must be drawn between the ultimate source of police authority, and the general direction in which police accountability must flow. The second activity requires an analysis of the immediate relations of police accountability in which the police are involved. In this way, the analysis of the stated dual approach is regarded as being made up of three activities.

These three activities consist of a determination of the ultimate source of police authority, the general direction in which police accountability must flow, and the immediate relations of accountability in which policing accountability must flow. Pursuing the discourse of establishing the ultimate source of police authority would be incomplete without a brief but thorough overview

of the historical debate of police accountability. Tracing police and policing accountability within the British, the American, and the South African policing history will accomplish this overview.

The British perspective of determining the ultimate source of police authority is provided by Dixon (2000(a):73). He argues that a truly democratic police can only derive its authority from "the people". This must be done by being accountable to "the people" of the state within whose domestic territory the police have been given a general authority to exercise their legitimated coercive powers.

It appears that the British viewpoint is in line with the American perspective of determining the ultimate source of police authority. According to Klockars (1985:12) the police are institutions or individuals that are given the general right to use coercive force by the state within its domestic territory.

The South African perspective of determining the ultimate source of police authority is provided by Van Heerden (1984:4). He postulates that society collectively delegates to the state (through the police organization) the obligation to promote and maintain public order. Together with this social responsibility and authority, the police also receive a concomitant power to realize this social ideal. This analysis raises two fundamental questions, namely:
- How should the police and policing function be defined?
- How should the police and policing function be discharged?".

With regard to "how the police and policing function must be defined", Van Heerden (1984:4) proposes that it must be defined in accordance with the constitutional acceptance of the general judicative nature of the policing task. This general task is the determination of what is to be regarded as orderly at any given time. It implies the maintenance of social order, through the prevention and the investigation of crime. This means that the police must be held to account for the way they have accepted and are executing the constitutional judicative nature of the policing function.

With regard to "how the judicative police and policing function must be discharged", Montesquieu (1689–1755) provides an answer in his *Trias Politica* doctrine. This doctrine requires the separation of state powers into three separate and distinct functions, namely the legislative, executive, and judicative (judiciary) function. The legislative function of the state is discharged by

means of prescribing, through legislation or laws, what must be regarded as orderly at any given time. This function also includes exerting a threat of sanctions, by the state, in case of any possible violation. The executive function of the state is discharged by implementing legislation in order to ensure that public order (what was regarded as orderly at a given time) was not disrupted. This function also includes the responsibility to enforce the law in case of any such disruption. The judicative (judiciary) function of the state is discharged by taking action, through the court systems, to institute punishment to those who disrupted public order. The *Trias Politica* doctrine was designed to prevent the concentration of power in one state organ, and to create and implement a system of "checks and balances" (Wessels, 1962:22).

The executive function of government, within a public safety and security perspective, is to implement public safety and security legislative policies and laws. In turn, the actual implementation and execution of these laws and policies is delegated to the police organization, together with the inherent authority and power that are required to achieve public safety and security. This delegation process emanates from the powers and responsibilities belonging to every individual member of society. Therefore, the laws that are carried out by means of organized policing are simple rules and practices devised by society for the purposes of self-rule and self-protection.

In this way, organized policing can be regarded as a projection of the police function inherent in society, which in turn is a simple aggregation of the policing function required of every individual member of society (Van Heerden, 1984:6). It is, therefore, incumbent upon every state police organization to always remember that their powers and authority are delegated, that they were meant to ensure that public safety and security exists, and that they are meant to ensure public protection from every possible threat. The public delegation to the police is therefore the original and ultimate source of police authority, to whom the police must be held to account, within an historical perspective.

In order to establish the direction in which policing accountability must flow, which hitherto forms the second and third activity, Dixon (2000(a):73) postulates that a distinction will have to be drawn between the general, and the immediate directions of police and policing accountability.

2.2.2.1 The general direction of police and policing accountability

The scholars, located within the paradigms of community policing, problem-oriented policing, and sector-based policing, are in agreement about the direction of problem-oriented, community, and sector-based police officers (Goldstein, 1990; Klockars, 1988). According to these scholars, these police officers are directed to the citizens of the state or what is regarded as the "general citizenry". This direction emanates from the delegated nature of the policing function. It therefore, emanates from the fact that the police are the agents of the citizenry.

However, Dixon (2000(a):73) does not agree with this approach. He opines that the source and power of police authority to use legitimated coercive force emanates from, and is directed to "the people", of the state within whose domestic territory they have been given the general right to use legitimated coercive force. In South Africa, this domestic territory will be considered to apply within the internal borders of the Republic. This means that it applies within the nine provinces of the Republic of South Africa. It is very important therefore, to understand how the police are directed to "the people" of the state within whose domestic territory they have been given the right to use legitimated coercive action within the context of South Africa.

Looking at how this task can be accomplished must be done by establishing how the police in South Africa are directed to the people. According to Dixon (2000(a):74) the general direction of policing accountability is not accomplished directly. It is accomplished indirectly, through a series of accountability relations linking "the people" of South Africa and the SAPS. To demonstrate this linkage, he refers to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 which he believes provides a practical and workable way in which this indirect series of accountability apply in practice in South Africa. The Constitution makes this provision in Chapter 11. Chapter 11 provides a broad framework of police governance. This framework ties the SAPS into both the general and the immediate external relations of accountability. These relations tie the SAPS to the national and provincial Parliaments (national and provincial executives, the legislature, and the judicial authority), the internal executive of the SAPS, and the local civilian structures (police stations) that oversee policing. These ties, of general and immediate external relations, consist of the following responsibilities (Dixon, 2000(a):74):

(i)   A member of national Cabinet (the national minister for safety and security) is tasked with the responsibility for determining national policing policy.

(ii) The nine provincial executives (referred to as members of the executive councils [MEC's], who are entrusted with the responsibility of safety and liaison in their respective provinces) are responsible for overseeing the effective and efficiency of their respective provincial police.

(iii) The police internal executive (referred to as the national police commissioner) is entrusted with the responsibility of overseeing the day-to-day management and control of the national police service.

(iv) The local community police forums (referred to as the CPF's) are responsible for promoting police accountability to communities at the local level. This local responsibility entails ensuring co-operation of these communities with the police, monitoring the effectiveness and efficiency of the local service, advising the service regarding the local policing priorities, evaluation of the provision of visible policing services at the local level, and requesting enquiries into policing matters in the locality concerned (Pelser, 1999:4).

Pelser's (1999:4) view regarding both the general and the immediate external relations of police and policing accountability is that the political prerogative that informs community policing in South Africa is one of democratic accountability. To support this train of thought, he identified two ways in which the police were democratized and legitimatised in South Africa, namely through police oversight and police-community interaction. The first method is by enhancing police oversight and accountability in order to promote the general police external relations of accountability. The second method is by enhancing police-community interaction, consultation, and accountability at a local or police station level in order to promote the police link to immediate external relations.

Section 222 of the Interim Constitution Act 200 of 1993 set out two goals in order to strengthen and cement local police accountability. First, this Act formally established the functioning of CPF's. Second, it detailed the functional processes of the CPF's in order to ensure their longevity. It is in this respect that Pelser (1999:4) observes a strategic goal that was achieved by this section in the strengthening and cementing of local police accountability. According to him, through this systemic arrangement, community consultation and input were structured throughout the command structure of the national police service in order to promote policing accountability. He observes that this strategic and systemic arrangement provided a localized general direction of police accountability. Through this systemic arrangement, the direction of the

mandated functions of the CPF's can be summated into three functions. These CPF functions are:

- the improvement of police-community relations;
- the oversight of policing at local level; and
- the mobilization of the community to take joint responsibility in the fight against crime (Pelser, 1999:12).

2.2.2.2   The immediate direction of police and policing accountability

In addition to the linkage arrangements encapsulated in Chapter 11 (see par. 2.2.1 above in this regard) of the Constitution, there is another form of police linkage to the external relations. However, these linkage arrangements must be seen within the context of the police's immediate environment. These relations link the national police to other institutions and individuals at an immediate level. According to Dixon (2000(a):74) the functionality of the Chapter 11 relations to institutions and individuals, in order to promote and enhance police and policing accountability, should be judged on the basis of the extent of their contribution to the implementation of "the people" representation. That is, they are judged on the basis of their contribution to the accountability of the whole police to "the people".

Dixon (2000(a):74) admits that the police force of the apartheid regime together with its national commissioner, were both accountable to the Minister of Law and Order. This accountability ensured that they were fully rendered accountable in line with and according to the 1961 Constitution. However, their form of accountability as an institution severed numerous political shortcomings. This is because the whole apartheid regime was illegitimate and lacked integrity. Their illegitimacy emanated from three causes that were pointed out by Haysom (1989:140-144). First, the entire government that the police were serving, was illegitimate. This illegitimacy rendered the whole system to be illegitimate as well. Second, although the White minority class had franchise and the power to elect and appoint the Minister of Law and Order, who in turn, appointed the national commissioner of police, they had no or even little effective control over the day-to-day functioning of the police. Third, the previous regime and its White minority voters lacked the necessary structures of local accountability in which local communities could participate, liaise, consult, or advise police bodies in respect of their fears, concerns, and perceptions.

The illegitimacy of that regime created challenges for police governance. These challenges related specifically to the police composition, its representative mechanisms, and the extent of permeation of accountability and civilianization mechanisms into the whole command structure of the police organization. The problem with the apartheid police governance was that they had no democratic mandate as a legitimated representative of "the people". As they were not representative of the people, they could not, therefore, be accountable to the people of South Africa. In this way, there was no form of public representation that is required by this mode of police governance (Dixon, 2000(a):74).

Goldstein (1990:40) provides a delineation of the direction of the police mandate. He refers to this delineation as "criteria against which to measure competing community interests" and making an informed decision about which interests must be favoured and selected. In order to give effect to this delineation, he proposes "looking to the community to define the problems that should be of concern to the police", instead of succumbing to the tendency of the police, on their own, to define the problems of concern to the community.

The abovementioned challenges on police governance lies in the fact that all South Africans are now equally entitled to public account. All the South African people are entitled to a police account of why, how, and against whom those legitimated police powers, including legitimated coercive force, are used. The reason for this entitlement, to police account, lies in the fact that it is in the name and authority of all these South African nationals for whom the state police act. Dixon (2000(a):74) provides an inclusiveness approach to this public entitlement to police account. According to him, the *Skollie*[1] and the vigilante, as well as the archbishop and the traditional leader, are all entitled to a police account. This means that the current challenge on policing, to become fully publicly accountable, requires that all four of these individuals must be recognized to deserve and be entitled to a police account.

The institutionalization and embedment of accountable policing practices must be directed at ensuring that these practices permeate the entire command structure of the police organization. The permeation of accountable policing practices must take place through the consensual and inclusiveness approach within the direction context (Dixon, 2000(a):74).

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[1] Dixon's (2000:74) reference to the hoodlum or hooligan.

It is not important how a country's national policy is coined and shaped. What is important, according to him, is how it is giving effect to the requirement of the "inclusiveness of the consultative forums". This is in line with the police direction of accountability requiring that the police must be as representative of the community as possible. On the basis of this, the police should not only include themselves, elected representatives, and statutory agencies but they must include "the community in its widest sense". They should include any individual who can make a contribution. Furthermore, these representatives must be free standing and independent of the local police, the local, as well as central governments. The membership of the consultative forums must be open to all *bona fide* formally constituted bodies that represent a significant number of local people (Dixon, 1999:231).

2.2.3 The mode of police and policing accountability

The third thematic question that is contained in the four series of questions, provided above, is "What type of account must be discharged by the police?" This section analyses this question. The analysis will be accompanied by suggestions as to the type of relationship between the customers of the police service (the public) and the service providers (the police). The mode of police and policing accountability has to do with the type of police accountability that the service providers (police as public agents) have to provide to their customers.

The studies of Dixon (1999; 2000(a)) identified two modes of accountability, namely the directive, and the stewardship modes. These two modes will be analyzed below to establish the kind of account that the police must discharge.

2.2.3.1   The directive mode of police and policing accountability

According to the directive mode of police and policing accountability, the police are under a formal duty to report on decisions that they make, as well as actions that they take in executing their delegated tasks and using their delegated powers. These delegated tasks of the police, in South Africa, have been issued in advance, through section 205 of the Constitution. The police are, as a result, duly responsible to comply with these obligations. The quality, extent, and adequacy of the police account must be judged in the context of the direction they have been provided with. In this respect, Dixon (2000(a):74-5) believes that it is clear that the relationship between the police (the service provider/agent) and the delegator (the public) is hierarchical. A hierarchical relationship is similar to the relationship between a superior and a subordinate.

Dixon (2000:75) views the directive mode of police and policing accountability, within the context of section 205 of the Constitution, to resemble a hierarchical type of police and policing accountability. In this view, section 205 has two ways in which it directs this mode of police and policing accountability:

First, it encumbers the National Minister of Safety and Security to determine national policing policy. He does this through the provisions of the SA Police Service Act 68 of 1995 by providing the powers, duties, and the functions of the members of the South African Police Service.

Second, it encumbers the National Commissioner of Police to assume the responsibility of managing the day-to-day functions and activities of the police, according to the directives of the Minister for Safety and Security, as well as the National Policing Policy (Police Act) issued by the Minister. He does this by developing and issuing the Strategic Plan for the South African Police Service (2005-2010), which directs police operations. He accounts annually to Parliament, with regard to the way in which the policing duties and functions were met. He issues an Annual Report at the end of every financial year as a form of public account.

Dixon (1999:231 & 2000(a):75) is wary of this mode of accountability in the implementation of both the community policing and sector-based policing, as well as on the basis of policy monitoring. His wariness is for two reasons. First, he says that the language of consultation, partnership, and shared responsibility for preventing crime and maintaining social order implies that the police autonomy must be confined. This is in order to enable the police to respond to the priorities of the community. In this way, the community police officer's agenda is influenced by the community's needs and desires, and not just the dictates of the Department. However, in contrast of his viewpoint, and in view of the provisions of the Constitution as well as the Police Act, Dixon's concerns (1999:231) seem to lack a basis. This is because the police departmental dictates (including the community policing officer's agenda) are influenced by the community's needs and desires.

Dixon's (2000(a):75) second concern is based on the principles of policing policy monitoring. He believes that the national policing policy restricts the policing competencies of the country's provinces. He asserts that the language and spirit of the provisions of the Constitution over policing policy results to a situation where provincial competence over policing policy is restricted

to monitoring, oversight, evaluation and liaison functions. These provincial powers must be discharged within a national policing policy framework.

2.2.3.2   The stewardship mode of police and policing accountability

The stewardship mode of police and policing accountability assumes the opposite of the hierarchical directive form of police and policing accountability, where the police mandate/orders are given in advance. This is because in the stewardship mode the police are expected to execute their mandate and account for them without any orders that are given in advance. In this way, the extent and adequacy of their account is non-hierarchical. Dixon (1999:278) refers to the British guidance on policing of 1985 as a good example of a clear non-hierarchical approach of a policing policy. This is because this policy required the police to be members as of right, and not to be called upon to account in any legal sense. In this way, they were enabled to discuss, explain, and to be criticized and to take prompt action without the need to be dragged through legal and political processes.

Dixon (2000(a):75) criticizes what he perceives as a hierarchical character of the South Africa policing policies. His criticism is that the directive mode character of the South African Constitution, 1996 as well as the Police Act of 1995 restricts provincial competence over the policing policy towards monitoring, oversight, evaluation, and liaison functions. This restriction results in a situation whereby provinces lack formal directive control over their own policing agencies and policies. He provides a practical example to support his view. He asserts that although a provincial legislature that has lost confidence over their provincial commissioner as a result of his/her performance, may solely summon such a commissioner to appear before it to answer questions and no more action than that. However, their influence on local policing is dependent and backed up as a last resort, by their ability to persuade the National Minister for Safety and Security to take directive action, namely to direct the National Commissioner to set up a board of enquiry into that provincial commissioner's ability to manage the police according to the set standard.

The anti-hierarchical approach over the national policing policy as perceived and adopted by Dixon (2000(a):75) is found to lack substance and basis. This is because he criticized these national policing policies for adopting a clearly hierarchical approach to policing policy and restricting provincial competence over policing policy. However, the researcher is of the opinion that his criticism fails to take into account the motivation behind the reasons for restricting

provincial powers and authority over policing. It is believed that the rationale for this restriction should be found within the context and spirit of the White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998. This White Paper justifies why national policing policy restricted provincial competence over policing. According to its provisions, the reason and purpose for restricting provincial policy to monitoring is "broadly to ensure that national government policy is adhered to, government objectives on safety and security are achieved, and that the needs of the communities are addressed". It is for these reasons that the critical stance adopted by Dixon (2000(a):75) about the lack of stewardship nature of the South African national policing policy, and the possible nationalized character of the policing policy, is rejected.

The introduction of both the community, and sector-based policing may be regarded as a pure entrenchment of the stewardship mode of accountability for policing both in Britain and South Africa. Dixon (1999:231) detects the stewardship mode on the notion that community policing offers the community the most precarious grip on local police policies. This ensures that community input into policing policy is maximized. There is also a perceived threat and apathy against the introduction of these two policing styles. This threat is based on the fear that these policing styles give outsiders the most precarious grip on local police policies. This precarious grip on police policies is viewed as a threat to the power of the police organizations. It is for these reasons that the British police officers that were not accustomed to accounting for their actions, regarded this practice as new. These officers therefore did not welcome altogether the insertion of any outside force into policy-making. A similar situation in South Africa was experienced in the beginning of the democratization of the police organization during the late 1990's. These police officers, who themselves were not accustomed to accounting to outside civilian structures, also rejected the insertion of any outside force into the police policy-making processes.

A number of American scholars (Trojanowics & Bucqueroux, 1990:12, Goldstein, 1990:46) are consensual about the non-hierarchical nature of their policing system, and specifically the type of account to be discharged by the community policing officers. Trojanowics and Bucqueroux, (1990:12) assert that community policing does not propose a sudden imposition of local community over the control of the police. The community policing tradition proposes a strictly non-hierarchical relationship situation. This proposal is demonstrated by the community police officer telling his people in the beat area (local community) that if they provide information and

assistance, in exchange they have an opportunity to have input into the police priorities in their community.

The viewpoint by the American scholars on the non-hierarchical nature of policing is also shared by Mastrofski and Green (1993:86). According to these scholars, community policing offers a vision of shared values, a co-productive relationship that clearly indicates a stewardship mode of police and policing accountability. The responsibilities of the communities are perceived to offer input, advice, and guidance to the police while they still fully participate in the implementation of their co-agreed strategies.

2.2.4 The mechanisms of police and policing accountability

The fourth element in the four-dimensional model proposed by Dixon (1999; 2000) is focused on determining the nature of institutions and processes through which police accounts are given. In order to do this, this study intends answering the last thematic question of this model, namely "What is the nature of institutions and processes through which the police account must be provided?"

Making this determination is important in that the mechanisms of police accountability are regarded as the "gist" or the "nuts and bolts" of the police and policing accountability discourse (Dixon, 1999; 2000(a)). This is because these mechanisms are in fact the institutions that uphold the accountability philosophy and epitomize it by putting it into practice. In doing this, they hold the police to give account for their actions, decisions, and inactions. There are two main objectives in the critical analysis of the police and policing accountability institutions that will guide the current analytical discussion.

The first objective is not aimed at listing and discussing the various internal and external mechanisms or institutions of policing accountability. Rather, it is an endeavour to provide a critical analysis of these mechanisms and institutions. The aim is to make an informed determination of how each mechanism and institution contributes to the implementation of accountable policing practices. The second objective is to identify challenges as well as prospects, which each institution has to contribute to the implementation of an accountable policing system of governance in South Africa.

In order to achieve both these goals, the said critical analysis of this model will focus on determining both the internal and the external accountability institutions that enhance and promote accountable policing practices. It was mentioned (in par. 2.2) that section 11 of the Constitution provides a broad framework for external police relations. It was also mentioned that this framework contains various internal structures created to enforce internal accountability. The "command and control" system of police administration that the current National Commissioner of the SAPS, Commissioner Jackie Selebi, adopted in 2000 is a good example of how internal processes are structured and arranged to enhance and promote this type of managerial-professional type of accountability (see Sunday Times, 13 February 2000:1, "Top Cop Kicks Butt").

The two goals of this section can be outlined as, first, to identify the various institutions, processes, and mechanisms that exist to render the police accountable. The second is to analyze how these institutions, processes, and mechanisms operate to effect police and policing accountability practices and culture into the daily activities of police officers. In doing this, five mechanisms and institutions will be analyzed and discussed in the following paragraphs. These mechanisms and institutions are public, political, legal, police governance, and organic mechanisms of police and policing accountability. These mechanisms are not the only mechanisms. There are other mechanisms and institutions that exist and which may have been added to in this discourse. However, as a result of the length of this study, a decision was taken to analyze only these mechanisms and institutions.

2.2.4.1 Public accountability as a mechanism of police and policing accountability

The establishment of the community liaison groups is a means to institutionalize public accountability within the police and policing practices. Within the macro-policy perspective, the aim is to strengthen the credibility and legitimacy of the police. This ensures that a strong bond exists between the police and the citizens. In this way, the police must act as an agent of the people, entrench the principle of "policing by consent" in their daily practices and activities, and create this perception in the minds of the citizens/people. According to the police legitimacy model, the police derive their legitimacy from the assent of the people. Instead of relying on the people's voices as expressed in Parliament, the model looks to more narrowly defined, but often representative groupings (Baldwin, 1987:97). This view is supported by Morgan (1989b:178). He opines that the zeal with which the British government pursued the task of setting up police-

community consultative groups is indicative of the importance it attaches to the creation of mechanisms to provide accountable policing to Britons. This practice further bolstered the operational independence of the British police.

There are, however, certain limitations of the political accountability mechanisms of policing accountability. The biggest limitation is that these mechanisms rely on the institutions of representative democracy to mediate the relationship between the police and the people. However, public mechanisms within the policing context (such as the Community Police Consultative Groups [CPCG] in Britain and the CPFs in South Africa) embody a more participatory form of democracy. They do this by requiring the police to report on, justify, and explain their actions and decisions directly to the citizens (Dixon, 2000(a):77).

Within the South African context, section 221 of the South African Interim Constitution of 1993 provides clear guidelines according to which CPF's were to be established, structured, and put into practice. It also stipulates that the Police Act was to provide for their establishment in respect of police stations. Section 221 of the Interim Constitution provided for the following functions of the CPF's:
- The promotion of the accountability of the police service to local communities and co-operation of communities with the police service.
- The monitoring of the effectiveness and efficiency of the Service.
- Advising the Service regarding local policing priorities.
- The evaluation of the provision of visible policing services.
- Requesting enquiries into policing matters in the locality concerned.

The Police Act 68 of 1995, as an enabling Act of the Constitution, formally established and detailed the functioning of the CPF's. These functions remained as these five important functions. However, from an operational point of view, it became the responsibility of the police organization (mainly the station, area, and provincial commissioners) to establish CPFs at police stations, area boards at an area level, and provincial boards at the provincial level. From a strategic point of view, this arrangement ensured that police and policing accountability arrangements permeate the police at every locality and level.

The establishment of these consultative forums in Britain represented the institutionalization of a mechanism of public accountability linking the police directly to members of the communities

they serve (Morgan, 1989b:178). For these reasons, the move to establish these forums in South Africa as a public mechanism of accountability is plausible.

In spite of the abovementioned shortcomings of the public accountability mechanisms, these mechanisms however embody a more participatory form of democracy. This is demonstrated by their requiring the police to report on, justify, and explain their actions and decisions directly to ordinary citizens (Dixon, 2000(a):77). However, there are limitations of the nature of the participatory character of these mechanisms. The reliance of the public mechanisms of police and policing accountability on the institutions of representative democracy to mediate the relationship between the police and the public is regarded as the biggest shortcoming of this mechanism (Dixon, 2000(a):77).

2.2.4.2 Political accountability as a mechanism of police and policing accountability

The mechanism of political accountability is the second mechanism of police and policing accountability. Most scholars (Dixon, 1999 & 2000(a); Walker, 1999) are very sensitive and skeptical of this mechanism. This skepticism is based on the premise that the political mechanisms have been known to be more of an instrument for political debates than consensus building, generation of ideas, and community development. Furthermore, corrupt political structures and individuals used this mechanism to pursue their own interests (Dixon, 2000(a):76).

Walker (1999:272) observes a dilemma posed by the practices in democracies with regard to the political mechanisms *vis-à-vis* policing accountability. This dilemma is dualistic in nature. First, although the people have a basic right to exert control on government agencies, like the police, through their elected officials, the history of the police has shown that politicians have been associated with the worst type of police misconduct (e.g. corruption). This is a dilemma for police professionalism as it requires a certain degree of operational independence from political interference. Too much independence results in police isolation and the concomitant alienation from their communities. The challenge is that police accountability has to strike a balance between political control and police professional operational independence.

Second, is what Walker (1999:273) refers to as the need and strategy for community control over the police. This dilemma emanates from the first dilemma. He admits that the American

government was initially keen to adopt this type of police accountability mechanism to resolve their racial problems and to ensure equitable governance while maintaining a professional policing system. However, the electorates decided against this system. He identifies the following issues as possible contributory factors to the decision of the electorates:

- It was an impossible task to draw clear-cut community boundaries between the different races, and social classes. Urban neighbourhoods were not homogeneous and their boundaries faded away. Other variables had to be identified to use in separating boundaries between Afro-American and white communities.
- It was assumed that there was consensus among people of the same race. However, surveys indicated that people, of the same classes from different age groups and social classes, did not feel the same way about policy issues. For example, although the Afro-American majority complained about police harassment, many other Afro-Americans indicated a need for more police protection and involvement.
- Having separate police departments composed of similar racial lines (one for whites and one for Afro-Americans) created a problem with specific reference to the issue of equal protection guaranteed to citizens of a state. It is for these reasons that the recommended strategy to solve this problem was to have an effective control of police discretion, and the reduction of improper police conduct that is created by improper exercise of police discretion, by means of administrative rule-making (in the form of centralized written policies) was emphasized and recommended as a strategy.
- Direct political control can contribute to corruption and other abuse of the police for political purposes (Walker, 1999:273).

In light of these shortcomings, a popular approach that was adopted as an alternative, is that legal mechanisms are better instruments that directly impact upon police decision-making, and their sanctions are regarded in a more serious light than any other mechanism. However, Dixon (2000(a):76) is critical of this line of thinking. He holds that legal mechanisms are not more effective than political mechanisms. This is because legal mechanisms are, to him, too blunt a mechanism to provide effective control over police decision-making, mainly at an institutional level. This is a result of the legal limitations created by the open texture character of the legal mechanisms. According to him, legal mechanisms are also limited in that it is impossible to eliminate police discretion without impacting on the effectiveness and efficiency of the police organization.

In support of his views about the limiting nature of the legal mechanisms, Dixon (2000(a):76) refers to the Lustgarten (the author of the book "*The Governance of the Police", 1986*) case study. This case study was about the nature and extent of the openness character of police discretion in practice. It illustrates how a police officer, summoned to attend a minor fight scene between two adult men, is faced with an extraordinary range of legal permissible responses. Lustgarten concludes from this that in taking the kind of decision that is the quintessence of their work, the police are guided by virtually no legal standards at all.

This case study illustrated two fundamental issues. The first is that police are not regulated clinically in the exercise of their common law discretion. The main reason behind this line of thinking is that such instruments do not exist globally, whether within the legal or political structures and institutions. The second reason is that exerting this form of operational control will affect the operational independence of the police. This practice will affect the independent nature of the office of the police constabulary that is recognized by law worldwide of its independent nature.

The inclination is that the legal mechanisms alone will become inefficient if not a useless mechanism of controlling and managing appropriate police behaviour at an operational level. According to Dixon (2000(a):77), the political mechanism is a parallel and complementary system for regulating appropriate police behaviour in South Africa. In other words, the bluntness of the legal mechanism is recognized. To complement this bluntness, reference is made to the political relationships that are created by the Constitution and the South African Police Service Act. This is to enhance political accountability by means of the various relationships. These relationships exist between the police and its stakeholders. These stakeholders are identified as including the Cabinet, Parliament, Portfolio Committees, Minister for Safety and Security, civilian secretariat, provincial and local governments, mayoral committees, and CPF's. These (typological) arrangements demonstrate that neither the legal nor the political structures are capable of effectively enforcing appropriate police behaviour. Each one of these structures requires the other to exert better influence and impact. To achieve this parallelism and complementarism, political permeation of the policing structures that are created to enforce police accountability, require an in-depth analysis. It is important for these reasons to demonstrate how and to what extent the political implementation of accountable policing practices is possible.

2.2.4.3 The mechanism of legal accountability

Lord Denning formalized the principle of legal accountability in 1968 in the renowned Blackburn case (R v Commissioner of Police of the Metropolis Ex Parte Blackburn [1968] in Britain. In this case, the British Supreme Court held that in enforcing the law of the land, a chief officer of police (National Commissioner, in South Africa) was answerable to law, and to the law only. The decision of that court can be regarded to have become both an armoury for police protection against encroachment of their legal status as well as the premise in which legal accountability is based. In this case, the court ruled that "in enforcing the 'law of the land' a chief officer of police is answerable to law and to the law alone" (Uglow, 1988:118-9).

The police consistently argue that law defines the limits of their powers and their procedures. They regard themselves as accountable to the courts for their actions, although their decisions and policies are characterized as much by discretion as by rules. This argument by the police is considered to be incorrect. This is because it is argued that good policing is a matter of not going by the book. Good policing is about principles of operational fairness. It has been conceded in most British literature on policing and legal studies (Uglow, 1988:118-119) that the principles of fairness inherent and practiced in policing, by police officers on the beat as professional officers of the law, lack effective adjudication in courts (Uglow, 1988:118-9).

Apart from the legal remedies, to effect and manage an accountable policing system in South Africa, the police are also subjected to the normal procedure of criminal prosecution for their criminal behaviour. They are further subjected to various public law remedies. These remedies include but are not limited to, administrative remedies that are aimed at rendering administrative control of police actions, an exclusionary system that is created by the law of evidence (Uglow, 1988:119) refers to the exclusionary rule system as being aimed at having an indirect influence on police behaviour), direct challenge of their policy and action by means of judicial review, a system in the Office of the National Director of Public Prosecution called the "Nolle Prosequi" (declination to prosecute) system. These systems exist in both South Africa and in the Anglo-American-Canadian legal systems.

According to Uglow (1988:118) the attitude of most British lawyers is always to encourage their clients to sue the police rather than pursue these remedies. This thus encourages them to bypass the formal complaints machinery due to its dissatisfactory nature (as a result that these cases are the outcome of excessive behaviour from individual police officers). He supports his

averment by referring to the "Yorkshire Ripper" case (Hill v Chief Constable of West Yorkshire [1989] AC 53) in Britain. In this case, a mother of a slain daughter, who was assassinated by the Yorkshire serial killer, sued the Yorkshire police department. She alleged that her daughter would not have died but for the negligent performance of the police in investigating those mass killings. The court *a quo* accepted the argument that there were major errors of judgement and inefficiencies during the investigation that made her argument substantive. The Supreme Court that heard the state appeal, however ruled that although the police had a general duty to suppress crime, there was no liability to individuals for negligent failure to carry out that duty. The most important findings of this case, for purposes of arguing for police accountability, is that both the court *a quo* and the Supreme Court admitted that the police have a general duty to suppress crime. This implies that they are judged above the standards imposed on citizens on the basis of their mandate.

Uglow (1988:119) and Dixon (2000(a):76) assert that the police line of work makes it possible for them to take operational decisions without any binding standard. They attribute this to the police's "extra-ordinary range of legal permissible responses" available to them. It is for this reason that it can be argued that this becomes the motivation for Uglow to argue that it in order to effect an effective police accountability mechanism through the legal mechanisms, it is important that there must be a thorough exposition and analysis of the general policing policies that are followed by police organizations.

2.2.4.4 Police governance (professional-managerial) as a mechanism of police and policing accountability

The police governance mechanism of police and policing accountability is sometimes referred to as the professional-managerial accountability mechanism. Moore (1992:100) traces its origins to the traditional and militaristic "centralized police command and control" management style, which critics refer to as the "rule-book based policing" system. According to this mechanism, police and policing accountability is ensured and managed through the compliance of operational police officers with police departmental operating procedures. These procedures spell out what is to be done to enforce and maintain the law. It also spells out how it must be done. This form of police accountability is aimed mainly at a centralized/militaristic type of a police service, where the line officers do not account for anything, but their superiors are the ones on the hot seats when police account is required. Proponents of this police system believe that it ensures that compliance with departmental procedures will achieve the goals and objectives of the police.

The goal of this mechanism is to ensure that the lower ranks and others in the organizational hierarchy comply with organizational procedures, management achieves its goals of ensuring that organizational procedures are adhered to, serve as an instrument for management to say "yes, they are adhering to organizational procedures, and yes the procedures are effective because non-compliance is dealt with immediately", and finally, to say, "we are enforcing law and order" (Moore, 1992:100).

The call, by proponents of the community policing, sector-based policing, and problem-oriented policing styles, for the replacement of this "voluminous rule-book-based policing style" suggests or calls for the change in the subject matter of managerial police accountability (Dixon, 1999:237). A total replacement of this policing style with a community-based policing model where police service is target- and performance-based, is propagated. This total replacement is made possible by shifting the focus of managerial accountability from "rule-book" (a means-based system) to a new sector/community-policing based (impact or end-based system) of police governance. In these policing styles, the target-setting process is delegated to the lowest level of the hierarchy and the concomitant performance appraisal or accountability is located at these line officer's levels that are operating within clearly set sectors. This proposed shift will result in the ideal and effective bottom-up police management approach instead of the traditional top-down approach suggested by the "command and control" theorists.

The proposed bottom-up police management style is planned to be based on having front-line police officers and their locally-based supervisors and managers given more scope for creativity, decision-making, discretion, and initiative. This is possible when responsibility is devolved for setting goals and devising means for achieving them to the lowest level (beat-officer level). Supervisors hold beat/community police officers accountable for their target areas (self-set targets or standards), managers hold supervisors and front-line officers accountable for certain targets. The whole organization is held accountable for the achievement of the organizational goals of solving community problems thereby providing public safety and security to the people of the state or the sector (Dixon, 1999:237).

This mechanism of accountability is based on the changing of the police accountability agenda. In other words, it changes from calling management 'to account for problem-resolution' to another call where line officers are called to account for two reasons. They are called to account

for problem resolution in their operational areas, and the overall impact these problem-solving initiatives have on the life of the people and the goal of the organization. This form of police and policing accountability, at the line level, calls for a dual approach to police accountability, namely accountability for operational unit performance and accountability regarding working with the local CPF or other consultative groups. It involves evaluating community police officer's performance for the set resolution of community problems.

Goldstein (1990:47) calls for a technical-managerial professional accountability mechanism. This is where accountability also takes place at the review of the performance, with clearly articulated and justified decision-making. This also takes place at two levels, namely:
- Management is given an opportunity by frontline officers and other internal stakeholders to review the cause of decisions and actions of front-line police officers, as well as the impact of these decisions and actions on the overall goal of the police department/organization.

- Community representatives, members of the community-police consultative groups/CPF''s, and other interest groups, are all offered an opportunity to review the reasons for decisions and actions made and taken by operational units/departments/divisions. They are also offered an opportunity to review the impact these units/departments/divisions have on community problems and the goals that are set to achieve them.

Proponents of the idealistic managerialism police governance style propose two ways in which this style of policing must be enabled to permeate the police organization as a mechanism for police and policing accountability. These are:

Firstly, by means of the devolution of decision-making to the lowest appropriate level (through making efficient use of resources), re-examining work loads, matching the availability of staff to periods of peak demand, and holding sector inspectors accountable as local operational commanders within the police organization for delivering a "quality service" to the public (Dixon, 1999:280).

Secondly, is through the re-conceptualization of the consumers of police service as customers (the people to whom that service is provided).

This is a total shift from the traditional view of the public. The new sector-based policing ideology of managerialism contributes by measuring and providing customer satisfaction at a lower level while sector working groups provide forums for service users to inform policing priorities and objectives (Dixon, 1999:280-281). The implementation of the managerialism principles and strategies in South Africa by the appointment of the first and former only civilian chief executive officer (Mr Meyer Khan) was a novel step. The aim of his appointment was to ensure that he works hand-in-hand with the National Commissioner of the SAPS. It was hoped that their collaborative efforts would result in the imparting and inculcation of the skills and values of business management to the police organization. It was hoped that this would enable enforcing a new culture of the police view by the public as consumers of police service.

The SAPS is held accountable as one of the state institutions in South Africa. At a macro level, the SAPS as an organization is held accountable through the five "Chapter 9" Public Institutions that are stipulated in the Constitution. These institutions include the Public Protector, Human Rights Commission, Commission for Gender Equality, the Auditor-General, and the Public Services Commission. The aim for creating these institutions was dual. First, it was to promote, enhance, and support South African constitutional democracy. Second, it was to uphold the basic values and principles governing public administration. These "Chapter 9" institutions, as they are referred to, discharge these two functions by implementing and managing, evaluating and calling upon public institutions (institutions of state) to account for the way they deal with public administration, implementing and managing the basic values and principles that govern public administration as contained in Chapter 10 of the Constitution. Their other functions are to monitor and enforce standards of integrity, efficiency, equity, and procedural fairness across the whole spectrum of the public service in South Africa (Dixon, 2000(a):77).

2.2.4.5   The mechanism of police organic accountability

The organic mechanism of police and policing accountability is a non-institutional mechanism of accountability. This mechanism entails the existence of the relationship between community policing officers/sector police officers, and the community/sectors where these police officers are assigned to discharge their duties. Dixon (1999:240) describes the organic mechanism as a mechanism of accountability binding geographically responsible police officers to the neighbourhoods to which they are assigned. In this way, police accountability is achieved by means of regular personal interaction between police officers and members of the public.

The main aim of this type of interaction is to ensure that there is a sustainable continuity of contact between the police and the public. It is hoped that this will sensitize those police officers to communal norms, make their actions and decisions more congruent with their local community values, and provide the people with whom they interact with an additional mechanism by which these police officers may be called to account for their behaviour, activities, and actions.

The effectiveness of this mechanism depends on the following factors:
- The intimacy hoped to develop between police officers on permanent assignment to beats or other clearly defined geographical areas, and the community they serve. Dixon (1999:239) observes that the continued consultation between the police and the community is intended to develop this intimacy. It is also clear that the development of this mechanism is not limited to such institutionalized mechanisms of police accountability.

- Clear and strategic articulation in the outcome of the senior police managers meeting with the community through the CPFs and other structures. This results in the dissemination of information to the lowest ranks of the police department regarding the decisions taken (and agenda issues) at the meetings between the police management and the community representatives. It is also required that it must be reported to the beat officers and the community representatives not attending the management meetings about the decisions taken.

- Greater visibility and accessibility of police officers permanently assigned to patrol certain areas, mainly those on foot, to regularly have contact with the local people over an extended period of time.

Three limitations of this mechanism have been identified. These limitations are:
- The disjuncture and lack of intimacy between consultation as an official mechanism of police accountability and the assignment of beat and sector officers as a means of making them organically accountable to the people in those areas.

- The continuing lack of articulation between the management meeting, dissemination of information about the agenda and the decisions of those management meetings with the lower levels and beat officers.

- The existence of formal consultation has had little discernible impact on the character of community policing (Dixon, 1999:273).

Alderson (1979:162) as well as Trojanowics and Bucqueroux (1990:19) provide the example with regard to how the organic mechanism of police accountability works in practice. According to them, the main aim of the organic mechanism is to involve community police officers so deeply in the lives of their communities in such a way that they feel responsible for whatever happens there. In turn, those communities must learn to trust and work with these community police officers, and hold them accountable for their successes and failures. Alderson insists that where police constables work alone on their own beats, they will tend to acknowledge some definition of their police role in terms of the neighbourhood they are policing. Trojanowics and Bucqueroux observe that direct, daily, face-to-face contact between the community and their sector police officers makes it a good organic mechanism of police and policing accountability.

2.3 CONCLUSION

In this chapter a theoretical analysis of the concept "police and policing accountability" was provided. Dixon (1999 & 2000(a)) proposed that a comprehensive approach to police and policing accountability would be better exposed if his four-dimensional analysis model was pursued. In pursuance of his proposal, his four-dimensional model was used to guide this study and to answer the two questions referred to above. Four themes were generated from Dixon's model and became the basis of the deliberation/discourse. These themes are:

- The content of police accountability;
- The direction of police accountability;
- The mode of police accountability; and
- The mechanisms of police accountability.

The four dimensions of this theoretical model were analyzed in terms of a theoretical exposition of the current study. This helped to provide a critical exposition of the content of literature and practice on accountable policing within the USA, UK, and SA.

3.   RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHOD

3.1   INTRODUCTION

When research is conducted, it is geared towards collating a new knowledge base, innovating existing knowledge or even proving or disproving existing theories and models. This base of knowledge will form a foundation for future studies of similar nature. Likewise, in the current study, the intention is to explore the practice and a culture of police and policing accountability in South Africa with special reference to Gauteng Province. The focus will be to study the policing practices of the pro-active police unit called the crime prevention unit. The findings of this study will inform future studies on accountable police practices in South Africa. It will also help in developing a new database of knowledge on policing and accountable policing practices.

The intention of Chapter 3 is to provide a descriptive analysis of the research approach that will be applied in this study in order to achieve the objectives of the study. This descriptive analysis will be directed at both analysing and aligning the various research approaches, research design, research methods, data gathering techniques, data analysis, ethical measures, and measures taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings of this study. These issues are all relevant for this study.

3.2   OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are two-fold, namely:

- To explore and describe the perception of crime prevention police officers in Gauteng
  Province with regard to "policing accountability".

- To identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers to enhance and promote
  "police and policing accountability" in their day-to-day policing practices and activities.

3.3   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Social science research in particular can be described as a systematic, planned process conducted about human activity with a view to discover, develop, and innovate knowledge and its application. In this regard, Brown, Esbensen and Geis (1996:11) applies the concept of research methodology to the criminological environment. Here research methodology refers to the technique or methods that criminologists use to learn facts as they attempt to answer the "why's" of crime.

3.3.1 Research paradigms

There are two types of research paradigms, namely quantitative and qualitative. For purposes of this study, the qualitative paradigm will be used. The reasons for making use of this paradigm are as follows:

3.3.1.1 Quantitative paradigm

The quantitative approach is an enquiry into a social or human problem. It is based upon testing a theory, identifying variables, it is measured in numbers and analysed with statistical procedures. This procedure is followed in order to determine whether the predictive generalisations of the theory holds true (Fouche & Delport, 2002:79). However, this paradigm has various limitations. The quantitative paradigm is positivistic in character and thereby excludes any naturalistic line of thought that might be more probable in explaining human and social dynamics. It assumes that human and social dynamics are universal explanations that limit the contextual differences in societies. This paradigm takes objective measurements in research in order to predict and control human behaviour – thereby assuming that human and social explanations can be placed in a scientific measurement and explanations that are sought will be generated, which is not always true. Also within these explanations, researchers are limited in making interpretations, observations, and developing their own views. This paradigm is limited by social and human diversity. For example, it is not always true that two people observing the same event would interpret it in the same way (Fouche & Delport, 2002:79).

With this investigation into the perception of crime prevention police officers with regard to policing accountability practices, this approach would assume that all the officers would make similar interpretations, that they would be similar to those that would or have been made by other police officers in other contexts, when asked the same questions. This is not only untrue but it is also most improbable. Therefore, these arguments make this approach unsuitable for the current study and this necessitates an alternative second paradigm that is called the qualitative paradigm.

3.3.1.2 Qualitative paradigm

A qualitative paradigm is the research that elicits a participant's account of meanings, experiences, and/or perceptions. It produces descriptive data in the participant's own written or spoken words and responses. This paradigm identifies the participant's beliefs and values that underlie the phenomenon (Fouche & Delport, 2002:79).

The role of a qualitative researcher is therefore more concerned with understanding, naturalistically observing, and subjectively exploring reality from the perspective of an insider.

A qualitative study is concerned with non-statistical methods and small samples, which are often purposely selected. A qualitative study is characterised by the following:

- it is less formalised and implicit,

- its range is less defined, and

- it is distanced from physical sciences (Fouche & Delport, 2002:79).

The abovementioned characteristics are relevant to the current study as they address the shortcomings of the quantitative paradigm (see Par. 3.3.1.1) that led to the rejection of that paradigm for purposes of this study. In the qualitative approach, the researcher is seeking understanding, observes naturally, explores subjectively about what people say, think, and/or perceive. The researcher then puts that on record with the context and participant's behaviour in mind. The shaping of data is on-going, which implies that any confirmation is acceptable as long as the researcher applies the same approach (Fouche & Delport, 2002:79)

The purposive sampling technique will be used (see Par. 3.3.3.1). Smaller samples would be drawn to gain their understanding, perception, and meanings they would attach to certain events and instances, this approach seems more useful than the quantitative approach, hence it will be applied in this study.

3.3.2 Research strategy/design

A research design can be defined as a plan of a research that sets off by detailing conditions as well as processes to be pursued, from the time a problem is formulated and ways to address it are identified, throughout in the research route until the distribution of the research findings. According to Tripodi (1983:83) the purpose of a research design is to provide a set of systematic procedures for producing data pertaining to the development, modification or expansion of knowledge.

Most of the research is undertaken to explain, describe, or explore certain social phenomena. Although a given study can focus on one of these purposes, it is possible to conduct a study with more than one of these in mind (Babbie, 1989:129). Through Babbie's leeway, in the current study a mixed qualitative, explorative, descriptive, and contextual research design will be utilized. The outcome of this exploration will result in some guidelines being described. These guidelines will be contextualized to the policing area of Gauteng Province. In order to achieve the abovementioned research design, the methods set out below will be pursued.

3.3.2.1 Qualitative research design

According to Bartollas (1997:50) some researchers have found that qualitative methods are useful techniques in shaping a more complete picture by focusing on social dynamics. Concurring with this view, Bailey (1994:244) says that the primary nature of the relationship between the observer and the subjects allows an in-depth study of the whole individual. It is therefore an intention of this study to present a larger picture of what police officers perceive as accountable policing practices within their daily practices as police officers who are attached to the Gauteng police service.

According to De Vos (1998:240), qualitative research is a multi-faceted approach to social interaction, which is aimed at describing and making sense of the social interaction according to the participant's interpretation. Participants make this interpretation/reconstruction in terms of the meanings that they attach to the interaction. In this study, the participants will be requested to state how they perceive policing accountability within their own context, and it would be valuable to gain first-hand knowledge of their understanding of the concept as well as its application within their daily practices and activities.

3.3.2.2 Explorative research design

Exploratory studies (which are also termed formulative research) are carried out when there is not sufficient information about the subject under investigation or where the formulation of hypotheses is difficult or impossible (Sarantakos, 1998:154-156). Babbie (1989:140) also supports this viewpoint. He postulates that this design is typical when a researcher is studying a new interest, or a subject of study that is relatively new or unknown. It emphasises the determination of ideas and insights and the formulation of more precise questions that future research can respond to and be directed upon. It is because of the relative new nature of the current study that this type of design has been chosen.

Policing accountability has not been investigated empirically in South Africa. Even the global studies in this area have very few empirical findings, if any. It is these reasons that prompted Bayley (1983:146-147) at an international conference, entitled "Accountability and Control of Police: Lessons for Britain", to identify this dearth in global studies. He indicated two shortcomings in the current research, namely that the current literature has failed to indicate the state of existing knowledge about the effectiveness and efficiency of the various accountability devices. He also indicated in the same context the failure of the academic world globally to undertake an international comparative overview about accountable police practices in various countries and to provide suggestions and guidelines on how police accountability within the various states can be improved upon. This view identifies the need

for studies in policing accountability. It also identifies the need for various exploratory studies that can later be used to formulate comparative studies in order to indicate the state of available literature about the effectiveness of the various accountability devices.

The main aim of exploratory studies is to find out "what is happening", seek new insights, to ask questions and to assess phenomena in a new light. They warn that in exploratory studies researchers that use these designs must be willing to change their direction/frames of reference as a result of new data developing. The biggest shortcoming of exploratory studies is that they rarely yield definitive and satisfactory answers to research questions. This is due, to among others, their lack of representativity that further limits their external validation (Mpshe, 2000:20; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 1997:78).

For these reasons, a large representative sample has been selected. This sample consists of the seven police areas/precincts in Gauteng that compose the provincial police service that have been incorporated into this study. An in-depth phenomenological investigation will be supported by the recording of the interview data using interview notes and an interview journal, as well as the systematic planning of a representative sample in terms of gender, race, and geographic locality will be attempted to provide a means of external validation of the findings of this study. This strategy is aimed at addressing the shortcomings of the explorative studies that were identified above and also to further enhance external validation of this study.

3.3.2.3   Descriptive research design

The aim of descriptive studies is to portray an accurate profile of persons, events, and/or situations, by extending current knowledge on what is known, or uncovering fresh knowledge that is not yet known (Saunders et. al., 1997:79). For purposes of this study, the aim of the researcher is to describe how these police officers perceive accountable policing practices within their daily activities. This is a new type of research that has never been conducted in Gauteng province or South Africa. Mpshe (2000:20) holds a similar view of descriptive studies. She emphasizes that seeking this understanding is achieved through the descriptions found in the words used by the participants. In the current study, these descriptions will be sought from the participating police officer's own description of the concept "policing accountability" and within their own operational contexts.

The disadvantage of descriptive studies is that the description might become too descriptive and end up being saturated. In such a case, critics of descriptive studies tend to make the following remark: "That's interesting, and so what?" They expect the researcher to go further

by drawing conclusions from the study and to formulate guidelines for both police research and police practice. In the current study, these shortcomings will be addressed by means of the exploration of the concept "policing accountability". The concept will be described through the identification and description of guidelines. This will assists in enhancing and promoting accountable policing practices within these police officer's daily practices within the whole Province (Saunders et. al., 1997:79).

3.3.2.4   Contextual research design

According to Mouton and Marais (1996:133) a contextual study is one in which the phenomena of interest are studied in terms of their immediate or intrinsic contexts. The current study is aimed at exploring the perception of police officers, which is the phenomenon of interest. The immediate or intrinsic context is Gauteng Province with specific reference to its seven policing areas that will be studied in-depth. The current study will be contextualized to Gauteng Province and the findings will only be applicable to this Province. The biggest shortcoming of qualitative studies is that its findings cannot be generalized. However, it should be noted that the current study is exploratory in nature. Its findings will guide future researchers to undertake quantitative studies of a similar nature.

3.3.3   Research methods

There is a tendency identified in many works of researchers where one finds researchers mixing their research designs and methodologies (Mouton, 2001:74). The research strategies or designs for the current study have already been discussed in Par. 3.3.2. A research method is defined as a systematic and orderly approach taken towards the collection and analysis of data so that information can be obtained from the data (Jankowics, 2000:209). A qualitative research method can be seen as a process and procedure to collect and analyse data.

The applicable research methods for this study will be limited to the unit of analysis (population), the sample, methods of both gathering and of analysing data, and the measures that are put in place to ensure that the design and methodology are valid and reliable. The rigor of scientific research is based on the objectivity and accurateness of these processes. The validity and reliability of a study could be very important as the findings are used in other studies or similar research (Mouton, 2001:74)

Although both the collection and the analysis of data are part of the research methods, however, they will be dealt with separately. This is done to ensure that the population and sampling, the roles of the researcher, the mediator, the independent observer, data

saturation, and the pilot study are emphasized as important aspects within a qualitative study. Thus, the heading of methods will focus on these aspects and the rest of the research (data collection, data analysis, ethical measures, and trustworthiness) will be dealt with under separate headings.

3.3.3.1 Population and sampling

The unit of analysis for this study will consists of crime prevention police officers who are serving in any of the seven policing areas/precincts in the Gauteng Provincial police service. Each of South Africa's nine Provinces is divided into policing areas. Gauteng Province is one of the nine Provinces. It has its own Provincial Police Service that consists of seven policing areas. These areas are, Pretoria (Tshwane), East Rand, North Rand, West Rand, Soweto, Johannesburg Central, and Vaal Rand. Each one of these areas is further divided into police stations and satellite police stations. Therefore, police areas are made up of several police stations. For example, Pretoria area has such police stations as Brooklyn, Mamelodi, Eersterust, Moot, Soshanguve, and other police stations.

The reason for selecting Gauteng Province is that this study will contribute towards addressing the need that was identified through the Johannesburg Pocket of Excellence Project. This pilot project was initiated under the leadership of Mr. Meyer Kahn. He was the former Chief Executive Officer of the SAPS. The Project earmarked Gauteng as a Province for identifying and developing key pockets of excellence for policing in South Africa, and to position it towards achieving a fully democratic policing system operating in a fully democratic society.

In qualitative research, sampling takes place subsequent to the actual investigation. In this regard, De Vos (2002:334) postulates "in qualitative studies sampling is undertaken after the actual investigation has commenced". Sarantakos (1998:156) describes sampling in qualitative research as relatively limited. It is based on saturation, and not representativity of the sample drawn. The size of the sample is not statistically determined. It usually involves low cost of the study and is not too time consuming.

According to Wimmer and Dominick (1987:70) two types of sampling methods exists. These are, probability (where the probability of selection is known or the universum's boundaries are known), and non-probability sampling (where the probability of sampling is unknown or the universum's boundaries are not known) techniques. In the current study the universum's boundaries are known, hence the decision to make use of the latter sampling (non-probability sampling) technique was taken. This decision is supported by De Vos (2002:334). He infers

that in qualitative studies non-probability sampling technique is used almost without exception because of the relativeness of boundaries.

Hagan (1997:136) identifies seven types of non-probability sampling techniques. These are, convenience, purposive (judgemental), snowball, quota, theoretical, partial, and the saturation non-probability sampling techniques. For purposes of this study a purposive non-probability sampling technique will be applied. The reason for this choice is to identify key crime prevention police officers that are involved in the day-to-day pro-active policing in Gauteng province. This implies that those police officers that are performing support service functions (like logistics, finance, human resource, and administration), investigative (detective) services, and commanders (police managers) will be excluded from the study. The decision to exclude these police officers is partially in line with the objectives of the study. This is to identify and describe guidelines to support operational crime prevention police officers who are involved in crime prevention operations on a daily basis in order to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within their day-to-day police activities in the province. To support the above, Cresswell's (1998:118) assumptions support this argument. He postulates that the "purposeful selection of participants represents a key decision point in a qualitative study. It is for that reason that researchers need clear criteria in mind and need to provide rationales for their decisions".

It is essential that the researcher specify in clear terms the criteria by means of which participants qualify to participate in the study. This criterion is known as the eligibility criteria (Mavundla 2000:3). It is required that the eligibility criteria be designed in such a way that it makes the population as homogeneous as is possible (Burns & Grove, 1993:236).

In view of this, the following criteria was identified to guide the researcher to include research participants in the current study. Participants should:

- be serving in any of the crime prevention units within the seven policing areas of Gauteng Province;
- have undergone basic police training and be full-time crime prevention police officers;
- have been in such functional positions for a minimum of two years; and
- be fairly conversant in English language.

3.3.3.2   The role of the researcher
As qualitative studies emphasize the rigor of conducting research from the start up to the end, the emphasis of this study is placed on the meaning of the participant's words and

viewpoints. This viewpoint is about: How crime prevention police officers make meaning of their own lives as officers of the law?; What their experiences as police officers are?; and How they interpret the world and their police operational environment in particular? It is for these reasons that the role of a qualitative researcher becomes the primary instrument of collecting data, as he/she takes the participants through the journey of identifying, reflecting, explaining, and describing (Creswell, 1994:145).

According to Kvale (1983:176) the role of the researcher during the interview is to try to identify and gather descriptions of relevant themes, while remaining focused on other developing themes. In doing this, the researcher remains open to any response. In this study, the researcher will focus on those themes that emanates from the definition of the concept policing accountability. These themes will involve the identification and description of guidelines on how to embed policing accountability into the daily lives of crime prevention police officers.

As is the practice in phenomenological focus group interviews, the researcher will be curious and sensitive to every word said and to every response. This will facilitate the discovery of different issues and the depth of themes revealed by the interview. Kvale (1983:176) warns that the researcher should always remember that the main aim of every qualitative interview is not to end up with unequivocal and quantifiable meanings about themes. Rather, the researcher must aim at describing the inherently contradictory meanings expressed by the participants in precise terms. This is because such statements are not necessarily the result of faulty communication or the profiles of the participants. These statements are usually reflections of objective contradictions of the world in which the participants operate within their every day police practice.

Furthermore, Kvale (1983:176) warns that a researcher should be aware of the fact that the interview is an interaction between the interviewer and the participants. The researcher must be aware that the participants would reciprocally influence each other, and they may experience the interview situation in different ways. In this regard, the interview may be characterized by feelings of common intellectual curiosity and reciprocal respect. Under worse circumstances, it may evoke anxiety and defence mechanisms. However, in both situations, these dynamics should be considered during the interview and afterwards when the data is analyzed. To heed Kvale's warning, a pilot study will be undertaken to establish the extent of these dynamics that could be evoked during the interview. This will enable the researcher to design ways and means in which these dynamics can be dealt with during the actual focus group interviews.

Apart from undertaking a pilot study to develop ways to deal with the actual focus group interviews, the researcher intends to make use of facilitative communication during the interview. It has been established that facilitative communication is effective in soliciting responses in qualitative studies (Mavundla, 2000:3-5). Due to the lack of the necessary interviewing skills, the researcher intends to supplement this lack of expertise knowledge by commissioning an expert to assist during the interviews. This person will also act as an independent observer during the interviews. The responsibilities of the observer are outlined in Par. 3.3.3.4 hereunder.

3.3.3.3   The mediator

After the University of Pretoria had approved the research proposal, the researcher sent a request to the office of the Gauteng Provincial Commissioner, requesting permission to conduct the study (see "Annexure A", dated 9 March 2000 on pages 220). The Provincial Commissioner, through reference 25/7/71 (379), dated 14th March 2001, granted permission to conduct the study (see "Annexure B" on page 222). Through this authorization, the Area Commissioners in the seven police areas/precincts were informed accordingly. They were further requested to assist the researcher in the study. They in turn, appointed persons to act as mediators. The mediator is sometimes referred to as an informant (De Vos, 2002:379-402). The role of the mediator is described by Mpshe (2000:21) as one who, through his/her access to the participants (police officers), will refer participants who meet the criteria and are also interested to participate in the study to the researcher (see "Annexure D" on pages 226 regarding the letter addressed to the Area Commissioners requesting the assistance of people to act as mediators, dated 27 March 2001. The letter also contained instructions to the mediators). Seven mediators were identified and interacted with the researcher in selecting participants to participate in the study.

3.3.3.4   The independent observer

It has already been mentioned in par. 3.3.3.2 (Page 71) that a person who has more experience and skills in qualitative research, will be appointed during the focus group interviews to act as an independent observer. This will be done to ensure validity and that the researcher makes no errors during the interviewing process. The independent observer will also assist in facilitative communication skills to gather the information. Professor Thandisizwe Redford Mavundla was approached to assist in the study. He conducted a study into the role of facilitative communication in qualitative studies as part of his Ph.D study that was completed in 2000. Apart from acting as an independent observer, he will also act as a co-coder of the data (see Par.3.3.5 on page 78). This is not a prescribed procedure but is recommended for most novice researchers like the researcher in the current study. The

independent observer does not participate in the research at all but merely observes the proceedings to inform the researcher where mistakes were made. Should the researcher make a fatal mistake during the focus groups interviews, the observer will make an observation and require the researcher to correct it immediately. This will be the direct contribution of the independent observer to the study (Cresswell, 1994:145-148; Kvale, 1983:174-177; Mpshe, 2000:24-26).

3.3.3.5   Data saturation

Due to the fact that social scientists have been dominated by logical positivism, most social scientists still cannot differentiate between the positivistic and naturalistic methods of enquiry. As a result therefore, scientists want quantifiable results at their disposal. However, since qualitative studies are not concerned with the element of generalization, the decision on the number of focus group interviews that will need to be conducted is determined by a factor called "saturation" of data. To avoid confusion, this concept will be explained (Morse, 1994:146-147; Rubin & Rubin, 1995:72-73).

Morse (1994:147-149) defines saturation as "data adequacy", which if operationalised, is the collection of data until no more new information can be gathered or attained". This in general, means a process of data collection that starts off with no themes at the disposal of the researcher. In other words, the researcher is not guided by any themes in the beginning of the research. The researcher gathers information until no more new themes are forthcoming. Rubin and Rubin (1995:72-74) see saturation as a process where interviewers continue with the interviewing process until they are learning little or no new information from subsequent interviews. This is the point of saturation. As soon as saturation is reached, interviewing is completed and is stopped.

The size of the sample of the current study will be determined by saturation. Focus groups interviews will be conducted until the saturation point has been reached. Putting it differently, the sample size will be determined when saturation has been achieved and not by the number of focus group interviews conducted. In this regard, De Vos (2002:334) states "in qualitative research, sampling occurs subsequent to establishing the circumstances of the study clearly and directively. Thus the sampling is undertaken after the actual investigation has commenced".

3.3.3.6   The pilot study

One of the seven policing areas in Gauteng Province, namely the North Rand, was selected for the pilot study. This area has been selected because of its proximity to the place where

the researcher is employed. This will reduce the costs of the pilot study and will thus be convenient for the overall study.

In this regard, De Vos (2002:337) outlines the following as core objectives of a pilot study:
- to ascertain trends for the overall study, which is whether the relevant data can be obtained from respondents (informal and few respondents, possessing the same characteristics as those of the main investigation, are selected);

- to focus on specific areas that may have been unclear previously or even to test certain questions to modify them for the main interview where needed in order to ensure quality of the study;

- to establish a relationship with respondents in order to develop effective communication patterns, community, and to obtain permission for the main or subsequent project/s; and

- to estimate the time and costs that may be involved in the main interview, as well as to pre-empt problems that may arise during the actual study.

In view of this, an undertaking and an application of this "trial" study enabled the researcher to observe the deployment of appropriate qualitative research techniques. It also contributed to the identification of further needs as well as impediments (for example, training, where deemed necessary). In the final analysis of the pilot study and where the process is deemed free of impediments, the interviewing process can commence. Interviewing can continue until the saturation point has been reached (De Vos, 2002:337-338; Mpshe, 2000:23).

3.3.4 Method of data collection

For purposes of this study, the principal data collection technique will be focus group interviews. The focus group interviewing procedure was chosen over the traditional survey methods due to the sensitive nature and the relative newness of the concept "policing accountability" within the policing practices in South Africa. Focus group interviewing is seen as a discussion that is carefully planned and designed to gauge perceptions in a defined area of interest ("police and policing accountability" in the current study) in a permissive, non-threatening environment (Kingry, Tiedje & Friedman, 1990:124). It is a data collection technique through group interaction on a topic determined by the researcher (Morgan, 1997:6). The benefits of this method are that it helps to unearth a plethora of informative data about a culture of an organization and the views of the world (Lee, 1999:53). Focus group interviews are aimed at promoting self-disclosure among participants, to gain knowledge of

what people really think and feel. This is useful when multiple viewpoints and responses are required in a short space of time. In this regard, there are three fundamental strengths that are shared by all qualitative methods, namely:

- exploration and discovery;

- context and depth; and

- interpretation (Greef, 2002:306).

In this regard, the focus group interviewing method that will be used in this study will be both in-depth and semi-structured. In other words, data will be collected by means of in-depth, semi-structured phenomenological focus group interviews, and supportive field information (in the form of field notes and observation).

3.3.4.1   In-depth phenomenological interviews

Calder (in Greef, 2002:309) identifies three approaches to focus group interviewing. These approaches are, exploratory, clinical, and phenomenological focus group interviewing approaches. The exploratory approach is used to pilot test operational aspects of anticipated qualitative research, or to generate theoretical hypotheses for future research. In this instance, focus group interviews are less structured. In the clinical approach, the researcher builds on the assumption that the real causes of behaviour must be understood through the sensitivity and clinical judgement of a trained professional. In this instance, the traditional focus group interviews serves as a device for obtaining specific information about the inner experiences of participants which is then subjected to clinical scientific interpretations. The phenomenological approach is used to understand the everyday experience of the participant. In this study, the latter approach will be used to understand the everyday policing practice of a Gauteng crime prevention police officer.

According to Creswell (1998:51-52) phenomenological studies describe the meaning of the life experience of a phenomenon by several individuals. This procedure involves the researcher setting aside all prejudices, bracketing experiences, and relying on intuition. The current study is semi-structured and relies on a central question, namely "How does the police official perceive policing accountability or accountable policing practices within his/her working environment?" The researcher then relies on responses that formulates and give rise to themes and sub-themes.

In the current study, the researcher intends to gather every aspect of the interviews. To achieve this, the researcher has decided to use audio recordings of the data by means of a tape recorder. The recorded data will be transcribed verbatim (word-by word) to facilitate the

process of data reduction (production into themes and sub-themes). In this regard, Greef (2002:304) warns that the researcher must first obtain permission from the participants to record the interviewing process. The strategy of audio-recording provides a full record of the proceedings, helps the researcher to concentrate on the interview process by evaluating how the interview is progressing and to choose the next direction.

3.3.4.2   Field notes

Apart from the tape-recording strategy of the interview, the researcher will make use of field-process notes, referred to as field notes, to enhance and supplement information gathering during the interviews and to preserve data. Field notes will be used as a system to remember observations, which the researcher captured and documented and to preserve other necessary data for analysis at a later stage (Greef, 2002:304). Field notes are viewed as a written account. They are a reflection of the issues the researcher hears, sees, experiences, and thinks about during the course of collecting or reflecting on the data obtained during the study.

In this study, field notes will be drafted during and after each interview to describe the underlying themes that emerges from every interview. This includes the dynamics that shaped the interview, and observations relevant to the interview and the analysis of data. They will also be used to describe possible themes and situations to help remember all aspects of the interview. The following points are regarded as critical guidelines to follow when writing field notes in order to minimise the loss of data. These include:

- getting right to the task of interviewing and taking field notes;

- not talking about the observation before it is recorded;

- finding a quiet place to write;

- setting aside adequate time to complete the notes;

- sequencing the events in the order they occurred; and

- letting the events and conversation flow from the mind onto the paper (Greef, 2002:304).

A good set of field notes is a detailed reproduction of what happened during the interviews. This not only helps the researcher remember what happened as such, but also constitute a written record of the development of the observations and ideas to be used in the future publication of the research findings and methods employed (De Vos, 1998:285-286). The following types of field notes, as proposed by De Vos (1998:285-286), will be used in this study, namely observational, theoretical, methodological, and personal field notes.

3.3.4.2.1 Observational field notes

Observational field notes are descriptions of events experienced, through watching and listening. In other words, these notes give an explanation of what happened as observed by the researcher. These notes contain the what, who, when, where, and how of human activity (respondents). In this study, these notes will contain the observations made during the interview, the setting of the interview, and the way in which the interview was conducted. The researcher will also rely on his/her own personal interpretations.

3.3.4.2.2 Theoretical field notes

Theoretical field notes are self-conscious, systematic attempts to derive meaning from the observational notes. In this study, the researcher will interpret, infer, and conjecture and develop new concepts and relate observations in order to derive meaning to enhance the identification and description of concepts.

3.3.4.2.3 Methodological notes

Methodological notes are mainly reminders, instructions, and critical comments to the researcher about methodological approaches that might be fruitful and contribute to the study. In the current study, the researcher will evaluate his conduct during the interview against the proposed research design and method.

3.3.4.2.4 Personal field notes

Personal field notes are all notes about the researcher's own reactions, reflections, and experiences. In this research study, the researcher will reflect on the contributions of the participants as a former police officer and will do some retrospection. During data analysis, the field notes are also analysed to develop relations to the interview and develop categories. These relations exist between the observations, theory, methodology, and the versions of the participants and the categories that are developing in the form of themes and sub-themes (De Vos, 1998: 285-286).

The information gathered from the perception of police officers during the interviews and field notes will be used for the analysis of data.

3.3.4.3 The use of facilitative communication

In this study, the researcher will employ the following facilitative communication techniques as proposed by Okun (1992) to allow the participants to articulate and express their perception of policing accountability:

3.3.4.3.1 Probing

Probing is an open-ended (not structured or pre-planned) attempt to obtain more information about something. This technique is used in interviews to obtain more information or in a case of vague answers, to get further particulars. For example, the researcher will probe by using phrases such as: "tell me more", "let's talk about that", "I am wondering if or about".

3.3.4.3.2 Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing is a verbal statement that is interchangeable with the interviewee's statement. It restates the main thought that was expressed by the participant. It can be used where the participant would for example say, "I had a bad night". The researcher can paraphrase that statement to say, "You did not sleep well last night?" Where the participant says, "I can comment on the concept", the researcher can paraphrase the statement by saying: "You want to give your own viewpoint about the concept or issue".

3.3.4.3.3 Clarifying

Clarifying is an attempt to focus on or understand the basis or nature of the participant's statements. The researcher uses it by trying to understand the cause, basis, or nature of the statement. It can be used in instances where the researcher requests further details and information. In this case, the researcher will say: "Could you state that again?", "Would you repeat that in understandable and unequivocal terms?"

3.3.4.3.4 Making minimal responses

Making minimal responses are the verbal counterparts of occasional head nodding used during an interview. These verbal counterparts apply where the researcher uses such cues as: "Mh…", "Mm…", "Yes", "I see" to encourage participants to verbalise their expressions.

3.3.4.3.5 Summarizing

By summarizing, the researcher ties together several views and feelings that have been communicated during an interview. The researcher ties major cognitive and affective themes, for instance: "To summarize what you said, is it that ….?" (Okun, 1992:70-71).

3.3.4.4   Literature control

The results of the study will be discussed in the light of relevant literature and information obtained from similar studies to verify the research findings. These findings, revealed by data obtained from the perception of police officers with regard to policing accountability, will be used to describe guidelines to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within the daily activities of the Gauteng police service (Miles & Huberman, 1994:131).

3.3.5 Method of data analysis

The recorded interviews will be transcribed verbatim. They will then be analysed according to the eight- (8) steps descriptive approach proposed by Tesch (1990:142-145). Some interviews, which were recorded in Afrikaans will be maintained in order to preserve richness. Only the final themes will be translated into English. Data analysis requires that the researcher must be comfortable with developing categories and making comparisons and contrasts. The researcher must be open to possibilities to see contradictory or alternative explanations to the findings (see "Annexure E", dated 14 July 2003 on page 228 regarding the data analysis procedures/protocol to the co-coder of the data. These instructions were aimed at explaining the analysis of the data in accordance with the guidelines provided by Tesch (1990:142-145).

The following eight steps will be used during the analysis of data:

● **Get a sense of the whole**

Read all transcripts carefully and perhaps write down ideas as they come to mind.

● **Pick one interview**

Pick the shortest, most interesting interview and go through it. Start asking yourself what it is about. Think about the underlying meaning. Write your thoughts in the margin of the transcript paper.

● **Make a list of all topics**

After writing your thoughts in the margin, for several participants, start making a list of all topics. Then place these topics in columns that might be arranged as the major topics, unique topics, and leftovers.

● **Abbreviate the topics and codes**

After developing topics from the transcripts, take the list and go back to the data. Start abbreviating the topics and codes, and write the codes next to the appropriate segment of the text. Try out this preliminary organising scheme to see whether new categories and codes are emerging.

● **Find the most descriptive wording for your topics and convert them into categories**

While developing your new categories, find the most descriptive wording for your topics and convert them into categories. Reduce your total list of categories by grouping relating topics together. Draw a line between categories to show interrelationships.

● **Sort the codes alphabetically**

Now that the lines have been drawn to indicate relationships between categories, make a final decision on the abbreviation for each category and sort these codes alphabetically.

● **Assemble the data material belonging to each category in one place and perform a preliminary analysis**

Now that codes have been sorted start assembling the data that you believe to belong to each category in one place. Thereafter, perform a preliminary analysis of the categories to see if any other themes have started emerging.

● **Record your existing themes**

If you find that certain themes have started emerging, start recording those data and themes. Make sure that you are able to sort these themes into their sub-themes, categories, and sub-categories. If need be, or where you feel that you need to repeat the steps in order to connect relationships of the themes, sub-themes, categories, and sub-categories, do so with an aim of further refining your data into more meaningful themes (Tesch, 1990:142-145).

3.4   ETHICAL STANDARDS IN QUALITATIVE STUDIES

There are two approaches to ethical philosophy, namely deontological, and teleological philosophies. However, qualitative studies always prefer the application of deontological ethical philosophy, instead of the teleological ethical philosophy. According to Skinner, Ferrell, and Dubinsky (1988:213) deontological philosophies focus on the means or factors used to arrive at an ethical decision. They emphasize the importance of moral and ethical standards as important in making research decisions. According to Polonsky and Waller (2005:56) this approach means that a qualitative investigator should not harm participants in any way during the investigation, no matter of the potential benefits of the outcomes/results.

Teleological philosophy, on the other hand, emphasizes the consequences or outcome that results from a study or action. According to Polonsky and Waller (2005:56) this philosophy deals with the moral worth of the behaviour as determined totally by the outcome of such behaviour. In other words, this philosophy asks an investigator to evaluate whether the benefits of the study outweigh the cost to participants, and if so, the study would be considered to be acceptable. It is for these reasons that in the current study, the deontological philosophy or approach is deemed preferable and would be applied as an ethical consideration.

3.4.1 Measures to ensure the ethical rigor of the study and its findings

There are various professional-and academic associations that regulate the conduct of research in South Africa. In this regard, sociologists and social workers will have their own association. However, criminologists in South Africa do not have such association. This causes problems in the delineation of professional conduct and code of ethics into social research in this field. This is because this field currently does not have any written guiding principles that are supposed to emanate from these associations.

However, to deal with this, the other binding professional codes in the relative fields can be applicable. This means in this context that the general Ethical Code of the South African Council for Social Service Profession (1986, as amended) can be seen as binding and applicable for criminological researchers as well. Besides these varieties of disciplinary codes, they all emphasize principled guidelines that must be pursued in the conduct of any ethically acceptable study. All these guidelines emphasize six broad ethical areas that need consideration in each study. These areas, which will guide the conduct of the current study, will be discussed in greater detail hereunder. These areas are, protection of subjects from harm, informed consent, voluntary participation, right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity, and honesty (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke, 2004:334-339; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:56; Polonsky & Waller, 2005:58-68).

3.4.1.1 Protection of subjects from harm

Researchers are constantly reminded not to expose participants to undue physical and psychological harm. In order to achieve this, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:100) provide three general rules for ensuring that research subjects are protected from harm. First, the risks involved in participating in a study should not be appreciably greater than the normal risks of day-to-day living. Second, participants should not risk losing life or limb nor should they be subjected to unusual stress, embarrassment, or loss of self-esteem. Third, where the nature of the study involves creating a small amount of psychological discomfort, participants should know this in advance, and any necessary debriefing or counseling should follow immediately after their participation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:100).

The current study has been designed in such a way that it protects participants from all forms of harm. This is because there are no physical and no psychological forms of discomfort inherent in the study and from which participants can be harmed. Furthermore, a short debriefing session will take place immediately after each focus group interview has been completed.

3.4.1.2   Informed consent

Participants should be informed about the nature of the study and must be given the choice of either participating or not participating in the study. Participants who agree to take part in a study must be informed that they have the right to withdraw from it at any time (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:101).

There is greater emphasis on recording the informed consent of participants to prove that the rigor of the study has been strengthened. To achieve this, Polonsky and Waller (2005:59-60) advise that an information sheet (referred to as the informed consent form) must be given to each participant. This form will help to describe the nature of the research project as well as the nature of the required participation by the participants.

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005:101-102) such a form must contain the following information:
- A brief description of the nature of the study.
- A description of what participation will involve, in terms of activities and duration.
- A statement indicating that participation is voluntary and can be terminated at any time without penalty.
- A list of any potential risk and/or discomfort that participants may encounter.
- The guarantee that all responses will remain confidential and anonymous.
- The name and contact details of the researcher.
- An individual or office that participants can contact should they have questions or concerns about the study.
- An offer to provide detailed information about the study, like a summary of findings upon its completion.
- A place for the participant to sign and date the letter, indicating agreement to participate.

For purposes of the current study, an invitation will be sent to all participants detailing the nature of the study and its intended goals. Participants will be invited to participate in the study. An informed consent form in English language will be given to each and every participant (for the contents of the Informed Consent form, see "Annexure C" on page 223, dated 30 June 2001). It will also be read in English. Its contents will be interpreted into Afrikaans, and one or more African indigenous languages. This is to ensure that everyone understands what they are about to do and that when they sign the form they will be agreeing to participate in the study.

3.4.1.3   Voluntary participation

In all ethically based studies, participation must always be voluntary. Being voluntary excludes coercion and deception. Participants must be invited to participate, with a clear understanding that they are under no obligation to do so, and that there will be no negative ramifications for them if they do not assists in the study by not participating (Polonsky & Waller, 2005:58).

For purposes of ensuring voluntary participation by every participant in the current study, participants will be invited to participate by means of an open invitation to participate in the study. They will be informed that participation has benefits for both them as individuals and the police organization as their employer, and that should they decide to participate, that they may withdraw from the interview at any time.

3.4.1.4   Right to privacy

Researchers are always reminded that the privacy of participants should be respected. To achieve this goal, it is recommended that under no circumstances may a research report be presented in such a way that others become aware of how a particular participant has responded or behaved. If this presentation must take place openly, such a participant must first consent to it in writing (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:102). Furthermore, researchers must keep the nature and quality of the participant's performance strictly confidential. To achieve this goal, anonymity of participants must always be maintained. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:102) propose the use of codes and pseudonyms to heed to the right of the participants to privacy. They postulate that these codes and pseudonyms can guarantee the privacy of participants by maintaining their anonymity.

In the current study, three strategies will be pursued to ensure that the right of the participants to privacy is maintained. These strategies are by:

-      Ensuring that no person will have access to the audio-taped results of the focus group interviews except the researcher and the authorized member of the research team.
-      Ensuring that the audiotapes will be destroyed after the data has been transcribed.
-      Ensuring that the usage of personal data will be excluded by not requiring participants to record their personal data except those types of information that are required for and are vital to the study.

3.4.1.5   Honesty

It is strongly urged that the researcher must always report the findings of the study in a complete and honest manner, without any form of misrepresentation. To achieve this, Leedy and Ormrod (2005:102) advise that a researcher must, under no circumstances, fabricate data to support a particular conclusion, irrespective of how seemingly "noble" that conclusion may be. Furthermore, it is strongly emphasized that credit must be given where it is due. The use of other people's ideas or information must be acknowledged in full. Researchers must abstain from committing academic fraud.

In the current study, honesty will be endeavoured and achieved by making use of an independent person to co-code the data. This will help in developing independent themes, categories, and sub-themes. A Declaration regulating plagiarism will be signed by the researcher (see page (i)). In that declaration, the researcher will acknowledge that he knows its contents and that the findings are a true reflection of the authenticity of the study.

3.4.1.6   Confidentiality and Anonymity

Researchers are strongly urged to consider how they will protect their participants. Protection must take place by keeping and maintaining both confidentiality and anonymity of the participants. According to Polonsky and Waller (2005:62) maintaining anonymity implies that a researcher does not know who the participants of the study are. Confidentiality means that the researcher knows who the participants are, but that their identity will not be revealed in any way in the resulting report. It is for these reasons that researchers must always consider how they will achieve the anonymity and confidentiality of their participants. If the participants cannot be protected, this must be clearly stated to potential respondents in the informed consent form.

In the current study, the researcher does not know the respondents individually. Also no personal data will be kept about the respondents in order to ensure that their identity is kept confidential and anonymous.

3.5   MEASURES TO ENSURE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY
OF THE STUDY

In this study, Guba's (in Lincoln & Guba, 1985:295-300) model will be used to ensure validity and reliability/trustworthiness. Validity and reliability is seen in qualitative studies as trustworthiness (Seidman, 1998:17; Marshall & Rossman, 1995:143). There are four main criteria that are used in evaluating the validity and reliability of qualitative studies. These are, truth-value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. Using categories of credibility will

ensure truth-value, applying categories of transferability will ensure applicability, consistency will be ensured by applying strategies of dependability, and neutrality will be ensured by applying strategies of confirmability (See Tables 1-4 below). To ensure that trustworthiness is ensured, the researcher has to ask the following four main questions:

- How can I be confident that there is "truth" in the findings of this particular inquiry from the respondents and the context in which the inquiry was carried out (Credibility)?

- To what extent, do the findings of this particular inquiry apply in other similar contexts or with other respondents (Transferability)?

- How can I be sure that the findings of this inquiry would be repeated if the inquiry (same processes) is repeated on the same subjects and in the same context (Consistency/Dependability)?

- How sure am I that the findings are determined by the respondents and given conditions and not by the biases of the inquirer (Neutrality/Confirmability)?

Each of these four criteria are fully discussed below to enable an understanding of the possible consequences and effects to the whole enquiry if and where transgression does occur/takes place.

3.5.1 Credibility or truth value

Truth-value draws conclusions in the credibility and ability of the researcher to undertake an inquiry, to follow the required processes with rigor and without compromising the quality of the study. These factors are often referred to as internal validity in quantitative studies. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995:143) activities that enhance the likelihood of credibility of the findings include among others, prolonged engagement, triangulation, observation, maintenance of the chain of evidence, and peer debriefing.

- **Prolonged engagement**

Prolonged engagement refers to the collection of data over a period of time (Merriam, 1988:169). It is argued that the researcher should invest a considerable amount of time in learning, building trust, and testing for misinformation that is brought about by either the self or respondents.

- **Maintenance of the chain of evidence**

Maintaining the chain of evidence refers to detailed processes employed by the researcher, such that an outsider or external observer can follow, from the derivation of the initial question to the drawing of conclusions. This is also referred to as the internal consistency or audit trail (Yin, 1994:99).

- **Peer debriefing**

Peer debriefing is regarded as an important facet of ensuring the credibility of the findings (truth value). This is because of the belief that some issues in the study often remain implicit within the researcher's own mind. Therefore, it is believed that neutrality can therefore be achieved through peer debriefing (Kvale, 1996:127,153).

- **Triangulation**

Triangulation refers to the use of various methods, multiple sources, and theories in an inquiry (Seidman, 1998:20). There is a growing support for the use of the triangulation procedure in qualitative studies in order to strengthen the validity of the research data and the overall research findings (Merriam, 1988:169; Yin, 1994:91).

- **Clarifying**

Truth-value should be maintained by clarifying the biases of the researcher. This is because it is believed that researchers, like any or all other individuals, have their own internalised biases. It is therefore important that the researcher clarifies his/her assumptions and theoretical orientation at the outset of the study. These theories could include among others, meta-theories, and theoretical, as well as methodological assumptions (Seidman, 1998:20).

- **Peer examination**

Peer examination is a research process whereby peers or much more experienced researchers are included in the discussion of findings and verification of all other research processes (Seidman, 1998:39).

The strategies employed to ensure the credibility of the current study are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Strategies employed to strengthen credibility

Criterion	Application
Prolonged researcher's engagement & experiences	- The researcher has ten years of policing experience, six years of research experience as a research employee in higher education. He has also conducted research projects independently. - The researcher has spent 12 months preparing for fieldwork.
Authority of the researcher	- The researcher has undergone training in research methodology at both undergraduate, and postgraduate levels. He has also trained through the Universities of Johannesburg, and South Africa (Florida Campus) with specific reference to the conduct of qualitative studies. A person who will supervise the current study has a D. Phil degree in Criminology and has also completed a post-doctoral study at the University of Oxford (UK) - He has supervised and co-supervised other post-graduate studies. - He has published in various refereed international and national journals.
Triangulation	The following methods are mixed in order to strengthen the credibility of the data: • The use of a qualitative, explorative, descriptive and contextual research designs, with theoretical assumptions of the public choice theory. • Phenomenological interviews are held and field observational field notes will be compiled. • Author triangulation: The findings of the study will reflect the co-ordination of the work and application of skills of the researcher, supervisor, and the independent observer. • The data reduction methods of Tesch (1990:142-145) will be used. • Consensus discussions of data will take place with an independent coder. • Multiple data sources are used in arriving at the results.
Reflexibility	A field journal in the form of observational field notes and a tape-recorder will be used to reflect the researcher's own

	behaviour and experiences during the interview processes.
Peer briefing	• A consensus discussion of the research findings will be held with an independent coder, an independent observer, and the supervisor of the study (Kvale, 1996:127). • The supervisor of this study will receive ongoing feedback in order to review and suggest appropriate changes.
Researcher's bias	The triangulation of methods cited above, the co-authorship by both the researcher and the supervisor of the study, as well as the analysis of data by an independent coder - are all measures that will be used to overcome researcher bias.
The chain of evidence (audit trail)	A trail of easy to follow evidence by the researcher includes (e.g. detailed methodologies, audiotapes, and data transcripts) are all supportive audit instruments that will be used in the study. These instruments can be analysed further where and when other researchers deem it necessary.
Interview-flow	Facilitative communicative skills, knowledge of group dynamics management skills will be used to allow interview-flow, non-divergent from the interview topic, and to overcome dominant group behaviour. The employment of an independent observer will guarantee quality of this process further during the interviews.

3.5.2 Transferability

Transferability is concerned with the extent to which the results or outcomes of a study can be applied to another similar situation and yield the same results. In quantitative studies, the equivalent terminology would be "generalisability". However, since qualitative studies by nature, do not produce generalisable results, the general understanding is that if the same processes are followed to the latter in a similar but different setting, with the similar types of respondents, the process should yield similar results (Krefting, 1991:214). Although the researcher does not necessarily have to transfer the findings to another setting, he/she should present the data succinctly to enable other people to make comparisons (Kvale, 1996:26 & 231-235). Strategies that enable transferability in a qualitative study are largely dependent on the processes that are followed. The processes followed in this study to ensure transferability are detailed in Table 2 below.

The strategies employed to strengthen the transferability of the current study are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Strategies employed to strengthen transferability

Criterion	Application
Nominating sample	A set of criteria is set out in place for the selection of participants (see Chapter 3). A purposive sampling technique with no prior selection will be used in this study. A mediator will further strengthen the process of sampling for this study. Unfamiliarity with most to all the prospective respondents enables unbiased selection based solely on the purposive methods (Polit & Hungler, 1991:254).
Dense description	In Chapter 3 of this study a detailed and thorough description of the research strategies and methods, including the verbatim transcripts and literature control, is outlined.

3.5.3 Dependability

Dependability is concerned with whether, or not, the findings would be consistent if the inquiry is replicated in the same context and with the very same respondents (Krefting, 1991:221). This concept is related to consistency. The dependability of social inquiries are often short-lived. This is because the social effects are continuously changing and are often time dependent. Due to the presence of variability of instruments, the researcher, his informants (participants), and time consistency is considered to be dependable. Other strategies of dependability inherent in the study include an "audit trail". This refers to detailed procedures and processes that another researcher can clearly follow (Guba in Krefting 1991: 214).

The strategies employed to strengthen dependability of the current study are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Strategies employed to strengthen dependability

Criterion	Application
Dependability audit	- A description of the research methods is provided. - A field journal, personal logs, and field notes will be kept in this study. - Code-recode procedure for data analysis will be used in this

	study
	- Experts (for example, the supervisor of the study, an independent coder and observer) will ensure that the standard of good practice in research is maintained. - Peer examination and debriefing will be done.
Dense description	A full research methodology is outlined, consisting of a dense description of the research design and methods. The research methods includes although not limited to population, sampling, data collection, and analysis procedures.
Triangulation	A detailed explanation of triangulation is presented in table 1 above.
Code-recode procedures	A consensus discussion between the researcher and the independent coder will be held. In this meeting, a decision on the identified themes from the findings will be reached.
Referential adequacy	All the collected data, including audiotape records, will be kept for a minimum period of 3 years to be available for later analysis and interpretation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:313).

3.5.4 Confirmability

Confirmability is seen as a "neutrality" criterion. Confirmability is achieved when truth-value and applicability of data are established (Lincoln & Guba in Krefting, 1991:216). Neutrality is the degree to which the findings of a study are solely dependent on the conditions of the research and informants (participants), and not subject to any biases. Possible biases by the researcher, including his/her own perspective of the situation, emotions and attitudes, can influence the findings of the study significantly. Qualitative research therefore prescribes objectivity, which is believed to increase as the distance between the researcher and the informants (participants) decreases (that is when informants feel at ease to release as much information as possible). Although there are arguments about the neutrality of data as opposed to that of the researcher, both are important factors in achieving unbiased results (Kvale, 1996:212).

The strategies employed to strengthen the confirmability of the current study are presented in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Strategies employed to strengthen confirmability

Criterion	Application
Confirmabilty audit	- A team of experts, which includes the supervisor, and the independent coder, see through the entire research process (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:322). - The research audit, often through chapters is done throughout the research process and any possible biases are eliminated.
Triangulation	For full description, see Table 1 above.

3.6 CONCLUSION

The intention of Chapter 3 was to provide a descriptive analysis of the research approach that was applied in the study in order to achieve the objectives of the study. This descriptive analysis was directed at both analysing and aligning the various research approaches, research design, research methods, data gathering techniques, data analysis, ethical measures, and measures taken to ensure the trustworthiness of the findings of this study. These issues were all relevant for the study.

In order to ensure that the study was conducted correctly, various ethical measures were utilized. The intention was to embed measures of ethical rigor into the whole study. These measures included the following:

- Protection of subjects from harm.
- Informed consent.
- Voluntary participation.
- Right to privacy.
- Honesty.
- Confidentiality and Anonymity.

Various measures of trustworthiness were utilized to ensure that the study was valid and reliable. In these measures, credibility ensured truth-value, applying categories of transferability ensured applicability, applying strategies of dependability ensured consistency, and by applying strategies of confirmability ensured neutrality. In Chapter 4 the research findings will be presented.

4. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3 the research methodology that was utilized to achieve the objectives of the study was explained. The objectives of the current study are two-fold. The first objective was to explore and describe the perception of crime prevention police officers regarding policing accountability in Gauteng Province. The second objective was to identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers to enhance and promote policing accountability in their day-to-day police practices and activities.

Chapter 4 is aimed at providing an analytical description of the key findings of the study. This will be achieved by focusing on the key themes that emanated from the analysis of the existing data. This analysis will provide a basis for the description of the perceptions of the crime prevention police officers regarding policing accountability. This descriptive analysis will help to answer the first objective of the study. It is a prerequisite for every (qualitative) study that its findings relate, in one way or another, to findings in similar studies. It is for this reason that the findings of this study will be subjected to literature control to determine their relativeness to findings of similar studies. Subjecting these findings to literature control enables the researcher to determine two things. These are whether, the study adds any value to existing theories, and if it adds any new insight to historical contexts. A literature control will therefore help to provide support for the responses of these police officer's perceptions regarding policing accountability.

On the basis of the findings of this study, conclusions will be made that will provide a platform for formulating recommendations. The findings will be discussed in this chapter while the recommendations will be forthcoming in Chapter 5.

4.2 DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

This study was conducted between April 2002 and December 2004 in the Gauteng Province. This section will be dedicated to an in-depth analysis of two issues, namely:

- Focus group interviews as a data collection technique; and
- Data analysis technique.

4.2.1 Focus group interviews as a principal data collection technique

Participants for this study consisted of both male and female police officers attached to the SAPS in the Gauteng Province. These participants were also representative of the four general races (Asians, Africans/Blacks, Brown/Coloured, and Whites) of South Africa. However, during

the conduct of the study, it was found that some races were more dominant than other races in particular areas. For example, in Soweto, more Africans were interviewed than other races. In Pretoria, more Whites were interviewed than other races.

The police ranks of the participants ranged between constables, sergeants, and inspectors. Commissioned officers were excluded purposefully from this study (see Par. 3.3.3.1 in Chapter 3). The reason is that the study intended exploring only the perception of non-commissioned police officers. The ages of the participants ranged between 22 and 50 years.

The police experience of the participants within the police service ranged between five years and more. They were all attached to the crime prevention units as operational officers on a day-to-day basis. They were all responsible for the Constitutional responsibility of preventing crimes as required by section 205 (3) of the Constitution, 1996. Thus, their views will assist in formulating an operational guideline to assist in promoting accountable policing practices within the Gauteng Province's crime prevention division.

During the conduct of the study, 28 focus group interviews were scheduled. These focus group interviews excluded the four pilot focus group interviews conducted at the North Rand policing area/precinct. However, data became saturated after the completion of the 24th interview. According to Morse (1994:285) this saturation therefore ensured that the sample size has been achieved. Each focus group interview lasted about two hours. Each focus group interview consisted between 9-15 participants. Although there is no fixed rule of thumb about the exact number of participants per group, Morgan and Krueger (in De Vos, 2002:311) advises that in deciding on the right number means striking a good balance between having enough people to generate a discussion and ensuring that other participants do not feel crowded out. Therefore, it is the convictions of the researcher that when talking about the majority of the participants, means participants ranging between 8-12, namely two-thirds majority of the participants. This view is shared by Mavundla (2000). This 8-12 attribution represents a 66.66 % of the overall number of participants (2/3 majority). Each interview was tape-recorded and was also transcribed *verbatim* to ensure the precise reduction of data during the processing of the data.

4.2.2 Data analysis technique

Data was analyzed according to the descriptive approach of Tesch (1990:142-145), which follows an eight-(8) steps approach (Par. 3.3.5 in Chapter 3). This method helped the researcher

to reduce the data into themes, sub-themes, categories and sub-categories. The findings of this study were controlled by means of available literature.

From the analysis of the data, the following themes emerged from the various focus group interviews. These themes can be summarized into the following categories:

- The definition of police and policing accountability.
- The obstacles hindering the practice and a culture of accountable policing.
- Strategies proposed to promote and enhance the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng police service.

4.3   RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This paragraph is aimed at providing a descriptive analysis of the perceptions of the crime prevention police officers with regard to police and policing accountability. This analysis will be done by pursuing a three-tier strategy that will be aimed at canvassing their views regarding police and policing accountability. The first approach in this strategy will be to canvas their operational views on how police and policing accountability is defined. The second approach will be to provide an in-depth analysis of what they identified and described as obstacles hindering and inhibiting the practice and a culture of policing accountability and accountable policing in their day-to-day police practices and activities. Third in this strategy, will be an in-depth analysis of what they proposed as strategies to promote and enhance the practice and a culture of policing accountability and accountable policing in their day-to day police practices and activities.

4.3.1   THE DEFINITION OF POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY BY GAUTENG CRIME PREVENTION POLICE OFFICERS

Crime prevention police officers provided a broad framework of what they considered as the definition of police and policing accountability in their day-to-day police practices. The question posed to them was, "What is your own definition of police and policing accountability within your daily practices as crime prevention police officers?" In response, they stated that the concepts police and policing accountability must be defined first as their responsibility towards their policing tasks. Participants were then requested to identify what these tasks were. In response, they identified these tasks as broadly to combat crime through crime prevention and operational response activities.

Dixon (2000(a):72) postulates that the content of (state) police accountability in South Africa has been determined in a Constitutional manner in section 205. According to him, the content of

what police responsibility entails must be sought at the provisions of section 205 of the Constitution. Section 205 (3) outlines the objects of the police to be four-fold. These objects are:

- To prevent, combat, and investigate crimes.

- To maintain public order.

- To protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property.

- To uphold and enforce the law.

Therefore, members of the SAPS must be held to account first with the manner in which they discharge these four policing tasks. In this regard, police and policing accountability must be seen at an individual level as the accountability of police officers towards their policing tasks. It must also be seen at an (police) organizational level as the accountability of the police organization (SAPS) towards their mandated tasks.

Police scholars (Bayley, 1995; Dixon, 1999 & 2000(a)) find it inadequate for police officers to solely understand what the police are accountable for. According to Dixon (2000(a):73) in preventing and investigating crimes, the police are armed with their capacity and authority to use coercive force. It is for this use or threatened use of legitimated coercive force that they must be held to account. Therefore, both the individual police officers and the SAPS must be held to account also for the way that they employ coercive force in the execution of their respective tasks.

Bayley (1995:79) notes that the dangers of policing through legitimated force lies in policing transitional states and those states that were previously oppressed (or with a previous but recent history of oppression like South Africa). According to him, police practices regulates freedoms (from arbitrary arrests, detention, freedom of speech and press) that are considered very important in democracies. In this view, the police practices through clandestine surveillances have the propensity to "chill" the impulse to participate in these political activities. For police officers operating in democratic societies (like South Africa), he proposes that they must do so through the existence of an effective system of accountable policing in order to eliminate this potential police abuse. This system must provide for a balance between the police use of their legitimated coercive force and the enjoyment of citizen protection from arbitrary application of that force. Therefore, the SAPS is encumbered as an organization to provide for mechanisms in which a balance is struck between police officer's use of force and citizen enjoyment of their

liberties. This issue has become one of the thorny aspects that led to the challenge of the current SAPS policy on the use of force.

This system of police governance is called a "parsimonious legal application approach". In developing this "parsimonious legal application" system of police governance, Dixon (2000:73) opines that the focus must be on an immediate replacement of unjust and inequitable coercive police practices with a more socially and economically balanced system of police governance. Therefore, according to these scholars, it is not only adequate for Gauteng police officers to understand the content of their policing tasks, which are the four policing tasks, and to apply the current policy on the use of force in their daily police practices. It is equally important for them to adopt a restrictive approach in executing these tasks. It is also equally incumbent for the police organization to develop a parsimonious legal application policy. In implementing this policy, every police officer must be trained in its application and overall strategic focus.

Fortunately for South Africa, the Constitutional court ruling, where it ruled that section 49 of the Criminal Procedure Act (use of force) was unconstitutional, has paved a way. The provisions of this section were referred to the legislature by this court for reconsideration within the ambit of the guidelines the court provided. This move by the court is plausible in view of Klockars' (1988:157) suggestion. He suggested that in order to sustain accountable policing practices through the parsimonious legal application approach also has a societal encumberment. It requires the policed societies to wrap up the exclusive right of their police to use coercive force. This means that societies must be protective of their civil liberties.

Secondly, participants stated that they and the SAPS are both collectively required to execute these tasks and to report to certain structures. In response to a subsequent question requiring the participants to identify these structures, they identified them as including their policing function and the concomitant policing environment, the various structures of their line of command, and their own individual police officer accountability as professional officers of the law. Daly (1987:3) appears to be in agreement with this definition for two reasons. First, it explicates both the identity and the structure of the authority "to whom" the police account has to be provided. The identities of these structures are namely the policing function (tasks) being what must be accounted for. With regard to the question of "to whom?" such account must be provided, they identified these structures as their policing milieu/environment, the various structures of their line of command, and their own individual police officer accountability as

professional officers of the law. In this way, research participants proposed three typologies of institutions in which police account has to be provided. These typologies are the policing environment, the various structures of their line of command, and their own individual police officer accountability as professional officers of the law.

The first type of that institution is their policing environment. In order to understand the police and policing environment, it is believed that it requires a dual approach. This dual approach consists of identifying the nature of the source mandating the policing function, and identifying the party to whom the accounting responsibility should be discharged. In order to provide how this dualistic mode applies, a three-tier-activity approach is proposed (Dixon, 2000(a):73). These activities are first, the determination of the ultimate source of police authority, the general direction in which police accountability must flow, and the immediate relations of accountability in which policing accountability must flow.

The first activity requires a determination of the ultimate source of police authority. This is seen somehow differently in three countries, namely Britain, United States of America, and the Republic of South Africa (SA). According to the British perspective (Dixon, 2000(a):73), a truly democratic police organization derives its authority to operate from "the people". They must achieve this by being accountable to the people of the state within whose domestic territory the police have been given a general authority to exercise their powers, namely the British people. According to the American perspective (Klockars, 1985:12) the police are institutions or individuals that are given the general right to exercise its powers by the state within its domestic territory, namely the "American people". According to the South African perspective (Van Heerden, 1984:4), society collectively delegates to the state, through the police organization, the responsibility to promote and maintain public order. In this way, the "collective people of South Africa" are the delegators and they are consequently the people to whom police account must be given.

The second activity requires the determination of the general direction/environment in which police accountability must flow. That is, how are "the people" environment defined generally as stated in the three countries' viewpoints provided above. This environment is believed to be consisting of the citizens of the state or what is regarded as the general citizenry or the "the people" (Dixon, 2000(a):73-74; Klockars, 1985:12; Van Heerden, 1984:4). In addition, Reynecke (in Reynecke & Fourie, 2001:16) believes that "the people"-environment is made up of eight- (8)

environmental attributes. These environmental attributes are the social environment, the political environment, the technological environment, the ecological environment, the international environment, the public interest groups environment, the judicial environment, and the economical environment).

It is important to understand how the police can be tied to these non-tangible environmental attributes. According to Dixon (2000(a):74) understanding how the police are directed to these environmental attributes can only be done by looking at how the police are directed to "the people". Linking the police to "the people" in South Africa is not accomplished directly. It is accomplished indirectly, by means of a series of accountability relations linking "the people" of South Africa and the SAPS. The Constitution (1996) provides a practical and workable way in which this indirect series of accountability apply in practice in South Africa. The Constitution (1996) does this through Chapter 11 that provides a broad framework of police governance. This framework ties the SAPS into both, the general and the immediate external relations of accountability. These ties of general and immediate external relations consists of such relations and responsibilities as a member of national Cabinet (the national Minister for Safety and Security) that is responsible for determining national policing policy, the nine provincial executives (Members of the Executive Councils [MEC's] who are entrusted with the responsibility of safety and liaison, are responsible for overseeing the effectiveness and efficiency of their respective provincial police segments, the internal executive of the police (National Police Commissioner) who is responsible for overseeing the day-to-day management and control of the SAPS, and the Local Community Police Forums (the CPF's) who are responsible for promoting police accountability to communities at the local level.

The third activity requires the determination of the immediate relations of police accountability in which police accountability must flow. That is, how are the police linked to their immediate external environment. These linkages must be seen within the context of the immediate environment of the police. These relations link the national police to other institutions and individuals at an immediate level. There are five such institutions in South Africa. They are referred to as the Chapter 9 institutions (Institutions Supporting Constitutional Democracy in South Africa). According to Dixon (2000(a):74) these institutions are aimed at promoting and enhancing police and policing accountability. The functionality of these institutions must be judged on the basis of the extent of their contribution to the implementation of "the people"

representation. That is, they must be judged on the basis of their contribution to the accountability of the whole police to "the people" of South Africa in their collective segments.

The biggest challenge on police governance lies in the fact that all South Africans are now equally entitled to police public account. Dixon (2000(a):74) provides an inclusiveness approach to this public entitlement to police account in the collective but diverse inclusiveness of the South African community. According to him, both the *Skollie* and the vigilante, as well as the archbishop and the traditional leader, are all entitled to an account by the police.

The second element of the police and policing environment consists of the various structures of the police and policing line of command. This type of police and policing accountability is sometimes referred to as "vertical/hierarchical structural accountability" (King, 2003:209). This is because organizations, including police organizations, are thought to possess two broad elements, namely, horizontal and hierarchical/vertical elements. The horizontal element of an organization includes the number and size of (police) departmental specialized units (e.g. crime prevention, detective service, etc.), and how the police tasks/objects are broken down. The vertical/hierarchical element of a (police) structural organization encompasses the allocation of five organizational resources. These resources are, authority, skills, rewards, status, and seniority. The differential allocation of these resources stratifies (police) organizational members into hierarchies (King, 2003:209).

The rank structure, a component of the authority hierarchy, is referred to as the chain of command. This structure is made up of a formal, authoritative layer that runs from top to bottom. Police officers at the lowest layer or rank (constables) receive their orders from, and report to, the next rank in the hierarchy (sergeants), who also receive their orders from and report to the next layer (inspectors). Members of the police organization, who are placed at the highest level of the rank structure, (senior management or executive command structure) have a greater formal, supervisory power and authority over the lower levels (these executives are responsible for developing, managing, and overseeing the implementation of the police organizational policy). This process of quantifying organizational height is called vertical segmentation (King, 2003:209).

In this respect, vertical structural accountability, may also be regarded as institutional (structural) accountability, or accountability to the line of command. This form of police accountability is

aimed at ensuring total compliance of lower level police officers with the institutional norms, values, and standards. It is in this way that the lower level police officers are seen to be accountable to the whole line of command from their own level up within the institution, including the civilian (CPF's,) and the political layers of the institution. (For more information on how this relationship applies in practice, please see Par. 2.2.2.1 in Chapter 2).

The third element of the police and policing environment consists of the (crime prevention) police officer's personal accountability. This was viewed by participants as an adoption of a positive attitude towards their police work, themselves, and being answerable for their individual actions and inactions. According to Spencer (1985:1-2) a person is accountable to another if s/he is under a duty to answer to that other for her/his actions. According to him, that duty is attended by the possibility of disciplinary or similar measures if the actions are disapproved of or are irregular. Thus, individual crime prevention police officer personal accountability implies the adoption of a positive attitude towards crime prevention as a police practice and activity. It is also a "positive crime prevention police officer attitude" towards the crime prevention function, and a crime prevention police officer adherence and orientation to and answerability to the law of the land for discretionary individualized decisions and actions.

Thus, police failure to adopt a positive attitude results in possible disciplinary actions. Police officers are individually answerable to the law about the manner in which they are executing their police duties. They are also technically answerable with regard to their adoption of positive measures to create an environment conducive of public safety and security through the prevention of crimes, threats, and similar actions inhibiting safe and secure public environments.

According to one of the police officers that participated in the study, police and policing accountability implies "the identity of the party to whom they are accountable to, and the structure of the institutions and processes to whom account has to be provided". Thus, they are accountable to those processes and structures because law creates them and they are duty bound to respect them.

Two elements emanates from the definition provided by the crime prevention police officers of police and policing accountability. These elements are that police and policing accountability entails:

- Police responsibility towards the policing tasks, that consists of the policing function and the policing environment (police content), and
- Accountability to the line of command, and personally to the policing function as professionals and officers of the law (modes, and mechanisms of policing accountability)

4.3.2 OBSTACLES HINDERING THE PRACTICE AND A CULTURE OF POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY IN GAUTENG PROVINCE

Participants indicated that while performing their four constitutionally mandated tasks mentioned above, they face stumbling blocks, which they regarded as obstacles. They stated that at times, these obstacles are beyond their human individual and professional control. As a result, they are unable to tackle these obstacles head on, due to the inadequacy of resources, including human resources. In this respect, they identified six (6) of these obstacles, which they perceived as hindering the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng police practices.

These obstacles are:
- Inappropriate decision-making during crime prevention.
- Poor crime prevention management leadership style and culture.
- A lack of vision within the crime prevention police practices.
- Poor institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices.
- Poor crime prevention strategies and operations.
- The negative effect of the policing environment.

4.3.2.1 Inappropriate decision-making during crime prevention

Two-thirds of the participants felt that the current decision-making culture, within crime prevention units and police stations, was inappropriate. They identified three factors that contribute to this inappropriateness in police practices and activities. These factors are first, blinded actions and decisions that lack equitableness, reasonableness, and measurability. The second obstacle is indiscrete police actions. Thirdly, it is a lack of police officer accountability for decisions that they take.

4.3.2.1.1 Blinded actions and decisions lacking equitability, reasonability, and measurability

Participants complained that sometimes they take decisions and act in a blind way. This was regarded as being in total contrast to the standard requirement for discretionary police action. According to them, this results in their actions and decisions lacking equitability, reasonability,

and measurability. They regarded equitability, reasonability, and measurability as standard requirements for discretionary police action. According to their view, the legal standard for each and every discretionary police action in South Africa requires total adherence to these requirements for every police action. One officer highlighted the overall impact of indiscretionary police action by saying:

> You see, sir. I am not sure and convinced (laughing) that we are not stupid in acting when called upon to do this. You see, we learn in law books that our acts must always be reasonable. But how can we say we are if our shooting and general behaviour is not equal to what professional officers do. I watch TV programmes and see how they "screw" you in America if you mess up.

According to both the police studies and legal literature, these standards were laid down by the South African Appeal Court in the court case of Matlou v Makhubela 1978 (1) SA 946 (A). In this case, Chief Justice Rumpff introduced what is sometimes referred to as the "proportionality test". This test requires that there should be some relation between the degree of the force used by the police officer and the seriousness of the offence committed by the accused. Since the highest court in South Africa made this decision, it is binding and applicable to each and every police officer and his/her action. This implies that the standard requirements in assessing any individualized police officer action must be sought at whether such an action adheres to the standard of proportionality between the initial activity and the eventual police action. This proportionality is evaluated on the basis of equitability, reasonability, and measurability.

Participants also felt that their job requirements sometimes place them in a position where they have to take decisions within a "very short span of time" (sometimes referred to as "deciding within seconds"). Such actions and decisions are reviewed at a later stage by means of a "reasonable man test". This review mechanism is perceived to be inappropriate for two reasons.

First, crime prevention police officers find it difficult and even impossible, in most cases under such circumstances, to take into consideration this "reasonable man" test requirement. According to them, the difficulty lies in embedding and aligning their actions and decision-making into the principles of reasonable man criteria. They cited shortcomings in both police basic- and in-service training, as an obstacle hindering and affecting the operationalization and implementation of the criteria of the reasonable man test. They regard this training as failing to prepare them enough with the reality of the police field of work.

Second, participants regarded their operational police environment as changing too often. This was specifically attributed to two environments, the legal environment and the technological environment. One officer demonstrated this dilemma by saying,

> How do you think like a reasonable man if someone is pointing you with a gun? I think that it is not always possible to think and act like this man. How do I make my acts like him if they did not train us to think like him. They are not even making us to do this right now.

The second reason for the limitation of the reasonable man test in limiting their decision-making was attributed to the inherent requirements of measurability and equitableness of their police action. Participants felt that the decisions they take are evaluated in terms of the measurability and equitability criteria. They felt that this poses problems in that these criteria are too objective. Their objectivity negate crime prevention police officer's human character (subjectivity) that becomes involved in making those decisions. They felt that they decide as human beings, yet evaluators fail to take those subjective factors into account in the final evaluation of their decisions at later stages. One participant showed this dilemma by saying:

> There is this thing of eh… equality of your actions to the resistance. How do they say this? I mean Ja, they do not think that we are human beings when they find you guilty in court. They think what is there when they say it. What about me? I was thinking like a human being.

Ness (in Marion, 1998:54) evaluated the efficiency of Police Academy Training in the USA. He found that only 52% of police officers, responding to questions of how well the Academy training prepared them for the job, rated their training as adequate. However, 48% of those officers rated it somehow as inadequate. Most of these officers suggested that more-hands on scenarios had to be added to their training curricula, and that the training should utilize simulations instead of theory-based offering. This suggestion made Ness to conclude that the Police Academy Training does not completely prepare police officers to perform their tasks as required by police operational standards. Brogden and Shearing (1993) evaluated the effectiveness and efficiency of pre-1994 police training in South Africa. They found that the training produced apartheid-based outcomes. On the basis of the Ness (in Marion, 1998) and Brodgen and Shearing (1993) studies, it can be concluded that police training in both the United States and South Africa was inadequate in the past in preparing operational police officers for their new tasks outside on the field. This conclusion is still valid as currently there are no comparative studies that were conducted to prove a contrary view.

On the basis of the lack of reasonability, measurability and equitability of decision-making in crime prevention, it can be concluded that there exists a gap between the Police Academy training and the police field work, with regard to imparting operational knowledge to these police officers. Such a gap has a great impact on the ability of police officers to demonstrate and apply discretionary actions. A need for the development of operational guidelines, that will help and guide these officers to take decisions that are reasonable, measurable, and equitable, is suggested. Furthermore, the inadequacy of the police training indicates a need for training officers in taking decisions "within seconds". This inadequacy suggests that research is required to develop operational guidelines on how to take accountable decisions "within a short span of time".

4.3.2.1.2   Indiscreet police actions

Research participants felt that they are perceived as not using their discretion correctly or applying their minds appropriately when taking decisions. They also felt that when they are on duty, they are not taking and making the kind of decisions that the National Commissioner, whom they represent, would have taken and made. In this regard, one officer indicated the importance of their decisions in the field by saying:

> It only means that you as a crime prevention officer, are the police service itself, the people are seeing your action as that of the whole police, your action are representative and not an individual action.

Lustgarten (1986:10) observes that a police officer called to a scene of crime is mostly faced with an extra-ordinary range of permissible legal responses. In this respect, his conclusion is in full agreement with these police officers. He concludes that in taking the kind of decision that is the quintessence or most important part of their police work, the police are guided by virtually no legal standards at all.

On the basis of these police officer's perceptions and Lustgarten's (1986:10) observation, it can be concluded that the police attitude of searching for operational guidelines on the basis of legal precedence and direction is inadequate. This approach is supported by Dixon (2000:76). He postulates that the open texture and impossibility of eliminating police discretion at both an operational level and an institutional level makes the law an instrument that is too blunt to provide effective control of police decision-making. These shortcomings indicate the need to develop operational guidelines that include guidelines that are premised on legal jurisprudence, in order to enhance police officer decision-making and problem solving.

4.3.2.1.3 Lack of accountability for decisions taken by crime prevention police officers

Participants felt that they were not familiar with taking decisions for which they, as individuals, would have to account for. As a result of this practice, they sometimes are compelled to take decisions, which would eventually be in conflict with police organizational policies. They regarded police training as leaning too heavily towards training officers on collective accounting mentality, instead of an individual accounting culture. One participant highlighted this problem by saying:

> You see, eh Mr…I am of the view that police training taught us to think and decide as a team. Now, you go to practice and apply that. They find you guilty of negligence. You are not taught to think as an individual, but we think in group form.

In line with these perceptions, Slovak (in Cancino, 2001:145) observes that unfamiliarity with decision-making at an individual police officer level is attributable to the size of a police department. He found that in large police departments, supervisors did not provide police officers with adequate guidance. This lack of supervision and guidance subsequently leads to a wide range of discretion, which in turn, does not provide sufficient boundaries of actions and decisions for which officers can personally account for. However, Chatterton (in Cancino, 2001:146) attributes the lack of accountability for decisions taken, to uncertainty and a lack of knowledge regarding the departmental mission, vision, and goals of the police organization. He postulates that when officers become uncertain about their decisions that are supposed to emanate from institutional direction, they end up taking decisions, which they cannot account for. In contrast to these views, studies conducted by Cancino (2001:154) showed that police officers learn accountable decision-making in the situational context. They learn it from their peers 89% of the time, rather than on Police Academy training, which accounts for only 3% of the decisions made in the field.

In line with the perceptions of these police officers, the above studies indicate that accountable individual decision-making by police officers is learnt from the Police Academy as a point of departure. It is then reinforced and restructured by means of socialization and internalization in the situational context from peers. This imply that since accountable policing training is neither part of the police basic training nor practice in South Africa, these officers are correct in observing that they are unfamiliar with accountable decision-making and that these decisions consequently conflict with police organizational policies. Further more three observations can be deduced from the Gauteng perceptions in conjunction with these studies. Firstly, individual

accountability is hampered by poor supervision and guidance at an individual level. Secondly, poor coaching and mentoring skills of junior officers also affect and obstruct accountable decision-making. Thirdly, uncertainty and a lack of knowledge regarding police departmental mission, vision and goals are also perceived to obstruct the practice of accountable policing.

4.3.2.2   Poor crime prevention management leadership style and culture

Two-thirds of the participants raised their concern over their own management at local police station level. They were of the view that local police station management was obstructing both the practice and a culture of accountable policing. They identified eight factors that they regarded as obstacles that were hindering the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the local police station level.

These obstacles are first, a lack of support to officers during difficult times. Second, management's creation and insistence on inappropriate criteria to measure crime prevention efficiency. Third, their manager's/ commander's style is criticized for being inappropriate and perceived as an obstacle. Fourth, the current performance management system is obstructive to police accountability. Fifth, a lack of participative management within the current crime prevention police practices. Sixth, a lack of retraining and reorientation within the current police management and leadership. Seventh, poor reflection on current management and leadership. Eighth, a lack of acknowledgement, appreciation, and praise from police station and unit management.

4.3.2.2.1   Lack of support for officers during difficult times

Participants indicated that their whole line of command structure does not provide adequate support to members during difficult times. They stated that the practice at the police stations always has been that they only belong to the "police family" in as long as their line performance is still not questionable. In the event that their individual behaviour has been put under scrutiny for a particular action, management always insisted that such behaviour must be given further investigation. At that very moment, they are required to give account under the due process of law. Once that happens, management always decides that they must be suspended without pay or with pay if they are fortunate. Once they have been suspended and regarded as officers with questionable behaviour, that "label" transfers them out of the police family. That very conduct of transferring them out of the police family also automatically deems them as unfit police officers. They are in effect found "guilty" without trial and a due process that is established by the

Constitution. One officer made a cynical observation about this practice to demonstrate how a lack of support impacts on them:

> You see, eh…like when you shoot and the ICD has to investigate you, they just leave you alone, and no one will bother to care and offer human support.

Another officer added in the following:

> You go out to search for the car and the criminal is heavily armed and forces you to use your firearm, they do not care what the circumstances were as they still default (discipline) you.

Nel (1999:34) found that police management not only lacks understanding and sensitivity with regard to the trauma and crisis experienced by members in their line of duty when they are required to take decisions at the spur of the moment. They also lack the skills to manage these crisis situations. He concludes that the lack of support for members in such crisis situations, inexperience and limited understanding by management, of the importance of debriefing, as well as their neglect to routinely refer members who have been exposed to trauma, to relevant support structures, serve only to allow the debilitating effects of trauma to persist.

On the basis of these views (by the participating officers and findings by Nel (1999:34-35) it can be concluded that the attitude by police management not only has a debilitating effect on members, but it exacerbates the poor development of police officers as managers and leaders of the future. It can also be concluded that SAPS management is poorly skilled and equipped in dealing with crisis situations. This results in members developing their own mechanisms of coping with these crisis situations. Such coping mechanisms include what Nel (1999:35) refer to as the SAPS macho-culture. However, the police macho-culture coping mechanism is limited in its goals of providing alternative means of coping with crisis situations. The macho-culture fails to alleviate the problems associated with over-exposure of members to crisis situations. In this regard, it is clear that the development of an appropriate collegial support system is necessary to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of policing accountability.

4.3.2.2.2　Management's creation and insistence on inappropriate criteria to measure the efficiency of police crime prevention operations

Participants opined that the ideal way to measure the effectiveness and efficiency of their service as crime prevention police units and police officers should be based on the lack of crimes committed (crimelessness). They criticized the existing measure of police efficiency and effectiveness. According to them, the current measure is based on reactive crime prevention

techniques. It is also solely indicated by the number of arrests they effect in their line of duty. This measure must be changed towards a measure based on the lack of crimes committed, an effective interaction between police officers and their beats, and cementing police officers towards their communities. One officer offered the following comment regarding the true test of crime prevention effectiveness and efficiency in police operations:

> You see that's why you don't have to feel bad that you did not make any arrests in your area because that means that you are doing your job properly. So if there is no crime committed in your area that means only one thing, and that thing is that you are doing your job properly.

Conser and Russel (2000:273) concur with these police officers. They assert that whether police officers or their management perceive crime prevention as their primary role or not is immaterial as citizens that they serve, do. They trace this proactive police role to 1829 in England where the pioneer of professional policing, Sir Robert Peel, stated unambiguously that it should be understood at the outset that the object to be attained by police officers is "the prevention of crime". The Peelian principles also prescribed the standard of preventing crime. These standards included phrases like "vigilance and activity that renders it impossible for offenders to commit crimes in the areas of their charge". This standard requires police officers to be committed to their job, serve and reside in the area where they are assigned, have extensive knowledge of the persons residing in their assigned area, and be held accountable for the crimes committed in their districts or areas (Conser & Russel, 2000:273).

On the basis of the inconsistencies in what crime prevention must achieve and the current police effectiveness evaluation system, it appears that there exists a vast inconsistency between the current police evaluation criteria and the ideal police effectiveness evaluation system. This inconsistency is evident in views expressed by Conser and Russel (2000:74). Thus, it can be concluded that historically crime prevention has always been the core business of policing. In South Africa this historical view is entrenched in the Constitution. Therefore, the police business is to prevent crime through pro-active measures. Furthermore, citizens perceive officers as being in business of preventing crimes from taking place, by eliminating predisposing and precipitating factors. This therefore identifies the need for the Gauteng police management to develop a crime prevention-orientated measure of the effectiveness and efficiency of crime prevention units and its police officers.

4.3.2.2.3 Inappropriate police manager's/commander's management and leadership style

Research participants felt that police operations are not optimally directed at preventing crimes. This attitude causes line management to place most of their members on supportive functions, like human resources. Participants proposed the opposite view of the current practice. They proposed that for a truly effective police service, the aim should be to focus on crime prevention operations and units, above all other support function units. One participant demonstrated this poor management practice when resourcing the crime prevention units by saying:

> I have to be truthful although funny because crime prevention is the lowest number concerning manpower (coughing). It is like the whole police or government forgets that as you have said, eh… my friend here that crime prevention must be measured by no crime at all.

Moore and Braga (2003:439) postulates that police performance management systems based on traditional performance indicators, such as arrests and response times, inhibits the implementation of accountable policing practices. At a strategic level, these traditional performance management systems prevent police organizations from moving towards a strategy of community problem solving in two ways. First, police organizations are prevented from providing external police accountability. This is because under such circumstances, there is no way to hold police departments externally accountable for addressing community problems. Second, there is no way to hold individual police officers internally accountable for engaging in community problem-solving activities.

The above indicates a great need for a proper measure of the effectiveness and efficiency of crime prevention outside the parameters of the current reactive policing mechanisms and strategy. Furthermore, the need for a crime prevention-based performance management system within the police practices of Gauteng Province is evident. This system should be directed at marrying both the elimination of factors that induces people to commit crimes (predisposing factors) and the situational factors that promotes the commission of the crime (precipitating factors).

4.3.2.2.4 Inappropriate performance management system

Participants felt that the current police performance management system in place is obstructive to police and policing accountability. This is because the current system promotes a reactive policing approach. It does this at the expense of the required pro-active policing system. This is done by the demand placed on officers to effect arrests to be regarded as effective, which is not

linked to or in line with the police vision and mission. In supporting the view that the current performance system was inappropriate, one police officer said:

> But there's a problem now, because our commanders when assessing us for promotions, according to them it is the number of arrests you make. We are moving up and down trying to prevent crime but when they approach you the quality of your job is the number of people you have arrested. It is as if it is their tradition now to ask you how many arrests?

Moore and Braga (2003:443) are of the opinion that police managers are confused and ill-informed about performance measurement within the public policing domain, in two ways. First, they get confused about performance measurement that will satisfy public account. For example, public expectations do not only include how the police will do their work but extends to public pressure as to what results the police should accomplish. Second, public policing performance measurement, for internal management purposes, has been debated for a long time. As a result, three different opinions were developed from this debate. These opinions are the ones that are causing police manager's confusion. The first group echoed sentiments favouring and demanding a performance management system that focuses on the ultimate results of policing (outcome-based performance management). The second group supported and demanded a police performance management system that focuses on police efforts to produce reduced crime rate and enhanced public security (activity or output-based performance management system). The last group held the favoured and supported performance management system. This system focuses on the investment made in the police (organizational development activity or input-based performance management system) as a public organization and institution.

Moreover, Moore and Braga (2003:439) postulate that police performance management systems based on traditional performance indicators, such as arrests and response times, inhibits the implementation of accountable policing practices. These traditional performance management systems prevent police organizations from moving towards a strategy of community problem-solving in two ways. First, police organizations are prevented as there is no way to hold police departments externally accountable for addressing community concerns. Second, there is also no way to hold individual police officers internally accountable for engaging in community problem-solving activities.

It can be concluded that a gap exists currently in the management of police performance. This performance management takes place at two levels, namely at an external level and at an internal level. External poor performance management exists that is directed at measuring

whether police organizations succeed in solving community problems by addressing community concerns and problems. One can refer to this as an external accountability of the police departments. Internally, poor police performance management exists. This is because the current performance management fails to hold individual police officers accountable for engaging and implementing community problem-solving activities. A great need, for the development of a crime-combating performance management system for Gauteng Province, and for South Africa in particular, is highlighted by this. Such a system will have to substitute the current inadequate police performance management system as postulated by the participants and evident in the current police practice.

4.3.2.2.5 Lack of participative management within the current crime prevention police practices

Participants perceived their commanders and the local police management as being unwilling to let them participate in decision-making, and become lower-level decision-makers. This unwillingness has a causative effect on them. They find themselves becoming less empowered to make accountable decisions that holds the various tests and scrutinizes within their operational daily police practices.

Furthermore, participants felt that there was a lack of an open-door policy for members to consult with their commanders freely about police field problems and to make proposals on how those field problems can be addressed. They felt that police management is unwilling to utilize their knowledge, expertise, and experience. They believed that they gain this knowledge, expertise, and experience from the local public through their organic immerse to their community problems. They also gain abilities to develop problems by listening to the communities advising them on best courses of action in dealing with their problems. In demonstrating how the current lack of participative management promotes "thumb-sucked", high-level decision making by their local commanders, one participant said:

> Although we know our area very well which we are supposed to know well, but when it comes to decisions about how to bring crime down, it is our commanders who sit in their offices the whole day, that make decisions about how to bring crime down.

Kreitner and Kinicki (1992:408) assert that trust plays a significant role in participative management. In addition Van Der Waldt and Toit (1998:73) postulate that the importance accorded to the relationship of trust between management and team members gives a clear indication of the role of management. Thus, the views expressed by participants indicate a clear

top-down management approach supported by lack of empowerment, learning, and support. Successful participative management is characterized by teamwork between employees and their management, empowerment, party responsibility and role clarification, as well as performance. In this regard, studies conducted by Kim (2002:231-241) identified a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by the superiors. This indicates a great need to develop guidelines on how to enhance and promote both an open door policy and practice, and the practice of participative management within the provincial management of the Gauteng police service.

4.3.2.2.6 Lack of retraining and reorientation of police station and unit management within the current police management and leadership

Research participants felt that their current commanders, whom they regarded as originating from the old order police, had not changed their mentality to suit with the current police leadership demands. In particular, they felt that their current police management at the police stations had not been trained in community policing. This causes the current dilemma situation whereby the management style of these commanders failed to deliver on the needs and demands of both the people and operational requirements. Their leadership style caused the failure of police stations to deliver on the policing needs of the various communities.

Participants identified a need for these commanders to retrain and re-orientate themselves with all the current trends on modern police management and leadership. This was believed to enable these commanders to deliver on the visionary requirements of the police stations as set by the national policing policy. In demonstrating how this retraining and re-orientation was vital, one participant explained how community policing training could enable these commanders to shape up their leadership and management style. He made the following crucial statement:

> My interaction sir with the public taught me a lot of which I think the commanders need to be taken to these community policing training programmes. There, they will be taught that the actual thing for crime prevention is to empty the cells and not fill them with criminals.

Moore and Braga (2003:440) opine that the reforms of the progressive (Trias Politica, for more information see Chapter 2) era made the police independent by separating them from political influence. What this era actually did is that it made police chiefs profoundly dependent on the support of their own troops. These scholars warn that police chiefs should stop championing both their own causes and those of their troops, against those of the public. The behaviour of championing these two causes against those of the public results in police values conflicting with

those of the public at large. They advised that in such a case, police chiefs should insist by both guidance and leading by example that public values must be advanced through police operations. These chiefs should accept that the public demand is a legitimate one.

The implication that can be drawn from the above is that it calls for the advancement of public values and norms. However, police managers and executives should always be careful that these calls do not exceed the public delegated mandate. To do so, they have to balance the interest of the public and that of the police officials they are leading. These police commanders and executives must always guard against managers that lags behind the current police trends identified by line officers and in line with public values and norms. This indicates that there is a great need to retrain and re-orientate both the members and their commanders about new police tactics and strategies as applied comparatively within other advanced democracies.

4.3.2.2.7 Perceptions of poor reflection on current management and leadership

Participants opined that their station management leadership style and culture does not cultivate, enhance, promote, rear, and nurture good police management and leadership style and culture. Participants demonstrated this perceived poor station management leadership style by means of an analogy between the rearing practices of children by their parents and how this reflects on the family culture at the end. They stated that they, as police officers, reflect the kind of "upbringing" they received from their own management. This type of upbringing is characterized by threats and lacks empowerment. Such practice results to the police organization becoming one of the organizations where communication takes place through orders and informal communication lines (grapevines). Participants viewed their lack of both skills and creativity as emanating from the pressure of the upper management echelons. A participant highlighted this practice by means of an analogy, by saying:

> I do want to raise a point here, and that point is that attitude reflects leadership, when I have an attitude against my community it is because my management gives me stress, and my stress is released on my community. When we see our community as enemies it is because we are regarded as such by our own station management.

Govender (2001:146) attribute the cause of leadership failure to the failure of (station) management and leadership. He opines that the over-reliance of these managers and commanders on power, fails them in that they end up leading their police station teams and members on the basis of coercive power and authority. This result in police officers and station

teams reacting to this power out of fear for the negative ramifications associated with non-compliance. He believes that over-reliance on positional and coercive power fails (station) managers and leaders in that the key central leadership activities are not demonstrated by these managers and leaders. The central leadership activities are identified to be expressing organizational values, using symbols, developing and preaching the (police) vision, and caring. Over-reliance on positional powers causes the situation whereby these central activities are neutralized and leadership and management of the police station are swayed away from these activities.

It appears that the biggest challenge between satisfying station teams and providing good leadership lies on focusing in what managers and leaders do. Comparing the activities of relatively successful police organizations, for example, the United States' New York Police department and the British Metropolitan Police, can meet this challenge. In this way, lessons learnt in these organizations from leading successful police station/precinct teams and good leadership can achieve the goal of the police organization.

4.3.2.2.8 Lack of acknowledgement, appreciation, and praise for excellent performance by police station management

Participants were of the opinion that their station management does not treat them as clients requiring service every time when they approach them. They opined that they, as line police officers, give so much on or off duty. They often risk their lives and expect someone to show some appreciation for what they do. They conceded that Gauteng is a huge Province, and as a result, they do not always expect to receive feedback from their community all the time about their good performance. However, positive community response for their good work was said to be forthcoming most of the times. They cited examples of such community feedback to include word of thanks from crime victims. In contrast to this community response, they found that their commanders di not praise them in many instances. They do not receive praise from their own managers for their good work. They expected their commanders who receive feedback every day from their communities about good police performance, just to say "thank you'" in person. One participant highlighted the importance of praise by police station commanders, mainly shift commanders, by giving an example of how that praise might be structured:

> When I talk about positive minds of those powers that be I expect at the end of the shift for them to say guys thank you. Please know that so and so was gunned down and I wish to pass my condolences to all of you who worked with him everyday. I will do so for his family as well.

According to Govender (2001:146) and Makgatho (2001:242) poor feedback and communication between team members of the police stations and their management is attributable to both poor management leadership and a lack of empowerment. They assert that good managers, commanders, and leaders care about their people, organization, clients, products, and services. Caring about station team and police officers implies recognition by colleagues, managers, and commanders. It is also about valuing through participation in organizational processes, policing styles, and traditions that are centered upon involvement.

It appears that management and leadership that are centered upon empowerment should solve the current perceived poor recognition problems in the police stations. This is because managers and commanders will know what they do and should do; they will perform their managerial leadership activities and tasks, and will use their leadership skills to influence their subordinates on what they should do and how to function effectively.

4.3.2.3   A lack of vision within the crime prevention police practices

Two-thirds of the participants were of the opinion that their local police station management was obstructing the practice and a culture of accountable policing. They do this by failing to demonstrate an ability to lead the police service with a good vision. Participants identified three obstacles that contribute to this state of affairs. These obstacles are firstly, the inhibiting effect of the 24-hour police accountability culture. Secondly, a lack of a pro-active crime prevention orientation. Thirdly, a lack of visionary leadership by police station management.

4.3.2.3.1   The inhibiting effect of the 24-hour police accountability culture

Research participants indicated that the general public perception, namely that they are on duty 24-hours a day, sometimes poses a problem. This perception fails to consider their humanity and their private lives as human beings. They often find themselves having to share and trade a little bit of their private spare time with their work time. This "trade-off" is sometimes impossible to achieve as both work and spare time demands overwhelms them. One participant summarized this perception in a questioning way by asking:

> What I mean to ask here is that as a police officer, you are 24-hours on duty, right? When do you have your life as a person, then?

Dixon (1999:244) concedes that a public perception exists that regards police officers as being accountable for public safety and security service on a 24-hour basis. He however does not agree that such a perception is in conflict with the need for private lives of police officers. He provides a mechanism in which these police officers will not necessarily be required to spend all

their time at work. He asserts that the new policing style, designed for ushering professional policing to both the 21st and the 22nd centuries, called sector policing will relieve them of their fears. This is because sector-based policing provides a better vehicle for achieving accountability of police officers on a 24-hour basis. In this style of policing, sector police officers provide high visibility policing (omnipresence) while their sector inspectors ensure the continuity of this policing approach by ironing out inconsistencies in police response. In this way, police officers will be able to share the policing burden without being required to share more working hours. Local shift commanders provide leadership by devolving shift management powers to the sector inspectors.

It does not appear that the outcry by the participating police officers is about the negative impact of the 24-hour accountability. It appears that it is about the responsibility to share 24-hours into a manageable shift to ensure that the shift periods are kept intact, that officers are relieved in order to ensure that they are not overworked. This is a leadership problem that does not relate to the public perception of the police being available to service them on a 24-hour basis.

4.3.2.3.2   Lack of a pro-active crime prevention orientation

Participants were of the opinion that the current orientations of the current crime prevention operations are not pro-active. In order to demonstrate this dilemma, participants supported the view that members are currently being evaluated on the basis of reactive measures rather than pro-active measures. A participant supported another who held a view that reactive thinking is dominating the current police practices and operations. It also lacked pro-active orientation by saying. The respondent said:

> Yes, as a crime prevention police officer you are not only there on the street patrolling to provide magical answers. You are not there to deal with a shooting. You are patrolling on the streets in order to prevent the shooting from taking place and to seek answers from the community about its problems.

Conser and Russel (2000:273) insist that police officers have been overwhelmed with reactive performance management mentality, through the traditional police performance measurement system. They however emphasize the importance of a crime prevention performance-based system within the current police practices. According to them, whether crime prevention police officers or their management regard crime prevention as their primary role or not is immaterial as citizens that they serve, do.

It seems that statistical performance management orientation based on arrests cause police station management to sway away from the core business of the police. Furthermore, various communities' needs have an eventual result of insisting on these measures. This causes the police orientation to sway away from pro-active orientation for the popular arrests-based performance system that is reactive-orientated. Naude and Stevens (1988:52-53) believe that an effective crime prevention programme must be premised at three levels. These are the community, police officers themselves, and the crime prevention strategy. It must ensure that the three aspects are incorporated into the vision of the crime prevention programme. These three beneficiaries must also be developed in thinking and doing in such a way that they do not overwhelm each other with inappropriate policing styles and ideas. Developing an effective local crime prevention strategy will achieve this goal.

4.3.2.3.3   Lack of visionary leadership within crime prevention police practices

Participants stated that a perception that police station management sometimes do not understand or fail to comprehend the nature and dynamics of crime prevention operations exists. Participants were of the opinion that their local police station managers fail to indicate to them where the policing standard is and where it should be in the future. This is a clear sign of a lack of visionary leadership by management and the entire line of command.

Furthermore, participants opined that police resources are allocated inappropriately. Their allocation does not fully support the modernized policing operations and the strategy to combat crime. One participant highlighted this problem by saying:

> Our commanders do not seem to know where we are going at the moment. They also seem to forget where we come from. They do not give us a chance to say a good way forward.

Van Der Waldt and Du Toit (1998:398) assert that to be recognized and accepted as legitimate, it is vital for public managers (and police commanders in particular) to have a clear vision. It is equally important for them to utilize that vision in the formulation and leading of the transformation of the public institution. According to them, it is vitally important that everyone in the police hierarchy and the chain of command must share this vision.

It seems that a gap exists between what has been achieved, what must be achieved and specifically, how this must be achieved within the crime prevention operations of the Gauteng

Province. This is demonstrated by the perceived lack of direction highlighted by participants above.

4.3.2.4   Poor institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices

Two-thirds of the participants indicated that both members and their local police station management were obstructing the coherence of the accountability of the police institution and its structural chain of command. In turn, this practice hinders practice and a culture of accountable policing. Respondents identified two obstacles that contribute to this state of affairs, namely a lack of respect for management and the line of command, and a lack of respect by members themselves.

4.3.2.4.1   Lack of respect for management and the line/chain of command

Participants felt that members sometimes fail to show respect for their superiors. They cited that commanders usually demand respect, which causes them to loose that respect. In contrast, they felt that respect should be something that is earned. Commanders had to earn it, and not demand it. This demand for respect results in a situation whereby, when crime prevention officers show their commanders respect, it is not given voluntarily. Rather, it is because the militaristic means of communication within the police service compels them to do so. It is also because failure to show respect for a senior police officer results in negative ramifications. These negative ramifications include, although not limited to dismissal, demotion, suspension, and pay-cuts. In emphasizing this respect dilemma, one officer categorically stated the reason for showing this respect by saying:

> We dot not respect them, we salute them not because they deserve to be saluted. We do this in order to protect ourselves and not to be disciplined.

Haarr (1997:789) classifies the behaviour resulting into the lack of respect for the line of command as "individual deviance". He believes that such behaviour is endemic in police organizations. Punch (in Haarr, 1997:788) identified four types of such behaviour, namely work avoidance and manipulation, employee deviance against the organization, employee deviance for the organization, and informal rewards. Such behaviour starts with employees deviating in favour of the police organization. This involves individual police officers achieving organizational ends and goals through deviant conduct. Thereafter, this deviance is reinforced when senior officers and colleagues, award structural support to that behaviour and later define it as normative, non-deviant and acceptable police practice (Manning in Haarr, 1997:788).

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It would appear that the lack of respect for senior police officers by their junior counterparts is something that requires both managerial and leadership interventions. It also requires a reconsideration of the communication styles within the whole provincial police practices. It can be deduced that such deviant behaviour requires immediate attendance and redress. Failure to do this might exacerbate the current situation and result in disrespect to institutional norms, values, policies, customs, and culture. This can result in total deviant individual police officer behaviour.

4.3.2.4.2   Lack of respect by members themselves

Participants indicated that junior police officers and similar senior ranking officers do not have respect for themselves as officers of the law. Because of this, it is very difficult for them to respect their line of command and other people. Participants emphasized that police officers have to start respecting themselves first, before they can begin to respect other people like the public and their line of command. A respondent said in this regard:

> We need to change ourselves to be respected. It is something we do not have now. Crime prevention officers cannot demand respect from others if they do not respect themselves.

Porter, Steers, Mowday, Boulian (1974:604) attributes the lack of individual police officer respect on themselves, the line of command, and the public in general as a type of behaviour resulting from a lack of individual commitment to the (police) organization. This type of behaviour is associated with and characterized by a strong disbelief in, and a lack of acceptance of the (police) organizational goals and values, unwillingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the (police) organization, and a lack of a desire to maintain membership in the (police) organization.

Accordingly, such an individual can become cynical and apathetic to the police organization, as an institution. Such police officers have reached a stage where they have become a burden and toxic to the police organization. Police psychologists and criminologists (Leonard, 1980, More, 1976, and Sherman, 1974) refer to this type of behaviour as cynicism. They classify this cynicism as resigned cynicism. They postulate that at this level of cynic behaviour, the individual police officer requires counseling. Under extreme cases, an inquiry into his suitability to remain in the police organization is deemed necessary. This is necessitated by such a person having become toxic and counterproductive for the police organization.

4.3.2.5   Poor crime prevention strategies and operations

Two-thirds of the participants were of the opinion that the crime prevention strategy and operations were both ineffective and lacked the standards of efficacy. They indicated that they were being hampered by two obstacles, which in turn, hindered the practice and a culture of accountable policing. These two obstacles are, a lack of problem-solving skills, and the shortcomings prevalent in the current logistical support system. This in turn, obstructs the performance of both the crime prevention police officers and the overall crime prevention units in achieving their institutional goals and objectives.

4.3.2.5.1   Lack of problem-solving skills

Participants were of the opinion that 90% of the public calls for police service do not necessarily require total law enforcement and the consequent arrests. The nature of those calls involves a misunderstanding or even conflict among members of the public. Due to the fact that police officers have been trained to enforce the law, they often forget that they are there to eliminate the misunderstanding and to manage it creatively. Police officers view their role in such cases as being limited to their unfettered coercive force. However, participants believe that the culture of totally and strictly enforcing the law sometimes precipitate serious crimes or even have fatal consequences.

Participants demonstrated this ill-fettered police discretion by means of the notorious Riot Squad of the old regime. In making that reference, participants opined that those police officers from that police unit were not trained in pro-active crowd management. Those police officers strictly regarded their role as being limited to the application of coercive force. One participating crime prevention police officer proposed the need for low visibility policing strategies and problem-solving skills within the police practices by saying:

> If you attend to a complaint you must not only arrest somebody as a manner of proving the eternity and nature of the law but you are most often required to render advisory services.

Goldstein (1990:35) agrees that the police role in public calls always require low visibility policing and problem-solving skills. He maintains that the core business of the police is to handle and solve community problems as these problems may or may not stem from criminal behaviour. This therefore means that their resolution may or may not involve law enforcement and the invocation of the criminal process. Clarke (1997:32) illustrates how beat level non-crime problems can be solved without invoking the criminal process. In doing this, he refers to a situation where a police officer is called to a scene. On arrival at the scene, the officer persuades

the family of a confused old man on measures to be taken in future in order to prevent repeated calls for police assistance.

There seems to be a lack of consensus about the role of a crime prevention officer responding to community calls for police service. There are various views being held about the role of such an officer. One view holds that a police officer must enforce the law to its letter. Another view is that a police officer's role is confined to problem solving. The officer must use long-term-based problem-solving approaches that rarely call for the invocation of the criminal process. It can be concluded that institutional guidelines should be developed to help police officers understand their roles in such situations.

4.3.2.5.2 Shortcomings prevalent in the current logistical support system

Research participants were critical of the SA Police Service's logistical support/supply chain management system. They opined that this system was inadequate and outdated in providing support in the current and future modern crime prevention operations. They were of the view that the current system needs to be repositioned to service the crime prevention unit and police stations, as a support service. Participants indicated that it must be positioned in such a way that it is directed at supporting police operations in dealing with modern criminal activities. One participant highlighted this need by saying:

> You see sir, criminals use sophisticated methods and are too fast for the police. How do you chase a seven series BMW with your 1300 Sedan? How do you say to that? Good bye BMW and I will call response services who will arrive after the chased BMW has vanished?

Walsh (2001:354) criticizes the practice of inflexibility within the logistical support systems. According to his view, logistical support systems of most police agencies were still based on the traditional policing philosophy. He argued that the modern support systems should be positioned in such a way that operational commanders are empowered and able to make use of a wide array of resources to achieve their goals as dictated by operational requirements. This implies that the systems of support, including logistical support, should be positioned in such a way that they can be shifted from one commander to another as tactical needs and requirements dictate.

It is therefore imperative to develop policy guidelines to help operational commanders to understand how they can position their operational resources in such a way that they can be shifted from one need to another situation.

4.3.2.6   The negative effect of the policing environment

Two-thirds of the participants were of the opinion that the operating police environment has a negative effect and impact on the police goals and objectives. They identified two obstacles that cause the police environment to have a negative effect on the police organization, and consequently obstructing the practice and a culture of accountable policing. These obstacles are the influence of the "turbulent" policing environment, and the irresponsible and uncaring community under which the police operates.

4.3.2.6.1   The influence of the "turbulent" policing environment

Participants voiced their concern over the demands often exerted by their local police station management. According to them, their commanders and the overall chain of command at the police stations were expecting too much of them. Management was failing to take into account that the policing environment of Gauteng Province was turbulent and volatile. Participants indicated their willingness to work overtime without pay, provided their work was acknowledged and appreciated by management. One participant commented as follows in this respect:

> They expect us to arrest as much as is possible per week. In order to do that you use your own informers and maybe the crime is a serious one. You come to work you have nothing told about how good you worked. Outside, you have nothing to offer to your informer. That's why there is no relationship between the police and the community and the one existing is still half.

London and Larsen (1999:11) posit that the type of supervision experienced by employees does impact on both the job satisfaction and commitment. They argue in particular, that employees' job satisfaction is enhanced when superiors provide a supportive environment where they are encouraged to interact and speak out about workplace issues. In the same light, Emmert and Taher (1992:40) add that employees' job satisfaction and commitment are higher when there is a positive feedback environment both vertically between superiors and employees and horizontally between employees (police officers) themselves. According to Kim (2002:236) a positive relationship exists between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by superiors.

Therefore, police station management, at all levels, is required to develop a "commitment culture". Such a culture can only be nurtured by the provision of a managerial support environment for police officers. This environment must be characterized by a high degree of feedback between management and operational police officers, and among officers themselves.

It is believed that such a culture must be embedded in a new managerial philosophy based upon participative management.

4.3.2.6.2   Irresponsible and uncaring community

Participating police officers emphasized that currently, the communities in the province were failing to take responsibility for rooting out crime. The participants regarded the communities as the ones that both creates and implements crime and criminality. For that reason, it was imperative for these to shoulder the responsibility for rooting out crime and criminality. Respondents identified a need for a provincial strategy to close the gap that exists between the community and the police, thereby re-integrating the police officers back in their respective communities. Re-integrating policing back to the communities will ensure that police officers become representative agents of the community in combating crime. Two participants respectively commented as follows in this regard:

> You see a policeman can shoot a member of the public and the public will cry high but if one of them shoots an officer of the law, they do not cry, why?

The other participant added:

> The national, provincial, area or even the stations, you see, they need to come up with a strategy to put us back to our community. Right now the community has left us and we are fatherless and yet they are supposed to become our fathers.

Robinson and Chandek (2000:282) believe that the role of the community in rooting out crime and criminality is crucial. They believe that this philosophy can be achieved through the total practice of both community, and sector policing styles. In this respect, there is a need to redefine the role of community policing in rooting out crime and eliminating the barriers placed on the social capital. Here, the concept of social capital is defined to be the core of the interaction between the police and the community. Pino (2001:200) describes the role of community policing in realizing that the social capital becomes helpful in measuring the effectiveness in the implementation of community policing. Social capital becomes central to community-oriented policing issues such as trust and genuine dialogue between different groups, the ability to collectively tap into various resources, and the ability of individuals to work together to solve various community problems.

In light of these views, by both the participants and the various researchers (Manning, 1984; Pino, 2001; Robinson & Chandek, 2000; Skolnick & Bayley, 1986), it is evident that closing the gap between the communities, the police organization, and its police officers will minimize the crime levels drastically. This will result in the type of required effective and sustained relationship

being created. The unknown and unexplored social capital can be tapped into effectively. By doing this, the social ideal of a safe and secure province will be created.

4.3.3 STRATEGIES PROPOSED TO ENHANCE AND PROMOTE POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY WITHIN THE GAUTENG POLICE PRACTICES

In order to minimize the obstacles that hinder the implementation of accountable policing practices as indicated above, participants were requested to propose strategies to promote and enhance a culture of accountable policing within their daily practices. From their responses, six strategies could be identified.

These strategies are:
- A creative problem solving and decision-making culture within crime prevention.
- A proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture.
- A shared vision within crime prevention.
- Promoting a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices.
- Efficient crime prevention operations.
- Managing the effects of the policing environment.

4.3.3.1 A creative problem-solving and decision-making culture within crime prevention

Two-thirds of the participants proposed four strategies that they deemed necessary in improving their decision-making and problem-solving skills. These strategies are:
- Developing and implementing an accountable decision-making culture.
- Ability to account for actions and decisions as well as a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability.
- Imparting "fast and sharp" thinking skills to police officers.
- Training crime prevention police officers in problem solving.

4.3.3.1.1 Developing and implementing an accountable decision-making culture

Participants emphasized that it was necessary to inculcate a new culture based upon accountable decision-making. This cultural inculcation must be filtered throughout the whole police organization, and into all the levels of the police hierarchy. Such inculcation needs to be paralleled with continuous education about how their actions and decisions should promote the

lives of the people in the province. They suggested that it was essential to educate police officials about how much damage results from failure to take accountable decisions. They also viewed this cultural inculcation as a vehicle of bringing together into a coherent unity the police service and the communities. They considered it crucial for the relationship between the police as an organization and the communities being served to be enhanced at all times.

This cultural embedment and filtering will bring home an understanding to all the police officers of how much public scrutiny is inherent in their daily lives as officers of the law. One participating officer pointed to the outcomes of an improper and unaccountable decision-making culture. He said:

> Your one mistaken action might result in the loss of human life or even the loss of your own professional career. Even the National Commissioner might resign or be forced by the communities to quit.

Cancino (2001:154) pointed out that police officers learn accountable decision-making from their peers in the situational context 89% of the time. Only 3% of that learning takes place through the Police Academy training. This means that in order for police decision-making to be improved upon within crime prevention, field-based decision-making skills have to be imparted to each functional police officer. Police officers must be assessed on the basis of their ability to solve field problems with real life skills scenarios.

However, it is not only the decision-making skills of line police officers that are lacking, police commanders' decision-making skills are also minimal or even non-existent. In order to improve the decision-making skills of police commanders/managers, a five-point decision-making improvement programme is proposed. According to this programme, police commanders/managers must do the following in order to improve their decision-making skills:
- analyze the situation,
- become aware of biases,
- combine rationale analysis with intuition,
- abstain from assuming that their specific decision-making style/s are appropriate for every job, and
- use creativity-stimulation techniques (Robbins, 1998:121).

This indicates that accountable individual decision-making by officers should be taught and learnt at the Police Academy as a point of departure. It must then be reinforced through

socialization and continuous learning at the various levels of induction of police officers within the police organization. This should be monitored by means of supervisory structures and peer review mechanisms. The various studies dealing with individual decision-making (Cancino, 2001; Manning, 1999; Slovak, 1986) suggest three levels in which this continuous induction must take place. Firstly, decision-making must take place at an individual level through guidance and supervision. Supervisors, coaches, and mentors must continuously provide adequate guidance to police officers. This will assists in limiting and guiding the wide range of individual discretion, thereby creating boundaries for individual officer behaviour, decisions, and actions. Secondly, it must take place at organizational level, by means of sharing knowledge between police officers about the mission, vision, strategy, and objectives of their police station, area, province, and that of the national police head office. A system of sharing knowledge between police officers must be reinforced through coaching, mentoring, as well as direct-, and indirect control mechanisms. This will ensure uniform police behaviour, decision-making, and line of thinking. Thirdly, it must take place at a social level, by means of the various societal structures. These structures must monitor police behaviour and evaluate police performance on a continuous basis. This will ensure that police officers and their departments act in a uniform way, do not pursue goals and objectives that oppose social norms and values, and that police officers continue to offer superior police performance.

4.3.3.1.2 Ability to account for actions and decisions as well as a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability

The participating police officers described this ability as referring to the level of the individual decision-making that has to be accounted for. They indicated that this responsibility, to discharge an account, is not only restricted to the simple furnishing of an explanation. It requires that the actions of police officers must meet the criteria of equitability, reasonability, and measurability. This should be monitored through the reasonable man test. This test is currently the most known and applied criteria within the legal fraternity. According to the participants, skills training and on-going refresher training must be undertaken from time-to-time to ensure that they fulfill the three operational requirements mentioned above. One participant demonstrated the mental and attitude imperative of this ability by police officers as follows:

> You see Mr, this ability is not only taking responsibility for your actions but also involve a positive mind and attitude as well as anticipating positive results. You must sleep and dream it. It becomes part of you.

According to the Matlou v Makhubela 1978 (1) SA 946 (A) decision, Chief Justice Rumpff ruled that the proportionality of police behaviour requires that there must be some form of relationship

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between the degree of the force used by the crime prevention police officer and the seriousness of the offence committed. The application of this principle suggests that crime prevention officers must be able to account for actions and decisions through a culture of equitableness, measurability, and reasonability. Crime prevention officers must do this by means of fulfilling three legal requirements. These requirements are:

- The amount and method of discretion and means that is used must be in a proportional balance to the goal and objective to be achieved through the police action. The means must be of such a minimal nature that it would be reasonably effective and feasible in the circumstances prevailing.

- It includes the weighing up of the nature and seriousness of the specific cause or act performed (by the offending party) against the amount and method of the means used by the police officer.

- The police response must both be necessary and justifiable in an open and democratic society based upon the values of freedom, democracy, and equality. This is the most important constitutional encumberment that must be discharged in every public service action in South Africa.

What this test requires is that police officers must always strike a balance between their actions and decisions and the nature of the call for police action. This implies that their actions and decisions should be commensurate with what is prevailing at the scene of the crime at the time. It also requires that police discretion should be broadened to include the element of pre-emption and creativity in decision-making and problem solving.

4.3.3.1.3 Imparting "fast and sharp" thinking skills to crime prevention police officers

Participants suggested that members must be trained to think "fast and sharp" when they take decisions. They attributed this reasoning to the cultural differences that exists among police officers. These cultural differences have an impact in their decision-making and problem solving abilities. This is because the effect of these cultural differences makes it inevitable that every police officer can react to stimuli at the same speed.

The participating police officers proposed that refresher training and other soft-skills training were important in reviving and improving their operational job requirements. They indicated that in taking a decision to use coercive force is a very brave decision and should be resorted to as a last option. Such a decision involves the possibility of the force ending being lethal in contrast to

the police's constitutional mandate of preserving human life. One participant highlighted the importance of resorting to force as a last resort by saying:

> Whatever action you take in that split second might take away a father of a family and destroy the career of an officer or even cause social service to take responsibility over a wheelchair-bound man.

Robbins (1998:105) postulates that thinking skills is a technique that can be learnt and taught both on the job and through practice. According to him, creativity is the best way to improve thinking skills. He proposes four methods to stimulate individual creativity to improve thinking skills.

These methods are:

- The *direct-instruction* method takes place by means of instructing a person/police officer to be creative. It is based on encouraging officers to seek creative options of solving problems. This leads them to seek unique and alternative solutions and increases unique solutions to problems.
- The *attribute listing* method is where the person/police officer isolates the major characteristics of traditional alternatives. Each major attribute of the alternative to a problem is considered in turn and is alternated in every conceivable way. In this exercise, no ideas are rejected, irrespective of how ridiculous they may seem. Once this extensive list is completed, the constraints of the problem are imposed in order to eliminate all but the viable alternatives.
- The *lateral thinking* (*zig-zag approach*) method stimulates creativity, the opposite approach to vertical thinking. In lateral thinking, each step in individual officer decision-making, emphasizes thinking sideways, by not developing a pattern but restructuring a pattern. Lateral thinkers do not have to be correct at every step as in some cases it may be necessary to go through a wrong path or area in order to reach a position from which a correct path may be viable and visible. Lateral thinking is also not restricted to relevant information as it deliberately uses random or irrelevant information to bring about a new way of looking at the problem.
- The *synectics approach* is a method that uses analogies and inverted rationale to make the strange familiar and the familiar strange. It operates by viewing the problem in new ways by trying to abandon the familiar ways of doing things. In this approach, crime prevention police officers must abandon the known causes of problems and seek totally unfamiliar ways that practice informs them to pursue. For example, by innovatively starting new ways of preventing crimes like educating the public about the dangers of crime.

Various researchers, (Eck & Spelman, 1987(a) & (1987(b); Goldstein, 1990; Robinson & Chandek, 2000) agree that creativity can stimulate a greater degree of decision-making within policing. To demonstrate this, they indicate that community-policing officers are encouraged to look beyond the immediate situation at hand in an attempt to discover the underlying causes of community problems (synectics approach). Thus, it appears that the participant's views would be addressed by any of the four approaches proposed by Robbins (1998:105). However, this approach should be seen to be an alternative way of doing their work and not a call for a total break away from their vision, mission, and policy. Stimulating creative problem solving should be sought at every problem an officer faces, and it should assist brainstorming about problem resolution in group sessions as well. Police officers should be placed in such a position that creative actions and decisions are enhanced through these thinking skills.

4.3.3.1.4   Training crime prevention police officers in problem-solving

Research participants were of the opinion that it would be a good and a very important strategy to train crime prevention police officers in problem-solving skills. They recommended that such training should be conducted at both the basic training and in-service training levels/phases. The basic training skills should be non-specialized. The in-service skills training should be more specialized, according to the needs of the various units. Case studies and real-life stories aimed at solving problems should guide the training in order to limit the reoccurrence of the problems. Creative problem solving, as taught at other service organizations, should be incorporated as it helps in breeding creativity and problem-solving. It also helps in promoting the longevity of decisions taken. One participant remarked as follows in this regard:

> Because of the eyes on the police you have to be seen solving a problem and its
> results should last longer otherwise they will question it.

Various approaches are proposed on how training in problem-solving should be conducted (Nel, Lieberman, Landman, & Louw, 2000; Robbins, 1998; Van Der Waldt & Du Toit, 1998). These approaches basically offer three types of training in problem solving. These are basic skills training, police-based skills training, and management-based skills training. In this regard, Robbins (1998:558-559) provides four skill categories that can be of use to people (police officers). These skills are basic, technical, interpersonal, and problem-solving. These skills training are recommended and offer the best solution when taught, offered and applied as both an on-and–off-the job-training programme. Problem-solving skills are recommended mainly for both line officers and their managers/commanders, who perform non-routine tasks and jobs as a tool to solve job-related tasks. In these training initiatives, police officers will participate in

problem-solving training that includes activities to sharpen their logic, reasoning, and problem defining skills, as well as their abilities to assess causation, develop alternatives, analyze alternatives, and select solutions.

4.3.3.2 A proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture

Two thirds of the participants were consensual that the current ill-fettered managerial leadership culture of their local police station management could be improved upon. Participants were requested to suggest how the current shortcomings in the managerial leadership style and culture could be used to promote the practice and a culture of policing accountability at the police station level. From their responses, ten- (10) strategies were identified to enhance and promote an effective police station managerial leadership style and culture.

These strategies are by:

- Implementing the police code of conduct properly.
- Developing and implementing a collegial support system.
- Empowering crime prevention personnel with new tactics, skills, and new work methods.
- Realigning police support systems with crime prevention.
- Promoting both an open door policy and participative management.
- Developing and implementing an efficient and effective crime prevention-orientated performance management system.
- Retraining and re-orientating crime prevention personnel in modern crime prevention methods and techniques.
- Emphasizing the "leading by example" (LBE) managerial leadership culture within crime prevention police practices.
- Putting in place a management leadership style and culture that serves as an example within crime prevention.
- Re-engineering the policing strategy for Gauteng Province.

4.3.3.2.1 Implementing the code of conduct properly

Participants were of the opinion that the Province and even the national police office failed and still fail to ensure a greater awareness of their accountability through service. They believed that the best route to follow in doing this is through the revision of the code of conduct. A greater need to be trained in the implementation and living the code daily in their line of work to ensure that they embrace it was also indicated. According to them, training is something that was not done initially when the police code of conduct was operationalized. Instead, they were just

required to sign the document containing the code of conduct and nothing was said to them about the implication of that document and its contents. One respondent proposed a solution to this problem. He said:

> By properly implementing the code of conduct and singing it as a song every day, will help us in dealing with complaints as well that when a guy comes you will know exactly how to help that person, how to put a suspect behind bars and you both laugh at the end because you explained and he understands that you were just doing your job you took an oath for.

The SAPS Code of Conduct as annexed in the SAPS Strategic Plan (2004-2007) commits the police in three broad areas. These areas are that they are committed in providing a safe and secure environment for all by participating in endeavours to address the root causes of crime in the community, preventing activities which may threaten the safety or security of any community, and investigating criminal conduct which has endangered the safety or security of the community and bringing the perpetrators to justice.

The concern of these police officers does not question the existence of the document but its implementation. This document does not necessarily address the officers' concern but ensures that the vision and the mission of the police organization is achieved with maximum benefit to the community of South Africa. It is suggested that the code of conduct is re-assessed on the basis of the following Policing-By-Objectives (PBO) principles, namely planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and corrective action. These principles are recommended, as they are the driving forces behind the success of all policing organizations all over the world.

In this regard, it appears that the solution to the problems identified by these officers lies with the implementation strategy of the code of conduct. Within the PBO process, implementation is emphasized as the "nuts and bolts" of the strategic plan. Thus, after compiling the code of conduct, it should have been implemented by taking certain actions agreed upon during the compilation phase, and based upon certain time frames. Successful implementation depends upon sufficient support and the availability of resources (Van der Waldt & Du Toit 1998:293). Implementation of strategy is normally and practically carried out as a four-part process, namely:

(i) Structural conversion refers to two issues, namely:
- *Institutional communication* is the process whereby the designed plan (code of conduct) is
  communicated through the entire organization from national head office to the lowest level. A
  top down management approach is recommended to do this.

- *Institutional delegation* refers to the process whereby the lower levels of the hierarchy are given both the authority and powers, and the necessary resources to implement the goals of the plan. This refers to a budget to realize the objectives of the police code of conduct.

(ii) Individualization is the second element and involves the consultation process with the policed community regarding the set goals and objectives and the concomitant adoption and assumption of ownership by the various members within the SAPS police stations/areas, and provinces.

(iii) Establishing the required performance, refers to the fact that during the consultation process, the required performance should be clearly communicated along all lines of authority. It is required that every police officer must be aware of what is expected and what his or her role should be, in the implementation of the code of conduct.

(iv) Benchmarking mainly deals with two issues. These are:
- *Attainment* deals with the issue of how the desired outcomes would be achieved and what standard would be required to attain the minimum performance or super performance.
- *Non-attainment* deals with the issue of what level would be regarded as under-performance. Performance at this level and below would then be subjected to corrective action (Botha, 1993:20-40).

Apart from these four strategic actions, participants emphasized that management should do three additional things. Firstly, management must ensure a greater awareness by crime prevention officers of the code of conduct through service and motto. Secondly, ensure that the code of conduct is updated from time-to-time. Thirdly, ensure that provisions of the code of conduct are embedded into the daily activities of the crime prevention police officers. This must be done by ensuring that members are trained on how to live the code and implement it within their daily activities. One respondent proposed the following:

> Sir, I think by properly implementing the code of conduct and singing it as a song everyday would help in dealing with public complaints. I think by participating in it in this way will ensure that when a member of the public calls in for police assistance and service, the crime prevention officer will know exactly how to help that person.

On the basis of the said implementation principles, it appears that the SAPS failed to apply all the stages of the PBO. A revision of the code of conduct at station level should be forthcoming.

4.3.3.2.2 Developing and implementing a collegial support system

According to the participants, this refers to the development of a support system for members that are going through tough and turbulent times in their lives. This may be legal account they have to render, like disciplinary or general life problems, like divorce. Many members conceded that the department does offer them support like counselling and psychological care. However, they felt that it would be better if their management could render them moral support while still adhering to the required professional standards. They insisted that they need their management to continue offering this support until they have completed the required processes like a disciplinary hearing. Developing and implementing a collegial support system should ensure that a proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture and style is put in place. One participant voiced the following need:

> Once you are investigated for an on-the-job kind of a thing, I expect my manager to say, All right, I will stand by you and what you said. But I will also stand for the decision that will come out of this. How can I help you more?

Nel (1999:33-35) identified five levels that cause trauma for police officers in which support for police officers is sought. These levels are internal causes, causes at organizational level, causes at a police unit or station level, causes at a personal level, and external causes. He also identified four areas in which these causes have an impact within the police organization. These areas are on individual police officers, their families, the police organization, and the community at large.

Furthermore, Nel (1999:37-41) identifies seven- (7) stakeholders whom he regards as structures for managing the effect of trauma and crisis in the police organization. These stakeholders are individual members, peer support, police management or line of command, the SAPS as an organization, the SAPS Helping Professions, family and friends, and the community at large. According to him, the main strategy for preventing these crisis and trauma is the training of police management and other significant role players in dealing with the issues at hand.

Thus, it appears that these officers' concerns are valid. The suggestions provided above can alleviate these concerns, as they are all embracing. The main recommendation is to assist both the police officers and their management in order to identify their role and seek partnerships with other stakeholders with a view of preventing a reoccurrence of these crisis situations. It is also important to provide a proactive approach to supporting officers in times of need.

4.3.3.2.3   Empowering crime prevention police officers with new tactics, skills, and new work methods

Participants felt that there was a great need to be empowered with updated knowledge, new work methods, and new techniques. They found it necessary that these skills, new work methods and techniques, have to be comprehensive and broad. They must include such aspects as decision-making, teamwork, excelling at the individual level, applying their minds to their work, and effectiveness at service delivery.

Once these skills have been imparted to them, then they will be able to face evaluators. Their performance will generally improve. In this regard, one respondent recommended the following:

> Training must consistently feed us with knowledge. We must know what is expected of us, how to do it, and how we are going to be marked at the end of the day.

The Annual Report (2002/2003) of the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD) recommended training to reduce the impact of risks that police officers experience. This training should focus on four broad areas. These are, training in conflict resolution and mediation skills for operational police officers, simulation training, weapons handling, and refresher training. Conflict mediation in particular was highlighted as very important for police line officers. Poor people management skills, lack of conflict mediation skills, implementation of anger management skills were very vital for these officers. This report recommended an immediate implementation of training courses in these areas. It also recommended that such courses should be supplemented with a wide range of other life skills training and stress management techniques.

It appears that the respondents related the training to a specific crime prevention domain. It thus appears that new tactics, new work methods, and new crime prevention techniques will be supplemental to the training identified in the report and the recommended skills training. It further appears that the focused approach and refresher training will minimize the need for further training for crime prevention.

4.3.3.2.4   Realigning police support systems with crime prevention

The participants indicated that since they perform crime prevention as their daily tasks, they are operational in character and require operational support throughout the province. These support systems include financial-, logistical-, and human resource support. They also identified the need to align the logistical support systems with crime prevention as a necessity to prevent that the current procurement policy does not end up being in conflict with the crime prevention policy,

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when it is revised. Therefore, the two policy documents had to be revised together to ensure maximum benefit to the community that is being served. One participant emphasized this need by saying:

> Sir, let me say that logistics must be connected to crime prevention to make us more productive. It is not connected right now.

According to Walsh (2001:354) crime prevention police officers are operational police officers. He also agrees that operational police officer's resources should be structured in line with their needs. He proposed that the alignment of resources with operations is the solution. In addition, he proposed that an adoption of the "Compstat" police managerial leadership style and paradigm is a workable solution for almost all policing organizations. This police managerial paradigm is a successful strategy pursued by the New York Police Department. It helped to reduce crime by 50% in New York. This paradigm proposes a rapid focused deployment of both personnel and resources. The Compstat model replaces the traditional policing paradigm of creating organizational sub-divisions into competing power centres fighting over limited resources. Instead, it envisages the department as consisting of one large team focused on the primary organizational mission and vision. It empowers operational commanders with an authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives. The commander can, at a meeting, ask for additional resources and the commissioner can shift resources from one commander to the other as tactical needs dictate.

Thus, it appears that the solution to the allocation of resources does not necessarily lie with the allocation of logistical and other support needs. It lies with the adoption of a correct management leadership style that is based on the following four principles that support the Compstat police management leadership strategy. These principles are accurate and timely intelligence, rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources, effective tactics, and relentless follow-up and assessment (Bratton & Knobler, 1998:224).

4.3.3.2.5   Promoting both an open door policy and a participative management style

Participants proposed that police station management must start by using them as a database or pool of knowledge on operational issues to ensure that they contribute towards ensuring that a proper managerial leadership culture and style is put in place. These police officers emphasized that they acquire their knowledge when they interact with the variety of communities they are policing on a daily basis. This encounter with various people at the beat level helps them to

identify operational problems, develop relevant solutions to them, emanationg from the community itself. Then as a crime prevention team, they come together to share the acquired knowledge. In this way, collective learning takes place, thereby elevating and gaining a better understanding of their jobs.

They proposed that whenever management has to take operational decisions, they should be requested to bring their pool of knowledge to come with workable, community-based problem solving strategies. One participating police officer demonstrated how the current police station managerial practice hampers effective and community-based problem solving. The respondent said:

> We, the people who are working outside with communities are the ones who build relationships and have practical know how of our problems and their solutions. But management still keeps decision-making unto themselves and take decisions binding on members without consulting them.

Various researchers (Emmert & Taher, 1992; Kim, 2002; London & Larsen, 1999) have explored the impact of institutional interaction both vertically and horizontally. London and Larsen (1999:15-20) recommended that superiors should provide a supportive environment where employees are encouraged to interact and speak out about workplace issues to enhance job satisfaction and increase operational accountability. Emmert and Taher (1992:37-48) posit that job satisfaction and commitment are increased by a positive feedback environment both vertically, between superiors and employees and horizontally, between employees themselves. Kim (1992:231-241) identified the existence of a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by superiors.

These studies (Emmert & Taher, 1992; Kim, 2002; London & Larsen, 1999) also indicated a big role that is played by trust. In this regard, Kreiner and Kinicki (1992:408) assert that trust plays a significant role in participative management. Van der Waldt and Du Toit (1998:73) extend this view by saying that the importance accorded to the relationship of trust between management and team members gives a clear indication of the role of management. The creation and sustenance of this relationship is not and should not be the sole responsibility of management. A partnership should be established between management and employees where both parties recognize and uphold their responsibilities. The lack of participative management latitude emanates from the failure of team members to inspire trust by their management through their

conduct and attitude. This results in a situation where management becomes less inclined to delegate any decision-making powers.

It can be safely accepted that it is both a managerial leadership responsibility to create a work ethos and environment that enables members to open up their views, and to build trust with employees. Trust should also be a responsibility of all members of the police organization from the commissioner down to the constable on the beat.

4.3.3.2.6 Developing and implementing an effective crime prevention-orientated performance management system

According to the participants, the current performance management system of the Police Service has a variety of shortcomings. They opined that developing a new performance management system for crime prevention would be a great ideal for new heights for policing in South Africa in the 21st century. They acknowledged the difficulty in doing this, as there exists no such global measure of police effectiveness whereby one can be measured on whether he/she prevented a crime pro-actively. However, they suggested that during the planning phase of the current performance management system, both the members and their police station management must collectively review the current generic system of police performance management in South Africa. The current system is called the Performance Enhancement Process (PEP). It should be customized to fit their goals as per the agreed objectives contained in the police station plan. They also suggested that revising the agreed outcomes from time-to-time would ensure that they react to the specific need. For example, by identifying the need to lower the crime rate in an area, or it may be decided to apply zero-tolerance to crime to increase arrest rates and warn the public accordingly as a short-term crime prevention reactive measure. One participant demonstrated the need for a new system by saying:

> We need a system where our commanders and us go to our province and tell them what we have done so and so and how it has gone. Right now, we are measured the same as finance people or even those members employed at the garage as mechanics.

Various researchers (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999) in the United States propose a performance management system based upon the Compstat police managerial leadership style. They believe that this approach is an appropriate crime prevention-orientated performance measurement system. This approach provides a four-layered system that is crime combating-orientated as well. It is based upon a strong executive team and it uses a crime intelligence gathering and processing strategy. Managerial accountability to prevent and control

crime is also incorporated in the system and for policing various communities. Furthermore, a policing-by-objectives strategy management approach is used.

This four-layered approach is founded upon the following principles:
- Intelligence driven (accurate and timely intelligence).
- A coordinated and accountable strategy that utilizes available, flexible resources (rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources).
- A locally and results-driven performance measurement system (effective tactics).
- Holds all management layers to account (relentless follow-up and assessment).

This approach parallels and supports the current provincial performance management strategy. It is thus possible that a new crime prevention-orientated performance management system can be developed and implemented.

4.3.3.2.7 Retraining and re-orientating crime prevention police officers in modern crime prevention methods and techniques

Participants felt strongly that in-service training should be repositioned to offer them and their commanders, new tactics and strategies in crime prevention. These initiatives will help in dealing with modern criminal tactics and in bettering themselves on how to handle the new trends and issues of crime prevention.

This type of training should be aimed at ensuring that their strategies are in line with the Constitutional changes as well as new international trends of modern crime prevention. The participants cited the example of the lessons learnt from the practice of intelligence-led policing approach of crime combating as developed in both the United Kingdom and the United States. One participant highlighted the reorientation and retraining gap by saying:

> Right now they have used one station to be a pilot for sector-policing but other stations have not been used at all and we do not know this new style at all although we wish to be taught about it. These new police tactics are very important and they must train all of us in them.

Although sector policing has being rolled out to other police stations in Gauteng Province, police officers are still unfamiliar with the exact aim and vision of this programme. It seems that certain skills are lacking to make it more effective.

Robbins (1998:558) suggests that there are various generic training programmes that were developed by work teams in high performing companies and organizations. He outlines four different programmes in this regard. First, is a *basic literacy skills program* that enables employees to read and write as well as to partake in numerical discussions within the workplace. Second, are *technical skills* programmes that are directed at upgrading and improving worker's technical skills. In the current study, it appears that these skills will assist crime prevention officers to deal with criminal trends and sharpen their own skills. Third, are the *interpersonal skills* programmes that aim at improving work performance by enabling workers and managers to effectively interact with each other and their management, as well as to better their listening, communicating and teamwork. The awareness skills that assist in embracing diversity, as well as skill-building training that deals with managing differences within and outside the work place is important. Fourth, are the *problem-solving skills* programs that help in sharpening employees' logic, reasoning, problem-defining, as well as to assess causation, develop and analyze alternatives, and select solutions (Robbins, 1998:559).

It appears that the four skills identified by Robbins could help the participants and other officers in dealing with the trends and changes within their work settings. It should also sharpen their interactions with each other and their management. In order to deal with crime and making use of crime combating trends, management will have to seek industry-based specialized skills training programs that can be tailored by the in-house training division of the SAPS.

4.3.3.2.8   Emphasizing the "leading by example"(LBE) managerial leadership culture within the crime prevention police practices

Participants suggested that their management must start "practicing what they preach" by leading by example. They indicated that this management philosophy was applicable to the police officers, their commanders and the community at large. They believed that leading by example within the police will ensure that a credible and proper managerial leadership culture and style is put in place. The reason is that the three components (police officers, police commanders/managers, and the community) have different needs. The community requires the removal of the criminal element from society, while failing to apply strategies to do so. Police officers are advocating the need to prevent and combat crime with limited resources and with due regard to human rights, democracy and human dignity, while failing to apply Human Rights and constitutional policing standards in their daily practices and activities. Police commanders/managers are advocating a police service that has no room for inequality, racism,

and ill-treatment, while failing to deal with these issues. One participant highlighted the need for the various views to be integrated into the service by offering the following advice:

> Mr, eh…We hear different verses of the Bible at work. One preacher comes with a different one. We need to integrate and put all these religions together.

From a principal-agent perspective, Moore and Braga (2003:441) argue that police executives should promote and practice the will of the community as the sovereign will, as expressed by the principal, the community. Police executives should demonstrate total adherence to this community will through practice, preaching, embracing, and acknowledgment. They must make this practice an everyday police practice. This should enhance accountable policing as a daily police practice.

Moore (1995:) and Moore and Braga (2003:441-442) proposed a strategy in which public value is created and pursued within the public services. This strategy is made up of two elements. The first element in this strategy requires police executives to align their departments with community values. They should do this by adopting an approach that demands the acceptance and embedment of community values into police practices as a legitimate and binding course. The second element of this strategy requires realigning conflicting interests between police operations and public values in such a way that they become a coherent police daily practice that is acceptable to crime prevention police officers and the whole police department. In both strategies, the role of advocating good police practices is emphasized.

Thus, it seems that the two strategies proposed will assist in coherently aligning police and community values and implementing a community value creating police operational policy within the police departments. It is believed that the concerns raised by the participants should be addressed by these two strategies.

4.3.3.2.9 Putting in place a management leadership culture that serves as an example within the crime prevention police practices

Participants were of the opinion that they and their management have to set a good example for each other. The treatment of members by their commanders should reflect a good organizational vision and strategy for the public. It should also do so for the way in which members deal with individual cases and members of the public. One officer voiced the need for this reflective behaviour by saying:

We have to become the mirror of the Police Head Office. What was agreed about at the World Trade Centre and the Police Plan has to be demonstrated during our operations.

Researchers (Emmert & Taher, 1992; London & Larsen, 1999; Luthans, 1988; Moore & Braga, 2003; Reynecke & Fourie, 2001; Robbins, 1998; Walsh, 2001) are not in total agreement about the correct formula for a management leadership style that serves as an example. However, an approach proposed by Luthans (1988); and Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkranz (1988) is probably the most suitable approach for the SAPS. They propose that by looking at what managers do from another level is the solution of teaching and learning through reflective practice. In their research that involved 450 managers, they looked at, "What successful and effective managers do?" They concluded that these managers all engage in four managerial activities. These are:

- *traditional management* (decision-making, planning, controlling, organizing, leading, and coordination);
- *communication* (exchanging routine information and processing paperwork);
- *human resource management* (motivating, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing, and training); and
- *networking* (socializing, politicking, and interacting with outsiders).

It is evident that the suggestion that putting in place a management leadership style that serves as an example is possible within the Gauteng police practices. This can be achieved by looking at the managerial leadership activities that are performed by both effective and successful managers in high performing organizations. These activities have been outlined within a quadrant approach, consisting of four activities, namely traditional management, communication, human resource management, and networking. This should provide a good premise for reflective leadership practices through teaching and learning.

4.3.3.2.10   Re-engineering the policing strategy for Gauteng Province

Participants were of the opinion that it would be a futile exercise if they were the only unit to be involved in strategic planning sessions to develop a crime management and combating strategy to be pursued within the whole Province. They proposed that such sessions should also include members of other police station units in the province (e.g. the detective service, support service, and members of the community service centre). In this way, all the information developed in these sessions can be consolidated to produce a police station plan, then at a later stage an

area plan, and eventually a provincial plan. This implies a need for a workable, practical strategy for the police and the community in the Province.

However this strategic planning session should not be limited to the police alone. The CPFs and other community-based organizations (CBOs) should also have their own sessions where they would develop a similar plan. Their plan would be aimed at combating crime through a community-based crime combating strategies. One participant questioned the current role and contribution of the community crime prevention approaches in South Africa. He proposed a united front approach between the police and the community in combating the vibrant crimes in the SA. The participant said:

> I am now serving the SAPS for fifteen years. We have never before came with a plan that is married to the community plan. We always get a plan that is only ours. Where is theirs and what is inside it? What are they doing with it? When can we start marrying the two plans and start combating crime as a united front?

Walsh (2001:353) is of the opinion that a good policing strategy should not only react to crime. It should resemble the New York Police Department (NYPD)'s Compstat policing strategy that was applied by the then chief of the NYPD, Commissioner William J. Bratton and his strategist, Deputy Commissioner, Jack Maple. Under their leadership, a policing strategy that became a new police managerial paradigm, was devised. It was based on the belief that the police can and should control crime and improve the livability of neighbourhoods. This approach required a total paradigm and mind shift from the traditional law enforcement policing style. Bratton and Knobler (1998:224) identified four principles underpinning this management leadership style. These principles are:

- accurate and timely intelligence,
- rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources,
- effective tactics, and
- relentless follow-up and assessment.

On the basis of the NYPD model and the viewpoints expressed by the participants, it is evident that a pro-active, intelligence-driven crime management and combating approach could be suitable for Gauteng Province. This approach will have to build on the Policing-By-Objectives strategy in order to ensure that rapid focused deployment of both personnel and resources takes place according to a specific plan.

4.3.3.2 A shared vision within crime prevention

Two-thirds of the participants emphasized that it was crucial within the crime prevention police practices to develop ways to counter the current rampant criminal trends. In order to do this, they suggested that it was necessary to identify, develop, implement, and share a good vision for the crime prevention component. Participants were then requested to suggest ways in which a shared vision could be developed and implemented within the Gauteng police practices in order to enhance and promote a culture of accountable policing. From their responses, six strategies could be identified.

These strategies are by:
- Developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership culture within the crime prevention police practices.
- Repositioning the police core business as crime prevention.
- Emphasizing the practice of "police quality service and policing efficiency".
- Applying the principle of the "customer is always right".
- Restructuring the component of crime prevention and response services at local level within the Province.
- Developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system.

4.3.3.3.1 Developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership culture within the crime prevention police practices

Participants identified a need to train crime prevention police officers in visionary leadership. Such training was lacking within crime prevention, and specifically within the management echelons of the police stations. They suggested that there are two forms of such training that should be conducted, namely a commander-based training and an operational crime prevention police officer-based training. Once all these police officers have completed the training, strategic planning sessions should be held. In these sessions, participants will brainstorm and identify strategies in which crime prevention operations could be managed through a visionary leadership-orientation. Although participants failed to specify the format of these operations, they regarded the brainstorming session as a strategy to bring forth solutions. One participant emphasized this by saying:

> You see, we can after this training then make our own strategy using team building. It has worked where my wife is working in the private sector and it can work for us too, mister.

Govender (2001:145) postulates that developing and implementing a police vision is central to every police managerial leadership practice. He regards a vision as a clear, concise statement about what employees, managers, clients, and others connected with the police organization care about, the direction in which they are focusing, and why they should have pride in their progress. He regarded the police manager/commander and leader as a vision setter, the clear champion of the vision, and an ardent supporter of the vision. Police managers/commanders and leaders are responsible for preaching and teaching about the organizational vision, articulating the values associated with that vision, and focusing on ensuring that everyone understands and accepts the vision.

It will appear that the whole concept of police visionary leadership is a totally new and unfamiliar concept and practice within crime prevention. This makes it impossible to assess the presence and extent of its practice within the policing practices of the police service in the province. It is for this reason that the participants' proposal of a strategic planning session sounds plausible. This is because it is in these sessions where a new vision for crime prevention police practices will be set, roles and responsibilities will be identified, and key performance areas will be developed. It is believed that a lot of learning will take place during these sessions.

4.3.3.3.2   Repositioning the police core business as crime prevention

Participants indicated that everyone within crime prevention has to revert to the traditional principle based on the Constitution and its priority that the core business of the police is crime prevention. According to them, the two focus areas that need special attention in this regard are firstly, how police services are being rendered, and to assess whether it measures to the standard set for crime prevention. Secondly, is the focus on the quality of that service and the responsiveness of the service provider – the crime prevention police officer. One participant proposed a reverting approach to the police core business. He said:

> They need to teach and show us that the actual thing for crime prevention is to empty the cells and not feed them with criminals. Our business is to prevent crime and not increase arrests.

Walsh (2001:352) emphasizes that at the core of any strategic and visionary police management leadership style lies a strong information sharing that informs strategic police operations. He proposes that a strong strategy towards crime prevention-orientation should encapsulate the conduct of strategic weekly crime management and control meetings. The aim of these meetings is to increase the flow of information among senior management, their area commanders, sector managers. It is also to ensure the accountability of this process to all the members of the

command structure. It is in these meetings that police senior management will be able to discuss and analyse crime patterns and high profile incidents, review tactics and results on a face-to-face basis with operational commanders, while cutting out the communication barriers inherent in large bureaucratic organizations at the same time (Bratton & Knobler, 1998:224; Walsh, 2001:352).

Bratton and Knobler (1998:239) opine that in this process the primary responsibility for day-to-day police operations within the police precincts (stations) is placed on the hands of the precinct commanders. This enables senior managers to discover and identify precinct commanders that rise to the challenge by adopting a results-orientated strategy to reduce crime in their command precincts. It is in this regard that Moore and Braga (2003:441) identify the role of senior management in aligning police operations to communal needs and demands. They identified a triad approach in realizing this ideal by police senior executives. First, they have to strengthen their constituencies to enable them to evaluate and assess the overall performance of the police organization. Second, they have to align their police departments with the values of their communities. Third, they have to align community interests with police operations.

Behind every successful police organization lies a strong police team that draws decision-making from timely crime and criminal intelligence. Police management must therefore be empowered to take accountable operational decisions.

4.3.3.3.3   Emphasizing the practice of "police quality service and policing efficiency/efficacy"

Research participants emphasized that in order to improve crime prevention operations requires a mind shift from both crime prevention police officers and their commanders/managers. To achieve this mind shift, both management and operational police officers must be made aware that the discharge of their functions is not only about what they do but it is also about how they do it. In other words, it is not only about the fact that they render crime prevention police service, but it is also about how they render it, which involves efficacy and effectiveness. The quality of service of police officers will be evaluated on the basis of how efficient and effective it is. Thus the two concepts are related in that quality determines the "how" of the crime prevention operations and efficiency determines the "output" or results of crime prevention operations. In addition to this, one respondent made the following remark:

> To me sir, I read about customer satisfaction and achieving what you planned to do and within the set standard.

Walsh (2001:353) points out that the New York Police Department's (NYPD's) Compstat police strategy process, employed through an integrated accountability structure from the police executive level down to the police officer level, establishes accountability at all managerial levels. Under the direction of the police executive, who must focus the police on the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations, the whole organization is focused on its mission. This approach thus involves the whole police organization and goes way beyond the incremental structural changes required during the implementation of community policing and sector policing. It however retains the police organizational leadership style similar to the one established in 1829 by Sir Robert Peel for the British police.

Walsh's (2001:353) statement and the participants' views can be interpreted in two ways. Firstly, it implies that police efficiency and effectiveness is an executive responsibility. Secondly, it implies ensuring the implementation of efficacy and effectiveness standards, as well as an inherent adoption of these measures by the whole police organization. It requires strategic adjustments and institutional arrangements that ensure its realization. From this, one can deduce that it is in fact not a line responsibility to ensure quality police service and effectiveness but an executive responsibility that must be implemented top-down through the whole police organization.

4.3.3.3.4   Professional customer care within the crime prevention police practices

Participants regarded the principle "the customer is always right" as central to the whole spectrum of the public service with specific reference to both the police code of conduct and the *Batho Pele/*Putting People First Public Service policy document issued by the Department of Public Service and Administration. Two respondents cited a case where they attended to a complaint. They were left with many options, one of which was whether to enforce the law or solve the problem according to the wishes of the complainant. They became uncertain of what to do because the media always scrutinizes their discretion and decisions. Professional customer care is sometimes difficult to maintain because of such uncertainties. Most participants perceived the incidents of domestic violence cases as very relevant to the application of this principle. One participant reported as follows in this regard:

> You know sir, you arrive at the scene. You do not know whether to effect the arrest according to what she wants or to try to resolve the problem according to your own discretion as a sworn police officer. What should we do now?

Robinson and Chandek (2000) are aware of the dilemma between the full enforcement of the law using traditional policing strategies and the demands of problem-oriented policing standards by local police officers when attending to scenes of crime similar to one case study of the two police officers pointed above. They related this dilemma to the police response to domestic violence and incidents. In order to eliminate this dilemma, they propose that a victim-based approach must be applied to all such incidents. In the same light, they warn police officers to consider the requirements of problem-oriented policing in dealing with such community problems.

They further provide various case-based recommendations including the following:
- Police officers must provide victims of domestic violence with information necessary to participate successfully in the prosecution of their cases.
- Police officers must go beyond the "just the facts, ma'am" approach in many cases to provide victims with emotional support.
- Police officers must become knowledgeable of other agencies that offer victim assistance and should provide referrals to these agencies.
- By applying the professional customer-care approach to the policing of domestic violence requires the police to adopt a mission of making the victim's navigation through the Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICJS) less traumatic and difficult. Simultaneously, police officers should aim to increase the proportion of cases ending in arrest and prosecution (Robinson & Chandek, 2000).

In view of the participants' views and guidance from literature, it can be concluded that professional customer care is always the right approach to the policing of everyday policing issues. Gauteng Province will require a police approach that acknowledges the need to minimize the victim trauma and increase a responsive police approach. In doing so the police are guided by existing policies regarding the policing of certain sensitive incidents, like domestic violence.

4.3.3.3.5 Restructuring the component of crime prevention and response service at a local level within the Gauteng police practices

Participants identified a need to separate crime prevention (which is effected through targeted patrols and police omnipresence) from police response services (the reactive arm directed at arresting those who have already committed crimes and are fleeing). They proposed that the latter should be extended beyond urban areas and Gauteng Provincial borders. Crime

prevention response services should also include all the townships. They pointed out that the township areas are places where the criminals hide most of the time when the police are looking for them. One participant had this to say in this regard:

> We can fully implement the concept of crime prevention while we have a separate unit that functions to react to crimes that have already been committed.

Another participant added"

> Ja, I fully agree with him because we would only then be able to measure our actions and crime as well.

Walsh (2001:353) claims that the Compstat managerial paradigm is a managerial perspective based on the belief that the police can and should control crime and improve the livability of neighbourhoods and not just react to crime. In this regard, Bratton and Knobler (1998:224) argue that in doing so the police should depart from the traditional practice of creating organizational subdivisions into competing power centres fighting over limited resources. Walsh (2001:353) supports this approach and elaborates by saying that police commanders/managers should not only be concerned about institutional arrangements and restructuring. They should continue exploring the implementation possibilities of the assertion that the Compstat approach empowers operational commanders/managers with the necessary authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives.

It will appear that it is not about the institutional arrangement of the crime prevention function as purported by the participants above. It is about their operational commanders understanding that they have the power and authority to institute organizational arrangements and structuring to effect their strategies and being accountable for their actions. What is important is that at an operational level, it can be done with authority and that it has to be accounted for.

4.3.3.3.6 Developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system

According to the participants, an intelligence-led crime prevention system entails developing a database of the incidents occurring within the policed area and converting that data into manageable, crime-directed intelligence that can be used effectively within that area to implement intelligence-led policing. In order to realize this, information should always be received on time to enable crime prevention operations to pre-empt the crime and to tailor an appropriate response accordingly. Operational police officers can plan their operations and co-ordinate their actions with other units. Coordination with the local Criminal Record Centre is vital

in order to ensure that the fingerprints of suspects are availed in time to assess the criminal status of suspects. One officer highlighted the following to demonstrate the importance of information sharing in the implementation of intelligence-led crime prevention operations. He said:

> When we run our operations by intelligence led policing, eh…the information must be given in time when it is required and we should be able to act according to what it says.

Walsh (2001:353-4) points out that underlying the principle of accurate and timely intelligence is the belief that the police must respond to crime and to community needs effectively. Police officers, at all levels of the police organization, must have accurate knowledge of when particular types of crimes are occurring, how and where the crimes are being committed, and who the criminals are?

Therefore, according to this principle, everyone in the hierarchy of the police organization must receive information. They must be able to disseminate timely and accurate crime intelligence. This information serves as the foundation for crime analysis, strategy development, and outcome evaluation. Thus, everyone must work together to make intelligence gathering and its distribution effective. This information processing system in effect turns the police department into what Peter Senge (1990) describes as a learning organization. A learning organization is one that becomes effective because it assesses, evaluates, and adapts its responses according to the needs of its environment.

4.3.3.3 Promoting a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices

Two-thirds of the participants indicated that the promotion of a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the Gauteng police practices is important. Participants were requested to suggest ways in which a culture of institutional and structural accountability can be implemented. From their responses, six strategies that are regarded as important and should be pursued were put forward.

These strategies are:
- Promoting respect for the line of command.
- Promoting police officer accountability to both the crime prevention function and milieu.
- Promoting a 24-hour police officer accountability culture within the crime prevention police practices.

- Enhancing and promoting individual crime prevention police officer accountability.
- Developing a culture, mentality, and attitude within the crime prevention police practices that reflects that of the National Commissioner of police.
- Promoting a culture of police accountability to the national policing frameworks.

4.3.3.4.1 Promoting respect for the line of command

Research participants in order to move towards an accountability mentality will require the development of respect for the line of command. The outcome of this will be a line of command that is respected, and is integrity-orientated. They proposed that in order to do this would require that respect for the line of command must be redefined. In that redefinition it has to become a matter of collegial respect. Participants believed that the current perception among junior police officers is that a crime prevention police officer merely salutes a commissioned police officer as required by police regulations.

Participants indicated that self-respect for a crime prevention police officer was fundamental in this respect. For that reason, self-respect had to be promoted to inculcate respect for the line of command. Self-respect was regarded as important to both the subordinates and their superiors in their day-to-day interaction. One officer described the rationale for this respect as follows:

> It is not that we do not want to respect our seniors. We do. But they must also regard us as human beings and respect us as we deserve to be respected.

Robbins (1998:258-9) attributes the breakdown in respect and the concomitant subordinates' behaviour to the breakdown in norms and conformity. He is of the view that the group develops their own norms that must conform and adhere to the overall institutional values and norms. Sometimes group norms may emanate from status considerations, resulting in individual police officers being classified on the basis of rank. He attributes the behaviour of the superiors, if it is found to be true, to the fact that their status has some effect on the power of norms and pressures. High-status group members (superiors) are given more freedom to deviate from the established norms. The deviance is only tolerated in so far as it does not severely affect the superiors' activities to group goal achievement.

The majority of the junior officers complained of disrespect from all lines of authority. They complained of superiors demanding respect. Such a demand is associated with rank and class factors in the literature. It can be deduced that the considerations of both team work and team norms will teach superior officers that task completion is not dependent on rank at all times. In

this way, they will have to submit to team norms, and be required to adjust their own individual behaviour to that of the group and the police organization.

4.3.3.4.2 Promoting crime prevention police officer accountability to both the crime prevention function and milieu

Participants described this form of accountability as implying that police officers have to be dedicated to their work and keep their community in mind as beneficiaries of their service. They indicated that being accountable to both these institutions implies a total mind shift from ordinary uniformed police officers to professional practitioners of public safety and security who render an important community service to their clients. It was proposed that crime prevention police officers needed to be developed in the areas of client-orientation and professionalism.

According to the participants, promoting this form of accountability within the police stations must not be seen as a sole individual police officer endeavour. It should rather be made to operate as a collective organizational endeavour, where all police officers strive towards this ideal. It must be aimed at developing a culture of accountability to both the crime prevention function and police environment. One respondent demonstrated his tie to both the police function and environment by making this comment:

> Mister…I am accountable to my work as well as to my community. You see, I work with various sector people and they teach me to become a crime prevention officer above being a police officer.

According to Wilson and McLaren (1972:417) the justification for increased police involvement in pro-active or preventative work emanates from the consideration that police agencies are established for the purpose of preventing the commission of crimes. It is for this reason that no other social institution has been tasked with this mammoth objective. Actions and behaviours of police officers determine public attitudes towards and respect for the process of upholding authority. It is for this reason that police authority and powers of arrest must be applied with discretion. These powers should be exercised in such a way that offenders are not prosecuted if such action will not serve the interests of both the individual and society. As the police initiate the corrective process, the way in which the police officer handles the offender, forms part of this process. The police are strategically well-placed to co-ordinate the preventive activities of other institutions in a collective realization of public safety and security.

The police need training and need to be involved in proactive problem-solving that ensures compliance by the members of society. A pre-arranged prevention programme is therefore

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necessary if the desired results are to be obtained, scientific techniques and research results to be properly applied, and all preventive activities to be integrated. Such a programme should involve a working philosophy that envisages prevention at both the predispositional and precipitational levels. It must be designed in such a way that there is recognition of the cultural and ethical views of the society concerned, the stimulation of public interest by means of an information bureau disseminating up-to-date knowledge about crime and its prevention, a system for the timely detection and handling of maladjustments, and a careful selection of suitable personnel (Caldwell, 1956:686).

On this basis, a determination towards police ensuring the accountability of a police officer towards the police function and milieu can be achieved by means of crime prevention programmes. These programmes will help bring back the conception of policing and the police function to society within the Province. In addition, crime prevention police officers must be tied and/or linked to both the crime prevention police function and milieu. Porter, et. al. (1974:604) proposes two ways in which a crime prevention police officer can be tied to both their function and the milieu. The first is by tying these police officers through "attitudinal commitment". This commitment must be achieved by emphasizing the relative strength of their identification with, involvement in, and attachment of police officers to the police function and milieu. This can be achieved by committing them in a strong belief in, acceptance of the police and crime prevention goals and values, their willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the police service, and a strong desire to maintain their membership to the crime prevention unit (Porter, et. al., 1974:604). The second is by means of committing these police officers behaviourally ("behavioural commitment"). Behavioural commitment of police officers must be sought in two ways. Firstly, this can be done by recognizing that these officers enter the police organization with specific skills, desires, and goals. Secondly, by creating a work environment in which they can use their skills, satisfy their needs and desires, and achieve their human goals. It can help in tying these officers to the crime prevention unit, and consequently, the police service (Porter, et. al., 1974:604).

4.3.3.4.3 Promoting a 24-hour police officer accountability culture within the crime prevention police practices

Participants insisted that they are accountable 24-hours a day. Other police units (e.g. support services like human resources, finance, and logistics) are only accountable during office hours. They justified this by saying that they are not only there as crime prevention officers while on

duty, but they are there as community saviours. This is because they are available for their communities on a 24-hour basis (Probably this is linked to the ideal of Sector Policing).

There are two ways in which this culture and practice can be enhanced within the daily practices of the crime prevention police practices. The first is by the inculcation of this culture through the induction of young recruits at the police colleges (Police Academy training level). The second is by requiring graduate police officers to live according to this practice and culture on a daily basis. Line police officers are required to have an open door policy for their community. Police commanders/managers are required to lead by example in maximizing this practice and culture by having an open door policy for their subordinates by being available for them as often as possible. This 24-hour police accountability demand and need was portrayed as follows:

> I must have my house door open for my community 24-hours a day. I must be approachable. I must assist at least 24-hours a day. My commander must do the same for me.

Dixon (1999:244) agrees that there exists and should continue to exist, a police practice and culture of being accountable to their communities on a 24-hour basis. Police officers realize this form of accountability through community- and sector-based policing styles. Through these modern policing styles, a better vehicle for achieving this form of accountability of police officers, on a 24-hour basis, is provided and achieved by the crime prevention officers. In these styles of policing, both the community and sector-based police officers provide high visibility policing (omnipresence) while their commanders and sector inspectors are required to ensure the continuity of this policing approach by ironing out inconsistencies in the response of the subordinate police officers.

In this way, policing as a community service is achieved through a 24-hour observance. Both the community and the police officers should recognize this responsibility as fundamental to their overall police account.

4.3.3.4.4 Enhancing and promoting individual crime prevention police officer accountability

Participants indicated that team policing is emphasized during their basic police training and practiced in the field. However, it must be borne in mind that police officers sometimes operate alone on the streets performing patrol duties. Performing patrol duties is where police officers are individually held accountable for actions or decisions that they take or omit to take. It is for this reason that participants felt that police officer individuality and autonomy is the main driver of

their line function. This is especially true and relevant where the population is saturated and policing demands are high, like in Gauteng Province.

Research respondents acknowledged the role and contribution of team policing which they viewed to be useful in empowering and protecting members. But they opined that "sharp and fast" thinking involves individual police officers taking important decisions individually and immediately on the streets in a split second. One officer questioned the contribution of the whole team policing approach to inculcate and promote the culture of accountable policing, especially at an individual level. He said:

> Team policing is failing us and that is why our training has to teach us individual account on the streets at most. We are sometimes alone there, taking a decision to kill. We face the judge alone as well. Why then team police our community?

The views expressed by Wilson and Brewer (2001) as well as Brunetto and Farr-Wharton (2003) in their independent studies carried out in Poland and Australia respectively, were in line with these officer's perceptions. Both these studies concurred that officer decision-making and actions, emanating from individuated patrol-based activities and culture, were negated by the practice of team-based policing demanded by the community policing traditions. However, Kennedy (1980:173) opposes this view and applauds team policing. He believes that team policing enhances a culture of accountable decision-making and problem-solving. Team policing is advantageous from an organizational effectiveness perspective. It formalizes organizational relationships in a manner that maximizes the input of all departmental personnel in the decision-making processes in order to make operations more effective. In this way, he refuted the negative views against team policing with specific reference to its effects on individuated decision-making and actions.

With these different views, there is no concrete evidence that approves or disapproves the team policing model. It will thus be in order to conclude that team policing, although conceding that individuated policing promotes only individual actions, maximizes organizational throughputs required by this model.

4.3.3.4.5 Developing a culture, mentality, and attitude within crime prevention that reflects that of the National Commissioner of the police

Participants indicated that this strategy brings home the very essence and importance of the role of a police officer in society. This is because police officers individually represent the office of the National Commissioner of police in everything that they do or abstain from doing. In this regard,

they have to behave and act like him, reflect the same attitude, skills, and knowledge, as he will in similar cases. In achieving this goal, they are armed with weaponry that includes creativity, problem solving, and acting as his agents. Every time they apply their minds and use their discretionary powers, police officers are required to show restraint, demonstrate congruency of decision-making and problem-solving equated with that of the National Commissioner, as well as showing regard for human rights. Police actions are required to exceed the public expected outcomes. One participant said the following in this regard:

> Jy sien, ek moet altyd die naskom se rep wees. Hy verwag dat ek hom beskerm teen kritiek en dom besluite word heeltemal verwyder in daardie standaard wat ons daarstel[2].

Another participant added:

> We have to take decisions, which our senior management would take in similar situations. We represent the police as individuals, the entire police. This is because people criticizing our actions and decisions, do not say Mr. so and so, but they say "the police".

It is proposed that in order for the police to develop and maintain this culture, they are required to unite their institutional, executive, and individual thinking patterns into a united front (Walsh, 2001:354). For police agencies to achieve this, (provincial) management must start developing (if not already in place) a strategic management system that uses organizational strategy to unite the decision-making, actions, and problem-solving system of the executive (senior management), operational commanders, and that of line police officers into a coordinated, united, and compatible pattern. This will help to ensure that the strategy and actions of the province, the area, police station, as well as that of the individual police officer that are developed within this process and are part of this process becomes a combination of planned actions or on-the-spot reactions to changing unanticipated conditions (Walsh, 2001:354). This is in line with the decision-making model proposed by Hawkins (2002) where he refers to the holistic model of "Legal Decision-Making" (LDM). According to him, in legal decision-making, the personal freedom of the police official to make decisions "out of kilt" is questioned by the next level of decision-maker, namely the (public) prosecutor. In dealing with this dilemma he proposes the application of the LDM model. This model is a collective enterprise that enables several people to take part individually in decision-making thereby individually partaking in deciding the outcome of the case.

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[2] You see, I must always represent the national commissioner. He expects that from me. He expects that I protect him against criticism and in this way inappropriate decisions are removed entirely in that standard that we are setting out here.

These two approaches (Walsh, 2001:354 & Hawkins, 2002) ensure that every police officer's pattern of thinking and behaviour become that of the police executive management. This will ensure that a unison front of decision-making and actions is achieved within the police department.

4.3.3.4.6 Promoting a culture of accountability to the national policing frameworks

Research participants emphasized that the policing framework not only becomes their code of practice and values, but are also fundamental standards of police practice. They referred to the Constitution as the main framework embodying all the values, norms, and objectives for which the whole nation strives for. Police officers are therefore required to protect these frameworks on a 24-hour basis. They identified other important policing frameworks, namely the police service establishing legal framework, the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, Police Regulations, *Batho Pele*, related Public Service Acts and regulations, and related crime prevention and combating frameworks that guide their behaviour. One officer highlighted the importance of promoting the culture of police officer accountability to these frameworks by saying:

> Seker, meneer. Soos hy gesê het dat ons het die Grondwet wat die nasie reguleer, en ons plig is om dit te implementer soos die inspekteur gesê het, en ook dat binne die Polisiêwet het te doen met ons magte en hoe ons dit moet gebruik om te opereer binne die Grondwet[3].

Reynecke (2001:19) opines that from a police managerial leadership perspective, the SAPS as a service industry is concerned with the labour-intensive and intangible nature of its services. However, the intangibility of its service cannot be displayed, demonstrated or communicated easily. This has an ultimate result that quality control and service standardization are difficult to effect and maintain. This stance is supported by the Van Vuuren study (2000) regarding a SAPS-based performance management system. He acknowledges that performance management for the SAPS is difficult to measure and assess. However, he maintains that police service output must be quantified and the performance measured. Client needs must be determined to know what they want, and then all the available resources must be allocated in an attempt to achieve this goal effectively and efficiently.

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[3] True mr. As he said that we have the Constitution that regulates the nation, and our duty is to implement it like the inspector said, and also in the Police Act they deal with our powers and how we should use them to function within the parameters of the Constitution

In view of the above, it appears that promoting a culture of accountability within the policing frameworks is not about which frameworks and instruments govern police actions, it is about what the vision of the totality of these frameworks is. This vision is about service delivery, and thus, the promotion of these frameworks should be sought by means of seeking, achieving and sustaining the overall goal of these frameworks, which is police service delivery.

4.3.3.4 Efficient crime prevention police operations

Two-thirds of the participants were concerned about what they regarded as a lack of an integrated provincial police operations strategy. They identified a need for this strategy to become crime prevention-orientated. Participants were requested to suggest how effective crime prevention operations should be achieved. From their responses, four strategies could be identified. These strategies are believed to be required in order to ensure that an effective crime prevention police operations strategy is put in place to promote a culture of accountable policing.

These strategies are:

- Enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations.
- Effective management of crime prevention projects and operations.
- Implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout Gauteng Province.
- Developing and implementing an appropriate crime prevention-orientated measure of efficiency and effectiveness.

4.3.3.5.1 Enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations

According to the participants, the main aim of crime prevention is to sustain and maintain public order by means of crime prevention and police responsive operations. Various police, community, and multi-agency-based crime prevention initiatives should be implemented. One respondent was of the opinion that the police should drive these initiatives. Where the police experience difficulties in achieving the goals set for these initiatives, they should inform the local structures and community representatives as a prelude in seeking solutions to the problems. This participant said:

> You see, mister, we should not hide behind our own inability but we should be drivers of community safety. I have already done this for my police station. The starting point is to get your house in order, then use your households to preach this gospel, then you must seek disciples that will be baptized for your gospel.

Goris and Walters (1999) studied the development of the Belgian crime prevention contracts, and examined the difficulties experienced with "multi-agency crime prevention". They suggest

that much of the political rhetoric in Belgium which called for local community and inter-sectoral partnerships, had lacked clear practical expression. This situation is similar to what happened in other countries, including UK (New Zealand, Australia, Wales) and Canada. However, other studies (Crawford & Jones, 1995; Sampson, Blagg, Stubbs, & Pearson, 1988) have found that partnership approaches to community and partnership-based crime prevention, remain popular. They also found that partnership approaches that are centred upon the networking of community agency expertise, collaborating ideas, and involving the community in decision-making and management, was viewed by politicians and public servants as integral to community or locally-based crime prevention initiatives.

It is clear that little has been done to explore policing accountability through crime prevention operations. However, the accountability of the police to the public can be enhanced through crime prevention operations. It is recommended that studies be conducted to identify and describe these operations, and analyze conditions under which they can be developed and implemented.

4.3.3.5.2   Effective management of crime prevention operations and projects

The participants reverted to their previous view, namely that a strategic planning session for the whole Province would help in developing a Provincial strategy or plan with each unit having its own goals and objectives. Thereafter, it would be much easier for the various stakeholders to determine their respective roles in realizing the plan. This would ensure that management would be working with people who know exactly what is expected of them, how they would be evaluated, and what management functions and roles should be in realizing the strategy or plan. The plan would assure them that in terms of the agreement, management's doors would be open, and their managers would be prepared to listen to problems and support them in every possible way. All this would ensure that crime prevention operations are carried out and managed efficiently.

Thereafter, in a coordinated way, the Province has to develop a portfolio of crime combating and prevention projects aimed at implementing the plan agreed upon. This would realize the ideal of a holistic approach to crime prevention by designing and implementing crime prevention projects. Lessons learnt and the profiles of the various communities will assist in identifying the focus areas and the approaches to follow, thereby fostering a relationship between the various communities and the police and sharing the responsibility for crime prevention.

The consolidation of ideas during the drafting of the plan would help in identifying the coordination of functions and the role to be played by security organizations. The strategy document should not openly specify the details in order to protect the covert nature of crime prevention operations. At the same time, this activity is aimed at promoting the integration of operations between the police and the private security organizations. One participant made the following remark:

> If there can be a way that when a security alarm button is pressed, the message can also be relayed to our control room to ensure that a coordinated reaction is provided.

Various researchers (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999) propose that a strategy like this must be based on two approaches. The first approach is that it must tie up strategy and performance accountability into the whole organization, permeating the whole chain of command. This will see the provincial commissioners, area commissioners, and station commissioners being held to account and to perform. They would be held to account by ensuring that crime patterns and high profiled incidents are identified and dealt with. The various commanders lower down in the line of command must ensure that they run the day-to-day operations in their various stations. These lower level commanders/managers must be held to account for the tactics and operational strategies employed. Line police officers and their immediate supervisory command must be held to account for their communication and working with each other to define strategy and develop crime control measures for specific street-level conditions (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

The second approach links with the first. It suggests and requires a quadrant approach to police operations and programme management based on the Compstat principles (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

First, it proposes an accurate and timely intelligence management where police officers effectively and efficiently respond to crime and community needs. The whole line of command must have accurate knowledge of when particular types of crimes are occurring, how and where the crimes are being committed and who the criminals are. They must work together to make crime intelligence gathering and dissemination effective. Bratton and Knobler (1998:22-5) are of the opinion that this information processing and management turns the whole police organization into what Peter Senge (1990) described as a learning organization. This organization is described as one that becomes effective because it assesses, evaluates, and adapts its responses to the needs of its environment.

Second, it proposes a rapid deployment of personnel and resources. This approach opposes the traditional managerial paradigm that creates organizational sub-divisions into competing power centres fighting over limited resources. Instead, the approach envisions the (Gauteng) police department as made up of one large team focused on the primary organizational mission. Here, operational commanders are empowered with the authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives. Where additional resources are required, the operational commander will request additional resources at the Compstat meeting, and the police executive can shift resources from one commander to another as tactical needs require.

Third, it proposes an effective and efficient police managerial strategy and tactics where the executive, operational commanders, and operational police officers' decisions and actions are united into a coordinated and compatible pattern. In this strategy, operational commanders are held to account for the quality of their plans, the quality of their efforts toward crime reduction, their managerial oversight over operations, and the expected results.

Fourth, it proposes a relentless follow-up and continuous assessment of police performance. Executives (provincial police management) and the operational command staff members constantly follow up on what is being done by their personnel, and assess results of their strategies. This follow-up and assessment process enhances managerial accountability and effectiveness because it results in police executives and commanders at all levels assessing their results and provides the opportunity to change tactics and deployment based on what they see and know (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

In view of this, the plan developed during the brainstorming sessions will be implemented and the various levels of command will ensure that it succeeds. Disciplinary measures must be put in place to ensure that non-performance is addressed, and that the various communities receive the high level of safety and security, as per performance agreement, is achieved.

4.3.3.5.3 Implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout Gauteng Province

According to the participants, the crime prevention strategy should be directed at strengthening local crime prevention and ensuring that the policing strategy or plan is cascaded down to the lowest levels. They felt that the only way to achieve this, would be by implementing and

strengthening sector policing throughout the province. One participant remarked this about sector policing:

> If you can check the latest introduction projects from sector policing, by dividing the sectors into small, manageable areas this helps both the re-integration of policing into the mainstream public, the consumers of policing services, and also in bringing policing closer and nearer to the communities where it belongs, which renders us more accountable.

Dixon (1999:243) believes that policing accountability can be re-invented and strengthened by means of sector policing. He Identified four elements under which this re-invention can be achieved:

- By dividing the policed area into small and manageable sectors using the principles of geographic responsibility.
- By means of problem-solving strategies as advocated through the tradition of problem-oriented policing.
- Community consultation should take place as prescribed by the principles of consultation.
- Through the new police managerial paradigm that requires both sector police officers and inspectors to account for their various sectors.

The SAPS national crime prevention division in Pretoria has finalized the policy document on the implementation of sector policing for South Africa. The evaluation reports of the sector policing pilot projects that were implemented in Gauteng Province have made it necessary to adopt sector policing throughout South Africa.

4.3.3.5.4 Developing and implementing an appropriate crime prevention-orientated measure of police efficiency and effectiveness

In order to evaluate crime prevention police service delivery endeavours effectively, participants argued that another form of evaluation that would be unique and crime prevention-orientated was necessary. One participant tried to show the difficulty of evaluating crime prevention effectiveness and efficiency by saying:

> How do you tell somebody outside the core function of policing (support services) knowing nothing about crime prevention that I think I am successful in implementing my station strategy because for the past week, nobody was mugged on the streets in my patrol area? Such a person would immediately ask you 'Where are the arrests'?

Walsh (2001:355) concurs that traditional police performance management measures are not successful. In order to make these measures more successful, he suggests that police

evaluation mechanisms must be focused on four areas in which police crime operations indicators should aim at, namely:

- The quality of operational plans.
- The quality of police (managerial) efforts to reduce crime.
- The managerial oversight of policing operations.
- The results emanating from the operational strategies.

Participants were very outspoken about their external accountability to their local communities. They regarded crime prevention operations as a vehicle to achieve this form of accountability. They cited the impediments of the performance indicators inherent in the existing performance standards acting as an obstacle in achieving this goal. One participant highlighted the gap in the performance systems by indicating that it fails to achieve the institutional goal. He made this statement:

> Through crime prevention operations, policing is brought nearer and closer to the policed communities, but our evaluation fails to see this.

In an attempt to provide a police crime prevention-orientated performance management system, Moore and Braga (2003) developed a balanced scorecard. It is aimed at police-oriented performance management. This scorecard consists of a battery of measurements that includes:
- Outcome measure of performance, both as ultimate measures of value created, and as a way of testing whether innovative programmes work or not,
- Activity and output measures, these focus on managerial attention on the way they are using authority and money to accomplish results, and
- Expenditure and investment measures, to help police organizations manage the transition from traditional styles of policing to the new style more effectively.

In view of this development, a conclusion can be drawn that police commanders/managers must develop performance measurements that are directed at measuring outcomes, activities and outputs, and inputs or what can be called organizational development activities. These are crime prevention-orientated performance evaluation measures that are solely needed in Gauteng Province.

4.3.3.6   Managing the effects of the policing environment

Two-thirds of the participants raised their concern over the negative environment in which police officers have to operate. They regarded both their internal and external environments as affecting their tasks. Participants were requested to suggest ways in which a positive effect of the policing environment can be enhanced to promote accountable policing. From their responses, four strategies could be identified.

These strategies are:

- Developing a Provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing function into the various communities;
- Training communities in modern community crime prevention strategies;
- Neutralizing the negative effect of the policing environment; and
- Promoting responsible and caring communities.

These strategies should be used to harmonize the police operating environment and promote its positive impact.

4.3.3.6.1   Developing a Provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing function into the various policed communities

The participants were concerned about the poor progress in the positive shaping and change in the policing environment from before and since the democratization of South Africa in 1994. In order to solve this problem they, together with their management, need to start developing and implementing a strategy aimed at promoting policing throughout the various communities in the Province. This is where they will start emphasizing to the communities exactly why they, the communities, require formalized policing and their role in it. In turn, the police will listen to these communities detailing what the police should do and should not do.

This strategy should divide the policed communities into two strata, namely the crime-prone or criminal-orientated, and the crime-free or non-criminally-orientated communities. The strategy should then be given to the Provincial structures responsible for policy regarding public development to come up with a strategy for determining and then removing the structural causes of crime in those crime-prone areas. It will also enable those people responsible for developing partnerships between the police and the communities to do so.

According to the participants, this would enhance and reshape their policing environment and help in creating and implementing the ideal police-community society for which policing ideologies are aimed at. One participant emphasized the importance of this approach in re-integrating the policing function back in the communities. He said:

> This strategy he just mentioned, would help us to forge ourselves back again to where our communities are. We have to service even those criminals from townships who always fear us.

Pelser (1999:10-11) acknowledges the previous role of the SAPS at national level in setting up structures and strategies to ensure that policing permeates the various strata of the society in South Africa. One of these strategies and structures was the introduction of the Sub-component: National Community Policing Desk (NCPD). This component was tasked to develop a Policy Framework on community policing; issue Regulations, National Orders, and additional guidelines on community policing; initiate national workshops on community policing and to empower national and provincial role-players to this end; manage a Community Policing Programme Forum (CPPF) effectively; partake in practical projects aimed at achieving police priorities; assist with the development of the training curricula on community policing; contribute regularly to the reviewing of all training curricula to ensure that it integrates community policing; contribute to the Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP); establish liaison links for regular interaction with the communities at the lowest level; and develop a Framework and Guidelines on Partnership Policing.

In view of these national initiatives, participants highlighted the failure to realize the full objectives for which they were set. They further identified a need for a local-driven strategy to enhance and harmonize the relationships between the police and their communities. In this regard, Reynecke and Fourie (2001:17) point out that police commanders/managers should be aware of environmental trends in management leadership. These commanders/managers are required to use technological tools to scan the environment to make appropriate decisions in order to enhance police performance.

4.3.3.6.2   Training communities in modern community crime prevention strategies

According to the participants, training communities in modern community crime prevention practices and tactics is one of the cornerstones of social crime prevention. This training entails both assisting the communities to root out criminal elements and promoting co-operation between these communities, the police, and other crime prevention agencies, like the local

municipal police (Metro police services). They added that this training also involves reaching out to people, who had committed crimes in the past, helping them to see that "crime does not pay". One participant emphasized the importance of this training with the following statement:

> Communities themselves also need to be trained on how to cooperate with and help the police, how to abstain from criminality and the like…eh, Ja. That is it.

Nel, et. al. (2000:55-6) hypothesize that a community safety audit will be a good starting point to mobilize the community towards community crime prevention. After the audit has been completed, they should be provided with the outcomes and a strategy should be formulated to deal with these problems. In this regard, a five step-approach towards a meaningful community crime prevention strategy, is proposed. This strategy consists of:

- Developing a range of focus areas.

- Identifying possible partners and partnerships.

- Identifying possible solutions.

- Selecting the most suitable programmes and refining them.

- Obtaining support for the various programmees (Nel, et. al. (2000:55-6).

In view of this, it appears that a community mobilization strategy is required. This strategy must be communicated properly to everyone concerned. A buy-in approach must be sought and applied, and community members encouraged to participate. Members of the community should be given the opportunity to drive the strategy themselves.

4.3.3.6.3   Neutralizing the negative effect of the policing environment

Participants voiced their concern that their management and line of command in its entirety, was expecting too much from them. They were concerned that the whole line of command was failing to take into account the "turbulent" environment out there where they police the public. Research respondents stated their preparedness to work overtime without being paid, provided that their work was acknowledged and appreciated by management. One participant commented as follows in this respect:

> They expect us to arrest as much as is possible per week. In order to do that you use your own informers and may be the crime is a serious one. You come to work you have nothing told about how good you worked. Outside, you have nothing to offer to your informer. That's why there is no relationship between the police and the community and the one existing is still half.

London and Larsen (1999:11) posit that the type of supervision experienced by employees impacts on both the job satisfaction and commitment. They stated that employees' job

satisfaction is enhanced when superiors provide a supportive environment where they are encouraged to interact and speak out about workplace issues. Similarly, Emmert and Taher (1992:40) posit that employees' job satisfaction and commitment are higher when there is a positive feedback environment both vertically between superiors and employees and horizontally between employees themselves. Kim (2002:236) further identified a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by superiors.

It thus appears that the most important aspects will be the appreciation police officers receive from their immediate commanders within the Police Service. This appreciation should be communicated and an open door-policy should be promoted where employees are at liberty to contribute to the decision-making within and outside the organization. This approach should promote both job satisfaction and commitment.

4.3.3.6.4   Promoting a responsible and caring community

The participants suggested that the communities within the Province must take responsibility for rooting out crime and criminality. Participants regarded their communities as the ones who create and implement crime and criminality. They rear their children who ultimately become criminals by engaging in criminal activities. It is for this reason that it is reasonable to expect the communities to shoulder the responsibility of rooting out crime. Participants conceded the need for a provincial strategy to close the gap that exists between the community and the police, thereby re-integrating police officers with their respective communities. This will ensure that they become representatives and agents of the community in combating crime. One participant emphasized the need for a caring and responsible community to be created within the Province. He said in this regard:

> The National, Provincial, Area or even the Stations, you see, sir, they need to come up with a strategy to put us back to our community. Right now the community has left us and we are fatherless and yet they are supposed to become our fathers.

Robinson and Chandek (2000:282) propose that the community police officer has a responsibility in rooting out crime and criminality. This responsibility is co-shared by the policed community. Community crime prevention programmes must be fully operationalised in order to identify barriers of the social capital. Here the concept of social capital is defined to be the core of the interaction between the police and the community. Pino (2001:200) describes the role of community policing is in realizing that the social capital becomes helpful in measuring the effectiveness of the implementation of community policing. Social capital becomes central to

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community-oriented policing issues. Such issues include trust and genuine dialogue between different groups, the ability to collectively tap into various resources, and the ability of individuals to work together to solve various problems.

Robinson and Chandek (2000:282) maintain that at its core, community policing is a philosophy that includes all efforts of the police to achieve the goal of a closer relationship with the public. Manning (1984:222) adds that community policing attempts to change police-community relations from hierarchical distant and authoritarian relations to egalitarian, intimate, and communal association. It is believed that together, police and public are more effective and more humane co-producers of safety and public order than the police alone (Skolnick & Bayley, 1986:1). In view of this, it can be hypothesized that closing the gap between the community and its officers will minimize the crime levels drastically. It will result in the type of relationship that must be created and sustained.

4.4 CONCLUSION
The aim of this chapter was to provide a description of the key findings of the study by focusing on the three (3) key themes that emanated on the analysis of the data. These were, the definition of the concept "policing accountability", obstacles inhibiting the practice and culture of accountable policing, and strategies to enhance and promote accountable policing practices.

This aim was achieved in two ways. Firstly, by providing an analysis of the definition of policing accountability as perceived by the research participants. Secondly, by identifying and describing both the inhibiting factors that obstruct the implementation of accountable policing, and the strategies suggested by these police officers to promote the culture and a practice of accountable policing. This approach helped in achieving the first objective of the study, which was to explore and describe the perception of these police officers with regard to police and policing accountability. The last objective of the study was to describe guidelines to enhance and promote "policing accountability" within the daily activities and practices of these officers. This goal will be addressed in the next chapter. Chapter 5 is aimed at developing guidelines on how to promote and enhance accountable policing practices within the daily activities of the Gauteng police service.

5.   GUIDELINES AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

The objectives of this study were two-fold. The first objective was to explore and describe the perception of crime prevention police officers in Gauteng Province with regard to "police and policing accountability". The second objective was to identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers to enhance and promote policing accountability in the day-to-day police practices within the Province.

Chapter 1 provided a general overview and rationale of the study. This overview provided a background and motivation of the study, the problem statement with specific emphasis on the nature of the problem, extent of the problem, need for research, and value of the study. Further aspects that were covered in Chapter 1 include the definition of concepts, objectives of the study, a literature review on work done already in the area of police and policing accountability, and the demarcation of the study.

In Chapter 2, an analytical overview of literature guiding the study was critically analyzed. The framework that guided the analysis was provided in a four-dimensional analysis model. This model was developed by Dixon (1999, 2000(a)). The four dimensions of the model are the content of police accountability, the direction of police accountability, the mode of police accountability, and the mechanisms of police accountability.

The research design and methodology for the current study is discussed in Chapter 3. Issues that were dealt with in that chapter include such aspects as the research design, research methods, methods of data collection, method of data analysis, as well as ethical measures that were applied in the study. The validity and reliability criteria as well as measures to ensure ethical rigor of the study were also attended to.

In Chapter 4, the key findings of the study are reported. These findings are classified into three broad themes. These themes are the definition of police and policing accountability, the obstacles that hinder and obstruct the practice and a culture of police and policing accountability, as well as the strategies that were proposed to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of police and policing accountability within Gauteng Province. The first objective of the study, which was to explore the perceptions of crime prevention police officers with regard to policing

accountability were answered in Chapter 4. The biggest challenge in Chapter 5 is to achieve the second objective of the study, namely to identify and describe guidelines to support crime prevention police officers to enhance and promote police and policing accountability in the day-to-day policing practices.

The aim of the present Chapter is to provide the guidelines of the study and to draw recommendations and conclusions from the study. By identifying and outlining guidelines to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within the Gauteng police practices, the second objective of the study will be tackled. In doing this, six strategies will be outlined, described, and analyzed. After the strategies have been outlined, described, and analyzed, the limitation of the study will be identified and described. This will be followed by an identification and an analysis of the recommendations of the study, which will conclude the Chapter.

5.2   GUIDELINES TO PROMOTE AND ENHANCE THE PRACTICE AND A CULTURE OF POLICE AND POLICING ACCOUNTABILITY WITHIN THE GAUTENG POLICE PRACTICES

Gauteng crime prevention police officers identified obstacles, which hinder both the practice and a culture of policing accountability in their daily practices. They further identified and described strategies that can be used as stepping-stones to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing. On the basis thereof, certain guidelines have been identified as mechanisms to enhance and promote both the practice and a culture of accountable policing.

These guidelines, contained in a six-point framework, will be discussed under the following headings:
- A creative problem-solving and decision-making culture.
- A proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture.
- A shared vision within crime prevention.
- Promoting a culture of institutional and structural accountability.
- Efficient crime prevention operations.
- Managing the effects of the policing environment.

5.2.1 A creative problem-solving and decision-making culture

It is proposed that a creative problem solving and decision-making culture is an appropriate strategy to deal with the existing decision-making and problem-solving problems within the Gauteng police practices. This strategy will ensure that the actions and decisions of crime

prevention police officers are not blinded, their actions are not indiscrete, and that there is accountability for every decision that is taken by every police officer. This strategy, which outlines a quadrant-approach of ensuring creative decision-making, is proposed in this regard. This approach contains four elements, namely:

- An accountable decision-making culture.
- Training in problem-solving.
- "Fast and sharp" thinking skills.
- Ability to account for decisions and actions as well as a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability.

● **Proposal 1: An accountable decision-making culture**

Participants proposed a triad approach in order to ensure that an accountable decisions-making culture was institutionalized within the police practices of Gauteng Province. This approach targets frontline crime prevention police officers, crime prevention managers/commanders, and the police organization as an institution of public safety and security.

The frontline crime prevention police officer approach proposes that an accountable decision-making culture must be developed and implemented within the frontline police practices by means of a dual strategy. This dual-strategy is aimed at bringing home an understanding to all the police officers just how much public scrutiny is inherent in their daily lives as officers of the law. It is also aimed at ensuring that an accountable decision-making culture prevails within police practices.

Firstly, the development and implementation of this culture must be filtered throughout the provincial police chain of command (organization). This filtering must permeate every level of the provincial police hierarchy. A special attention must be paid to the line crime prevention police officers as frontline service providers. Secondly, this filtering must be paralleled with continuous education and training in order to create awareness and foster a culture of continuous learning about how police actions and decisions should promote public life and harmonious mutual co-existence.

This dual approach to embedding an accountable decision-making culture is supported. The base for this support is that police officers learn accountable decision-making from their peers in the situational context 89% of the time as compared to only 3% of police learning that takes

place through the Police Academy training (Cancino, 2001:154). This means that in order to improve the efficacy of police decision-making within crime prevention police practices, field-based decision-making skills and culture must be prioritized and that police training must target it as a priority aspect in a concerted effort towards accountable policing.

Research participants proposed that the second way of developing an accountable decision-making culture was within the crime prevention managerial/commander echelons. It was proposed that this must be done through the creation of an accountable managerial decision-making culture within the police management echelons. In order to do this, a five-point decision-making improvement programme was proposed for commanders to enhance their decision-making. Police commanders must do the following in order to improve their decision-making skills:

- analyze the situation;
- become aware of biases;
- combine rationale analysis with their personal intuition;
- abstain from assuming that their specific decision-making style/s are appropriate for
  every task/job; and
- use creativity stimulation techniques to improve their decision-making (Robbins, 1998:121).

Apart from these two approaches (frontline police officer approach and the manager/commander approach) that are proposed to inculcate an accountable decision-making culture, an organizational approach of inculcating an accountable decision-making culture was also proposed as the third way (Cancino, 2001; Manning, 1999; Slovak, 1986). This approach suggests three levels in which a continuous culture of accountable decision-making can be embedded and immersed within the Gauteng police service/organization. First, decision-making must take place at an individual level through guidance and supervision. Here, police supervisors, coaches, and mentors must provide adequate guidance to police officers on a continuous basis. Providing such guidance and supervision will assist in limiting and guiding the wide range of individual police officer discretion. This will help in creating boundaries for individual police officer behaviour and actions. Second, a continuous introduction of an accountable decision-making culture must take place at an organizational level by means of sharing knowledge among police officers about vision, mission, goals, and objectives of their police station, area, Province, and that of the SAPS head office. The introduction of this culture must be reinforced through coaching, mentoring, as well as direct and indirect control

mechanisms. The reinforcement of the decision-making culture will ensure that there is uniformity of police action and behaviour, decision-making and line of thinking/frame of reference. Third, the introduction of an accountable decision-making culture must take place at a social level through the various societal structures. These structures must monitor police officer action and behaviour. They must also evaluate police performance on a continuous basis. This will ensure that police officers and their departments act in a uniform manner, that they do not pursue goals and objectives that oppose social norms and values, and that they continue to offer superior police performance (Cancino, 2001; Manning, 1999; Slovak, 1986).

- **Proposal 2: Training in problem-solving**

Training in problem solving is regarded as another strategy to create an accountable decision-making and problem-solving culture within crime prevention. Training in problem-solving within the police service should be directed and conducted at two levels. These levels are, the basic police training (Police Academy) and in-service police training (on-the-job training). The basic training in problem-solving should be generic and non-specialized. The in-service training in problem-solving should be more specialized and its curricula should be tailored to meet the needs of the crime prevention units.

At both levels of the training, it was suggested that trainers must use case studies and live stories. This usage was believed to be a way to illustrate problem-solving methodologies, limit problem reoccurrence, and to ensure the longevity of the decisions/solution packages. The research participants recommended that creative problem-solving, as taught at other service organizations, should be used, as it helps in breeding creativity. It also helps in promoting the longevity of decisions that are taken. One respondent justified this strategy of problem solving training to promote a creative problem-solving and decision-making culture. He said:

> Because of the public eyes on the police, you have to be seen solving a problem and its results should last longer otherwise they will question it.

Researchers (Van Der Waldt & Du Toit, 1998; Nel et. al., 2000) provide various approaches to training in problem-solving. These approaches start with basic skill training categories, and then offer management-based approaches. Robbins (1998:558-559) provides four skill categories that can be of use to (police) officers. These skills are basic, technical, interpersonal, and problem-solving skills. These skills offer the best solution when taught, offered, and applied as both an on-and–off-the-job training programme. Problem-solving skills are recommended mainly for both line (crime prevention) officers and their managers/commanders, who perform non-

routine tasks and jobs, as a tool to solve job-related issues or problems. During these training programmes, police officers will participate in problem-solving activities. These activities include activities to sharpen their logic, reasoning, and problem defining skills, as well as their abilities to assess causation of the problem, develop alternative solutions, analyze the alternative solutions, and select the appropriate solution(s) (Robbins, 1998:558-559).

- **Proposal 3: "Fast and sharp" thinking skills**

A skills approach that is based on "quick and clear" thinking was proposed to promote and enhance an accountable creative decision-making and problem-solving culture. Participants suggested that police officers should be trained to "think on their feet" when they are required to take operational decisions. It was acknowledged that cultural differences make it impossible for police officers to react to stimuli at the same speed. It is for this reason that the issue of refresher-training and other soft-skills training programmes were recommended.

Participants indicated that the police decision to use coercive force is a very bold option, and should be resorted to as a last option. A decision of that nature involves the possibility of above average force that can be lethal and end a human life. Considering the constitutional value of human life, namely that the Constitution of 1996 guarantees human life, police officers should be wary to take these bold decisions. It is this reason that makes the proposal, that police officers must always be encouraged to look beyond the immediate situation at hand in an attempt to discover the underlying causes of community problems, a living reality (Eck & Spelman, 1987; Goldstein, 1990; Robinson, 2000).

Thinking skills is a technique that can be learnt and taught both on the job and through practice. Robbins (1998:105) is of the view that creativity is the best way to improve thinking skills. He suggests four methods that can be used to stimulate individual creativity, which can also be applicable within the policing context. These are:

- *Direct-instruction* can be applied by instructing a police officer to be creative. It is based on encouraging (police) officers to seek creative options of solving problems. This leads them to seek unique and alternative solutions and increase unique solutions to problems.
- *Attribute listing* can be applied by an (police) officer by isolating the major characteristics of traditional alternatives. Each major attribute of the alternative to a problem is considered in turn, and is altered in every conceivable way. In this exercise, no ideas are rejected,

irrespective of how ridiculous they seem. Once this extensive list is complete, the constraints of the problem are imposed in order to eliminate all but the viable alternatives.

- *Practicing lateral thinking (zig-zag approach)* stimulates creativity, the opposite approach to vertical thinking. In lateral thinking, each step in individual officer's thinking emphasizes thinking sideways. Thus it is by not developing a pattern but restructuring an existing pattern. Lateral thinkers do not have to be correct at every step, as in some cases it may be necessary to go through a wrong path or area in order to reach a position from which a correct path may be viable and visible. Lateral thinking is also not restricted to relevant information as it deliberately uses random or irrelevant information to bring about a new way of looking at the problem.

- *Synectics approach* can be applied by a police officer through the use of analogies and inverted rationale to make the strange familiar and the familiar strange. This approach operates by viewing the problem in new ways, by trying to abandon the familiar ways of doing things. In this approach crime prevention officers must abandon the known causes of problems and seek totally unfamiliar ways which police practice informs them to pursue, for example, by starting new ways of preventing crimes instead of using the traditional patrols or other familiar strategies (Robbins, 1998:105).

- **Proposal 4: Ability to account for police actions and decisions and a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability**

It is proposed that a police practice and a culture that is based upon the ability of a crime prevention police officer to account for actions and decisions and that a culture of equitableness, measurability, and reasonableness must be inculcated and immersed throughout the police organization. According to the research participants, this refers to the ability of a police officer to take decisions and act in ways that are equitable, measurable, and reasonable. It also refers to the institutionalization of this culture throughout the police chain of command.

Participants emphasized that that the responsibility to discharge a police account is not only restricted to the simple furnishing of an explanation regarding the cause of police action and decision. This responsibility requires that police actions and decisions must meet the essential criteria of equitability, reasonability, and measurability. The cogency of that account should be monitored by means of the reasonable man's test. This test is currently the most known and applied criterion within the legal fraternity. According to the participants, skills training and on-going refresher training must be undertaken from time-to-time to ensure that they fulfil the

requirements of equitability, reasonability, and measurability in their actions and decisions (Geldenhuys & Joubert, 1994:93).

In the Matlou v Makhubela 1978 (1) SA 946 (A) decision, Chief Justice Rumpff, proposed a proportioned principle into police behaviour. According to him, the proportionality of police behaviour requires that there should be some form of a relation between the means employed by police officers and the seriousness of the offence committed by the accused person. The application of this proportionality principle requires that police officers must be able to account for actions and decisions through a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability. Police officers are required to adhere and comply with three essential operational prerequisites.

These operational requirements are:
- The amount and method of discretion and the means employed must be in a proportional balance to the goal and objective to be achieved. The means must be of such a minimal nature that it would be reasonably effective and feasible in the circumstances prevailing.
- Proportionality also includes the weighing up of the nature and seriousness of the specific cause or act performed against the amount and method of the means used.
- The police response must both be necessary and justifiable in an open and democratic society based upon three values, namely liberty and freedom, democracy, and human dignity and equality.

From the above, it can be construed that a creative decision-making and problem-solving culture must be developed; nurtured, and institutionalized within the chain of command of the SAPS. This should ensure that police practices in the province are accountable. In this regard, a six - step rational decision-making approach is recommended as a strategy that can include both decision-making and problem-solving. This six-step approach can be applied to all non-programmed (non-repetitive) decisions.

The approach proposes that a crime prevention police officer must:
- recognize and investigate the need for a decision;
- set goals and their evaluation criteria;
- generate alternatives;
- evaluate alternatives;
- select the best alternative or decision; and

- implement the alternative (decision) and monitor its results (De Jager, Schutte & Van Beeck, 2002:53-60; Van Der Waldt & Du Toit, 1998:222-223).

5.2.2 An appropriate crime prevention managerial leadership culture

It is proposed that an appropriate crime prevention-orientated managerial leadership culture is an appropriate strategy to deal with the existing problem of police station managerial leadership inadequacy. Participants identified ten strategies that can assist in ensuring that an appropriate crime prevention-orientated managerial leadership culture is implemented within the Gauteng police practices. These strategies were regarded as both necessary and appropriate stepping-stones to promote and enhance the practice and a culture of accountable policing.

These strategies are by:
- Implementing the police code of conduct attentively.
- Developing and implementing a police collegial support system.
- Empowering crime prevention police officers (CPOs) with new tactics, skills and new work methods.
- Realigning police support systems with crime prevention.
- Developing and implementing an efficient crime prevention-orientated performance management system.
- Promoting both an open door policy and participative management leadership style and culture.
- Retraining and re-orientating both operational police officers and their commanders in modern crime prevention strategies and methodologies.
- Emphasizing the "lead-by-example" (LBE) management leadership culture.
- Putting in place a management leadership culture that serves as an example.
- Re-engineering the policing strategy for Gauteng Province.

●   Proposal 1: An attentive implementation of the police code of conduct

It was suggested that by attentively and correctively implementing the code of conduct will ensure the improvement of the managerial leadership style and culture at the police stations, area level, and the Gauteng Province. According to the SAPS National Strategic Plan (2004-2007), the police code of conduct commits the police in three areas, namely that they are:
- Committed in creating a safe and secure environment for all by participating in endeavours to address the root causes of crime in the community.

- Preventing action which may threaten the safety or security of any community.
- Investigating criminal conduct which has endangered the safety or security of the community and bringing the perpetrators thereof to justice.

In order for the SAPS to realize this commitment, it was suggested that the police must apply the Policing-By-Objectives (PBO) management approach. The PBO management process suggests four strategic tools (or areas) which should be used in attentively implementing the code of conduct. For management of the SAPS in the various lines of command in the Province to implement this process attentively, there are four strategic actions which management must engage in, namely:
- A structural conversion of the SAPS code of conduct from an institutional document to become an individual police officer code of practice. This should be done by using police institutional communication and delegation to communicate the code of conduct to members and to provide resources to meet the goals of this process.
- Individualization of the code of conduct by police officers at all levels. This should be done by training police officers in its contents and having them sign the document to confirm that they accept to live by the code.
- Establishing the required police performance and police conduct in accordance with the principles of the police code of conduct. This should be done by assessing whether police practice at the local level is delivered in accordance with the standards set in the code.
- Benchmarking the standards of the SAPS code of conduct. This should be done to determine whether the goals are being achieved. If not, to establish the causes of the non-attainment of the goals of the police code of conduct as set out (adapted from Botha, 1993:20-40).

Apart from the PBO strategic implementation mechanisms, participants identified and described three ways in which the implementation of the code of conduct must be done properly, namely:
- Management must ensure a greater awareness of the crime prevention police officer accountability through service and motto.
- Management must embed the provisions of the code of conduct into the daily practices and activities of the crime prevention police officers.
- Management should revisit and revise the code of conduct from time to time.

It was suggested that police officers and their commanders/managers require training on how police officers can implement and live by the code of conduct on a daily basis. Thus a greater

need for training in the implementation and living by the code of conduct in the daily activities of a crime prevention police officer was identified. This identification was regarded as a good strategy to embed the provisions of the code of conduct into the crime prevention police officer's daily activities. By attentively implementing the code of conduct and singing it as a song everyday would help in dealing with public complaints. This will also be achieved by implementing the *Batho Pele*/Putting People First Public Service code of service delivery. It was suggested that the attentive implementation of both the police code of conduct and the "Batho Pele" principles into the daily practices and activities of the crime prevention police officer will ensure that when a person calls in for police assistance, the attending police officer will know exactly how to help that person.

● **Proposal 2: Developing and implementing a collegial support system**

Research participants proposed that by developing and implementing a collegial support system should ensure a proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture. According to the participants, this collegial support system refers to the development of a support system for members going through tough times in their life. This will ensure that police managerial support systems are accessible, and that management is seen to adopt a supportive and proper management style and culture. Although participants acknowledged that the police department does offer them support like counselling and psychological care. However, they were adamant that it would be better if their management would render them moral support while still adhering to the required professional standards in the form of the due process. Police officers need their management to continue offering this support until they have completed the required processes (e.g. disciplinary hearings).

There are at least seven stakeholders that are regarded as the solution and structures for managing the effect of trauma and crises in the police organization. They are the individual members of the SAPS; peer support; police management; SAPS as an organization; SAPS Helping Professions; family members and friends; and the community at large.

The main strategy identified for preventing these crises and trauma is the training of police management and other significant role players in the strategies of managing crises and trauma and the utilization of these support structures (Nel, 1999:37-41).

- **Proposal 3: Empowering crime prevention police officers (CPO's) with new police tactics, skills, and new work methods**

Research participants suggested that by empowering crime prevention police officers with new police tactics, skills, and new work methods will result in the discharge of managerial responsibility that is expected of the station management in order to empower members. Police officers need to be empowered with skills that are required for their daily tasks. These skills have to be as comprehensive and broad as is possible. Included in the curricula in order to impart these skills are such issues as decision-making in crime prevention, working together as a crime prevention team, excelling at an individual level as crime prevention police officers, applying their minds at work as officers of the law, and strategic crime prevention.

It was recommended that the SAPS training division must consistently feed police officers with new knowledge, skills, and policing tactics. A study by the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD Annual Report, 2002/2003) concurs with the police need for training in new tactics, work methods, and skills. The ICD found that training to reduce police risky behaviour should focus on four broad areas. These areas are:
- Training in conflict resolution and mediation skills for police officers.
- Simulation training in modern police practices.
- Weapons handling tactics training.
- Refresher training in advanced police practices.

The report highlighted that conflict mediation in particular, was very important for operational police officers. It also highlighted that poor people management skills, lack of conflict mediation skills, and lack of skills in implementing anger management, were all prevalent within the SAPS. The ICD recommended an immediate implementation of training courses in these areas. It also stated that such courses must be supplemented with a wide range of other life skills training and stress management techniques.

- **Proposal 4: Realigning police operational support systems with crime prevention**

Research participants proposed that by realigning police operations support systems with crime prevention will ensure maximum crime prevention throughput, thereby making police officers more accountable. In turn, this will ensure that a proper crime prevention managerial leadership style and culture, are both put in place. They indicated that since they perform crime prevention on a daily basis, they are operational in character and require operational support. The required

support includes financial, logistical, and other support systems. The alignment of logistical support systems with crime prevention is a necessity to prevent the current procurement policy ending up being in conflict with the crime prevention policy when it is re-visited.

According to Walsh (2001:354) line police officers are operational. He warns that it is necessary that their resources are structured accordingly. He believes that the solution lies in the alignment of resources with operations. In addition, he proposes that an adoption of the Compstat management leadership style and culture is a workable solution. This management leadership style is the current strategy pursued by the New York Police Department, which has helped reduce crime by 50%. This police management leadership style and culture proposes a rapid focused deployment of both personnel and resources. Operational commanders are empowered with an authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives. The commander can, at a meeting, ask for additional resources that are urgently required. In receiving this request, the commissioner can shift resources from one commander to the other as tactical needs dictate. In using this management leadership style, the commander can apply its principles. These principles consist of four elements. These elements are accurate and timely intelligence; rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources; effective police tactics; and relentless follow-up and assessment (Bratton & Knobler, 1998:224).

● **Proposal 5: Promoting both an open door policy and participative management leadership culture**

Participants proposed that by promoting both an open door policy and participative management leadership style can enhance the police station management leadership style and culture. This will ensure that a proper crime prevention managerial leadership style and culture are put in place. Research participants indicated that their local police station management must start off by using them as a database or pool of knowledge on operational issues. They acquire this operational knowledge from their interaction with the members of their various communities. The acquisition of this knowledge helps them to identify operational problems and to develop relevant solutions to these problems from the community itself. As a crime prevention team, they come together to share the knowledge they have acquired. In this way, both individual police officers and the SAPS organizational learning take place. This new knowledge elevates and empowers police officers, and they gain a better understanding of their tasks.

There are three strategies that are suggested on how an open door policy and participative management leadership style and culture can be promoted within the crime prevention police practices. The first is that superiors should provide a supportive environment where employees are encouraged to interact and speak out about workplace issues to enhance job satisfaction and increase operational accountability. The second strategy is that superiors must create a positive feedback environment both vertically (between superiors and employees), and horizontally (between police officers themselves). This increases both job satisfaction and commitment. The third strategy identifies the need for the existence of a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by superiors (Emmert & Taher, 1992:37-48; Kim, 1992:231-241; London & Larsen, 1999:15-20).

The promotion of both an open door policy and participative management leadership culture cannot be achieved by means of these three strategies alone. Trust plays a pivotal role in participative management. The importance accorded to the relationship of trust between management and team members gives a clear indication of the role of police management. The creation and sustenance of this relationship is not and should not be the sole responsibility of management. Instead, a partnership should be created between police commanders/managers and their operational police officers. In this partnership, both parties are required to recognize and uphold their responsibilities (Van Der Waldt & Du Toit, 1998:73).

It is believed that the lack of participative management results from the failure of team members to inspire trust by their management through their conduct and attitude. This results in a situation where management becomes less inclined to delegate any powers and authority to such subordinates. It is for these reasons that Van Der Waldt and Du Toit (1998:73) provide the requirements for trust in participative management as an ingredient for promoting both an open door policy and participative management. These requirements are support (availability and approachability of the manager to give assistance, advice, and support); respect (emerges in the delegation of decision-making powers and active listening to the ideas of others); communication (keeping team members informed on decisions and providing accurate feedback); fairness (crediting and recognizing good performance); predictability (keeping consistency in daily issues); and competence (demonstrating conceptual, human, as well as technical skills and professionalism to enhance credibility).

- **Proposal 6: Retraining and re-orientating both operational crime prevention police officers and their commanders in modern crime prevention strategies and methodologies**

Research participants suggested that by retraining and re-orientating both operational crime prevention police officers and their commanders in modern crime prevention strategies and methodologies will enhance managerial leadership credibility and accountability. Participants emphasized that in-service training should be repositioned to offer them and their commanders, new tactics and strategies in crime prevention. These training initiatives should help in dealing with modern criminal tactics and will improve the police handling of new trends in criminality and the management of crime prevention operations. This training should be aimed at ensuring that the strategies developed by police officers, through this training, are in line with the constitutional demands and international trends in modern crime prevention.

The review of the various generic training programmes that build high performing companies and organizations as well as work teams highlights the need for a diversity of programmmes that must be offered to the members of the SAPS. Four different programmes are outlined in this regard. These programmes are:

- *Basic literacy skills* should enable police officers to read and write and to take part in the workplace numerical discussions.
- *Technical skills* are directed at upgrading and improving police officer's technical skills.
- *Interpersonal skills* are aimed at improving police work performance by enabling police officers to effectively interact with each other. It should also focus on enabling both police officers and their management to interact positively, and to better their listening, communicating, and team work. To achieve this, there are two such skills that were identified. These skills are awareness skills and the training in skills building. The *awareness skills* are skills that assist in embracing diversity. The *skill-building training* deals with managing differences within and outside the work place.
- *Problem-solving skills* help in sharpening police officer's logic, reasoning, problem-identification and defining, as well as to assess causation, develop and analyze alternatives, and selecting solutions (Robbins, 1998:559).

- **Proposal 7: Emphasizing the "lead-by-example" (LBE) management leadership culture**

Participants suggested that by practicing the "lead-by-example" (LBE) management leadership culture will enhance and promote the station managerial leadership culture. According to the

research participants, these practices were applicable to the police officers, their commanders, and the community at large. The identification of this practice came as a need to ensure a proper managerial leadership style after participants complained that there were a variety of conflicting views during their daily activities. The police had their own views, and so did the community. Thus, a need was identified to integrate these varieties of viewpoint into a single coherent view.

In order to achieve this coherency, a dualistic approach was proposed to enable a smooth coherence of these viewpoints from both the police and their communities. This approach immerses both the community responsibility and the police executive decision-making.

First, a police- or agent-based "lead-by-example" type of practicing what is being preached is suggested (Moore & Braga, 2003:441). In this approach, it is suggested that police executives should promote and practice the will of the community, as the sovereign will. It is also required of these executives to demonstrate and demand the adherence to the will of the community by their subordinates at all levels. Police executives are required to do this by preaching the will of their community to their police officers. This must be done through practice, preaching, embracing, and acknowledging to themselves and their subordinates. It is also required of these executives to convert this will of the community into an everyday police practice. It is believed that this executive responsibility, when discharged accordingly, will enhance accountable policing on a daily basis.

Second, a public service-based approach is suggested (Moore, 1995; Moore & Braga, 2003). This approach suggests how public service must adhere to the will of the community by creating public community values. It suggests a way in which public value is created and should be pursued within the public service in order to achieve this. It proposes two ways in which public value should be created and pursued within the whole spectra of the public service. These two ways are by:
(i) Requiring senior police executives and their departmental heads to align their departments with community values. This must be done by demanding adherence to them (as shown under the first approach above), adopting a police managerial leadership style that demands the acceptance and embedment of community values into police practices as a legitimate and binding course.
(ii) Realigning conflicting interests between police operations and public values. This should be d done in such a way that these conflicting interests become a coherent daily practice for the

police. Such practice should become acceptable to the operational crime prevention officers and the whole police department.

For both the police and public service-based strategies, the role of living and advocating good police practices is strongly emphasized and encouraged (Moore, 1995; Moore & Braga, 2003).

- **Proposal 8: Putting in place a management leadership culture that serves as an example**

Participants proposed that a management leadership style and culture that serves as an example should be put in place within local police stations. This will enhance and promote policing and police institutional and police managerial accountability. Both the operational crime prevention police officers and their commanders have to set good examples for each other. Accordingly, the treatment of members by their commanders should reflect a good organizational vision and strategy for the public. It must also be a good reflection on the way members deal with individual cases and members of the public. One research respondent summarized the impact of management leadership style on the image of the police organization and public perception by saying that they had to become the mirror of the SAPS Head Office. The police officer stated that what was agreed upon at the World Trade Centre (the negotiations of the new South African democracy) and the Police Plan had to be demonstrated during their police operations. He said:

> We have to become the mirror of the Police Head Office. What was agreed about at the World Trade Centre and the Police Plan has to be demonstrated during our operations.

There is no consensus about the right formula for a management leadership style that could serve as an example (Emmert & Taher, 1992; London & Larsen, 1999; Luthans, 1988; Moore & Braga, 2003; Reynecke & Fourie, 2001; Robbins, 1998; Walsh, 2001). However, a proposal to that effect seems to come from a strong urge to look at what managers do from another perspective. This should be done by focusing at both "What successful managers do?" and "What effective managers do?" Usually, both these managers are believed to engage in four managerial leadership activities.

These activities are:
- Traditional management (decision-making, planning, controlling, organizing, leading, and coordination).

- Communication (exchanging routine information and processing paperwork).
- Human resource management (motivating, disciplining, managing conflict, staffing, and training).
- Networking (socializing, politicking, and interacting with outsiders), (Luthans, 1988; Luthans, Hodgetts, & Rosenkranz, 1988).

Therefore, putting in place a managerial leadership style that serves as an example in Gauteng Province requires the execution of two activities, namely:
- conducting training for all these four managerial leadership activities.
- requiring all managers/commanders in the Province to master the practice, principles, and a culture of all these four activities. It is required that all operational police officers should be inducted and trained in these four skills through facilitating, counseling, coaching, and mentoring. Their mastering of these skills should be monitored through field-based case studies and community feedback. The engagement of the Field Training Officers (FTO's) at the police stations should also assists in the monitoring of the novice police officers (young recruits).

● **Proposal 9: Re-engineering the policing strategy for Gauteng Province**
It was suggested that a coordinated approach to crime prevention can only be achieved by re-engineering the policing strategy for the Province in order to implement a proper crime prevention managerial leadership style. It is very important for the Province to develop an integrated crime combating strategy that could be merged into a credible police management style and culture.

This implies the need for a workable and practical strategy for the police and the community in the Province. From the community responsibility perspective, participants opined that the CPFs and other community-based organizations (CBO's) were required to develop a similar strategy to combat crime. From a police responsibility perspective, it was suggested that a credible crime combating strategy (CCS) must be developed at the local level. It must be based on the premise that the police can and should control crime and improve the livability of neighbourhoods. A total paradigm and mind shift from the traditional law enforcement police management leadership style to a community-based problem-solving paradigm is required. This approach should be based upon four fundamental principles. These principles are:
- an accurate and timely intelligence;

- rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources;

- effective policing tactics; and

- relentless follow-up and assessment (Bratton & Knobler, 1998:224; Walsh, 2001:353).

● **Proposal 10: Developing and implementing an efficient crime prevention performance management system**

Research participants proposed that by developing and implementing an efficient crime prevention-orientated performance management system will ensure that a proper crime prevention managerial leadership culture is put in place. This will enhance and improve the overall policing strategy in the Province. Participants opined that by developing a new performance management system for crime prevention would be a great ideal for attaining new heights. However, they also acknowledged the difficulty in doing this, because there exists no such system to measure against when someone prevented a crime pro-actively or did not.

However, a four-layered performance management approach that is crime combating-orientated is proposed to manage police performance in the Province. This four-layer approach is based upon:

- A strong executive team;

- The use of a crime intelligence gathering and processing strategy;

- A managerial accountability to prevent and control crime and to police the various
   communities; and

- A Policing-By-Objectives (PBO) process management approach (Bratton & Knobler, 1998;
   Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

This four-layered approach is founded upon four principles. These principles are:

- Intelligence driven through accurate and timely intelligence.

- A coordinated and accountable strategy that utilizes available, flexible resources through a
   rapid focused deployment of personnel and resources.

- A locally and results-driven performance measurement system through effective police tactics.

- Holding all management layers to account through a relentless follow-up and assessment
(Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

5.2.3 A shared vision within the crime prevention police practices

It is proposed that a crucial step towards enhancing and promoting the culture and a practice of accountable policing at the police station level should be achieved through the practice and a

culture of visionary managerial leadership. Participants proposed six strategies to enhance and promote an approach based upon a shared vision within crime prevention. These strategies are by:

- Developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership culture within crime prevention.
- Repositioning the police's core business as crime prevention.
- Emphasizing the practice of "quality service and policing efficiency".
- Applying "professional customer care" within the crime prevention police practices.
- Restructuring the component of crime prevention and response services at local level within the whole Province.
- Developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system and strategy.

● **Proposal 1: Developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership culture within the crime prevention police practices**

Research participants proposed that by developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership style and culture within crime prevention will assists in visionary leadership practice and culture. It is believed that the practice and a culture of visionary leadership within crime prevention should ensure that accountable policing is practised. Participants suggested two ways in which visionary police leadership can be developed and implemented within the crime prevention police practices.

The first way is by training crime prevention police officers and their commanders/managers in visionary police leadership. According to them, this training was lacking, mainly within the management echelons. The viewpoint supporting police training in visionary leadership as a preceding leadership activity is required (Govender, 2001:145). Within the four core leadership activities, developing and preaching a police vision is regarded as central to every police managerial leadership activity. Therefore, the police manager and leader is regarded as a vision setter, the clear champion of the vision, and the ardent supporter of the vision.

The second way is, once the vision has been identified, the provincial leadership has to do three activities that are central to visionary leadership roles.

- Activity one involves this leadership having to be able to explain the vision to every member and every organizational echelon, including the cleaner. The police station leadership must clarify the vision in terms of required aims and actions. In doing this they must use clear oral

and written communication.

- Activity two involves police leadership having to be able to express the said vision not just verbally but through their own behaviour. They must behave in ways that continually convey and reinforce the set vision.

- Activity three involves the police station leadership having to extend the set vision to different leadership contexts. They must sequence activities in such a way that the vision can be applied in a variety of situations (Govender, 2001145; Robbins, 1998:376-377).

● **Proposal 2: Repositioning the police's core business as crime prevention.**

Research participants proposed that by repositioning the core business of the police as crime prevention will enhance the practice and a culture of visionary leadership within crime prevention. They emphasized the need to revert to the traditional policing principle, the one in which the South African Constitution's police goals and objectives are based, namely to prevent crime. Crime prevention is the first prioritized police object in the Constitution. Therefore, the two things that need to be focused upon are, how the crime prevention service is being rendered, and to assess whether this rendering measures up to the standard set for crime prevention. This means a focus on the quality of that service and the responsiveness of the service provider. In proposing the need for the police to revert to their traditional police core business, one research respondent offered the following response. He said that "the actual thing for crime prevention is to empty the cells and not feel them".

In reverting and repositioning this vision, it is believed at the core of any strategic and visionary police management and leadership style lies a strong information-sharing that informs strategic operations. A strong strategy towards crime prevention-orientation should encapsulate the conduct of strategic weekly crime management and control meetings. The aim of these meetings is to increase the flow of information among senior management and their unit commanders. The other aim is to ensure the accountability of this process to each and every member of the whole command structure. These meetings enable police senior management to discuss and analyze crime patterns and high profile incidents, as well as to review police tactics and results on a face-to-face basis with operational commanders. This eliminates the communication barriers inherent in large bureaucratic organizations at the same time. In this process, the primary responsibility for day-to-day police operations within the police stations must be placed in the hands of the station commanders. It is believed that this will enable senior managers within the Province to discover and identify station commanders that rise to the challenge by

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adopting a results-orientated strategy to reduce crime in their respective police stations. In this way, the role of senior police management is to align police operations to communal needs and demands. Senior management is required to do this in three ways:

- First, they have to strengthen their constituencies to enable them to evaluate and assess the overall performance of the police organization.

-Second, they have to align and ensure the alignment of their police departments with the values of their communities.

- Third, they have to align community interests with police operations (Bratton & Knobler, 1998:239; Moore & Braga, 2003:441; Silverman in Walsh, 2001:352; Walsh, 351-352).

● **Proposal 3: Emphasizing the practice of "quality police service and policing efficiency"**

Research participants proposed that by emphasizing the practice of "policing quality service and efficiency" in crime prevention will assist in the practice and a culture of visionary leadership. In turn, this will enhance and promote accountable policing practices. Improving crime prevention operations require a mind shift from crime prevention police officers and their commanders. This shift should take place by demonstrating to these police officers that the discharge of their functions is not solely about what they do. It is mainly about how they go about executing their functional mandate, namely how they perform their crime prevention police work. It is not only about the fact that they render crime prevention services but it is also about how they render them, which involves efficiency/efficacy and effectiveness. In this way, the quality of police services that are rendered will be evaluated on the basis of how efficient and effective it is rendered. It is for this reason that the concepts "quality and efficiency" are interrelated in that quality determines the "how" and efficiency determines the "output or results" of crime prevention operations.

The mind shift that is required from these police officers and the inherent police quality service and efficacy poses a huge managerial leadership challenge. In view of this challenge, it is suggested that a trans-national comparative policing approach might provide the solution. Walsh (2001:353) is of the opinion that such an approach might lie in the Compstat policing strategy. This strategy has been practiced by all police officers within the policing precincts of the NYPD in New York. He believes that the process of the Compstat strategy, which is utilized through an integrated police accountability structure from the police executive level down to the line constable level, establishes police accountability at all managerial levels. The responsibility of

the police executive (senior management) is to provide executive leadership and direction. The executive head of the police (Commissioner) is required to focus the police on the efficiency and effectiveness of their operations. In this way, the whole police organization becomes focused on its mission.

This approach thus involves the whole police organization and goes way beyond the incremental structural changes that are required during the implementation of community policing and sector policing eras. The Compstat policing approach however retains the police organizational leadership style similar to the one established in 1829 by Sir Robert Peel for the British police force. Within the Compstat policing approach, police efficiency and effectiveness is an executive responsibility. In order to ensure that it is adopted and implemented throughout the whole police organization (institution-wide) requires police institutional strategic adjustments, executive alignment, and institutional arrangements.

The implication for the adoption of this policing approach within the Gauteng police practices can be interpreted in four ways:
- First, it implies that police efficiency and effectiveness is an executive responsibility.
- Second, it requires an assurance that the standards of efficiency, quality, and effectiveness within the police practices are implemented.
- Third, it also implies an inherent adoption of these measures by the whole police organization.
- Fourth, it requires the Gauteng provincial police service to effect a strategic adjustment, an executive alignment, and institutional arrangements that are deemed necessary in order to achieve the goals that were set.

● **Proposal 4: Applying "professional customer care" within the crime prevention police practices**
Research participants proposed that applying professional customer care within the police practices will enhance and promote a shared vision within crime prevention. It was suggested that this must be done by living and embracing the principle that "the customer is always right" in crime prevention. Doing this should also assist in sharing a proper vision within crime prevention thereby enhancing and promoting accountable policing practices. It was indicated that this principle was dominant within the whole spectrum of the public service. Specific reference was made to the introduction of the police code of conduct, the police plan, and the *Batho Pele* public

service standards and service strategy as exemplary ways towards the application of professional customer services within the police practices.

Two respondents cited a case where they attended to a complaint. They were left with many options, one of which was whether to enforce the law or solve the problem according to the wishes of the complainant. They became uncertain of what to do because the media always scrutinizes their discretion and their decisions. Professional customer care is sometimes difficult to maintain because of such uncertainties. Most participants regarded the incidents of domestic violence cases as very relevant to the application of this principle.

It is recommended that applying a victim-based policing strategy can eliminate this uncertainty. In such an instance, the application of a customer-based policing approach, while bearing in mind the requirements of problem-oriented policing, is suggested. In addition, Robinson and Chandek (2000) provide various case-based recommendations, including the following:
- Police officers must provide victims of domestic violence with information necessary to participate successfully in the prosecution of their cases.
- Police officers must go beyond the "just the facts, ma'am" approach in many cases to provide victims with emotional support.
- Police officers must become knowledgeable about other agencies that offer victim assistance and often provide referrals to these agencies.
- By applying the professional customer care approach to the policing of domestic violence requires the police to adopt a mission of making the victim's navigation through the Criminal Justice System both less traumatic and less difficult. Simultaneously, police officers should aim to increase the proportion of cases ending in arrest and prosecution.

● **Proposal 5: Restructuring the component of crime prevention and response services at the local level**

Research participants proposed that the division of crime prevention and response services must be restructured at local level within the whole Gauteng Province. This restructuring should assist in the practice and a culture of visionary leadership within crime prevention, thereby enhancing and promoting accountable policing. According to them, response service should be extended beyond suburban areas and provincial borders. This should also include all the townships, as that is where the criminals are perceived to hide most of the time when the police want them. However, an opposing view is held by Bratton and Knobler (1998:224). They argue

that the police should depart from the traditional practice of creating organizational subdivisions into competing power centres fighting over limited resources. This argument suggests that police managers/commanders should not only be concerned about institutional arrangements and restructuring. Rather, they should continue exploring the implementation possibilities of the assertion that the Compstat approach empowers operational commanders. Commanders are vested with the necessary authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives. It is thus clear that it is not about the institutional arrangement of the crime prevention function as the participants purport. It is about their operational commanders understanding that they have the power and authority to institute organizational arrangements and structuring in order to put their strategies into motion and being accountable for their actions. Walsh (2001:353) claims that the Compstat managerial paradigm is a managerial perspective based on the belief that the police can and should control crime and improve the livability of neighbourhoods and not just react to crime.

- **Proposal 6: Developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system and strategy**

Participants suggested that developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system and strategy, will assists in the practice and culture of envisioned leadership within crime prevention. This strategy entails developing a database of the incidents occurring within the policed area and converting that database into a manageable, crime-directed intelligence that can be used effectively within that area to implement intelligence-led policing.

Participants believed that in order to realize this, information should always be received in good time to enable crime prevention operations to pre-empt the crime. This information has to be given to operational officers in time to enable them to plan their operations and co-ordinate with other units, like the local Criminal Record Centre – where it is ensured that the fingerprints of suspects are available and in time, and to assess their criminal status.

Walsh (2001:353-4) postulates that underlying the principle of accurate and timely intelligence is the belief that the police must respond to crime and to community needs effectively. Police officers, at all levels of the police organization, must have accurate knowledge of when particular types of crimes are occurring, how and where the crimes are being committed, and who the criminals are?

According to the intelligence-led policing strategy, everyone in the hierarchy of the police organization must receive information and distribute an accurate record of criminal intelligence. This information serves as the foundation for crime analysis, the development of strategy, and the evaluation of the outcomes of that strategy. Therefore, everyone must work together to make the gathering of intelligence and its distribution effective. In this way, an information processing system in effect, turns the police department into what Peter Senge (1990), describes as a learning organization. A learning organization is an organization that becomes effective because it assesses, evaluates, and adapts its responses to the needs of its operating environment (Senge, 1990; Walsh, 2001).

5.2.4 Promoting a culture of police institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices

It is proposed that both the horizontal and vertical line of command, as well as the accountability of the police organization to its operating environment as vital strategic focus areas in achieving a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. In order to do this, six strategies are suggested as ways that can help in promoting the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. These strategies are by:

- Promoting respect for the police line/chain of command.

- Promoting accountability to both the crime prevention function and milieu.

- Promoting a 24-hour police accountability culture.

- Enhancing and promoting police officer individual accountability.

- Developing a culture, mentality, and attitude within crime prevention that reflects that of the National Commissioner of the SAPS.

- Promoting a culture of police officer accountability to the policing frameworks.

● **Proposal 1: Promoting respect for the police line/chain of command**

Research participants proposed that by promoting respect for the police line of command should assist in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. They suggested two ways in which respect for the line of command can be promoted within the Gauteng police practices. These are by means of:

- Self-respect, and

- Committing police officers both through their attitudes and their behaviour.

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Firstly, respect for the line of command has to be redefined to become rather a question of collegial respect. Self-respect had to be promoted to inculcate the respect for the line of command. This is because self-respect is perceived to be important to both subordinates and superiors in their day-to-day interaction.

Secondly, apart from self-respect, respect for the line of command should be promoted by means of both attitudinal and behavioural commitment of crime prevention police officers in the police organization. Through attitudinal commitment, respect for the line of command must be promoted by emphasizing the relative strength of crime prevention police officer's identification with, involvement in, and attachment to the police service and the crime prevention unit. Conceptually, this can be achieved by means of committing police officers in a strong belief in and acceptance of the police goals and values, their willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the police service, and a strong desire to maintain their membership to the crime prevention unit and consequently the police organization (Porter, et. at. 1974:604). Behavioural commitment of police officers must be inculcated by tying crime prevention police officers to the crime prevention unit. Tying these police officers to the crime prevention unit, and consequently the police service, should be done by recognizing that these police officers enter the police organization with specific skills, desires, and goals. Creating a work environment in which these police officers can use their skills, satisfy their needs and desires, and achieve their human goals, can ensure that this goal is achieved (Porter, et. at. 1974:604).

- **Proposal 2: Promoting police accountability to both the crime prevention function and milieu**

Research participants proposed that by promoting police accountability in both the crime prevention police function and milieu will assist in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within crime prevention. It is required of police officers to be dedicated to their work and keep their community in mind as beneficiaries of their service. Being accountable to both implies a total mind shift from normal police officers to professional practitioners of public safety rendering an important community service to their communities. In order to achieve this, crime prevention police officers should be developed in the areas of client-orientation and as well as professionalism. This development must not be a sole individual endeavour, but rather has to become a collective police organizational endeavour. It must be aimed at developing a culture of accountability for both the police function and milieu. Promoting accountability for both the crime prevention function and milieu can be achieved by recognizing that the SAPS was

established for the purpose of preventing the commission of crimes and that no other social institution has this primary objective. It must also be recognized that police actions determine attitudes towards and respect for the process of upholding authority. Participants added that it was important to remind the police that the police power of arrest may be applied on a discretionary basis. These powers should be exercised with utmost caution. It must be applied in such a way that offenders are not prosecuted if such action will not serve the interests of both the individual and the society in which the police officer lives.

Since it is the police who initiate the corrective process, the way in which the police handle the offender should form part of this process. The police are also strategically well-placed to co-ordinate the preventive activities of other institutions (Wilson & McLaren, 1972:417-419). This approach reflects the importance of the police's need and involvement in proactive work that ensures that compliance by the members of society is ensured. Accordingly, a pre-arranged prevention programme is absolutely necessary if the desired results are to be obtained and where scientific techniques and research results are to be applied properly. All preventive activities should be integrated in such a way that the programme involves a working philosophy that envisages prevention at both the predisposition and precipitation levels. These activities should also be integrated in such a way that cultural and ethical views of the society concerned is recognized, embraced and appreciated. The stimulation of public interest by means of an information bureau disseminating up-to-date knowledge about crime and its prevention, a machinery for the timely detection and handling of maladjustments, and a careful selection of suitable personnel should also be implemented (Caldwell, 1956:686). This information bureau should also be able to assist victims regarding the status of their cases. This thus indicates the need to tie police officers to their police function and milieu.

Crime prevention police officers can be tied to their police function and milieu by committing them into the crime prevention unit and the police organization. There are two ways in which crime prevention officers can be tied to both their police function and milieu and that is by using both the "commitment approach" for both. Firstly, the "attitudinal commitment approach" can be used by emphasizing the relative strength of their identification with, involvement in, and attachment to the function and milieu. Secondly, the "behavioural commitment approach" can be used by tying the police officers to the crime prevention unit and consequently the police organization (Porter, et. at., 1974:604).

● **Proposal 3: Promoting a 24-hour police accountability culture**

Research participants proposed that by promoting a 24-hour police accountability culture will also assists in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. Participants emphasized the view that they were accountable 24-hours a day as officers of the law. They justified this viewpoint by highlighting that they are not only there as crime prevention officers while on duty, but they are there as community saviours. This is because they are available for their communities on a 24-hour basis.

There are two ways in which a 24-hour police accountability culture and practice can be enhanced and promoted within the crime prevention police practices. The first way is by the inculcation of such culture through the induction of young recruits at the police colleges (Police Academy training level). The second is by requiring experienced police officers to live by this practice and culture on daily basis. Living by this culture requires line police officers to have an open door policy for their community, while police commanders/managers are required to lead by example in maximizing this practice and culture by having an open door policy for their subordinates and by being available for them as often as possible.

Dixon (1999:244) adds that police officers realize the 24-hour police accountability culture through the community and sector-based policing styles. Through these modern policing styles, a better vehicle for achieving this form of accountability of police officers, on a 24-hour basis, is provided and achieved by the crime prevention police officers. In these styles of policing, both the community and sector-based police officers provide high visibility policing, while their commanders and sector inspectors ensure the continuity of this policing approach. They do this by ironing out inconsistencies in the response of the subordinate sector and community police officers.

● **Proposal 4: Enhancing and promoting individual police officer accountability**

Research participants proposed that by enhancing and promoting individual accountability will assists in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. Participants indicated that team policing is emphasized during their basic police training and practiced in the field. However, it must be borne in mind that police officers sometimes operate alone on the streets performing patrol duties. Performing patrol duties is where police officers are individually held accountable for their actions and decisions that they take or omit to take. It is for this reason that participants felt that police officer

individuality and autonomy is the main driver of their line function. This is especially true and relevant where the population is saturated and policing demands are high, like in Gauteng Province.

Participants acknowledged the role and contribution of team policing that they viewed to be good in empowering and protecting members. But they opined that "sharp and fast" thinking involves individual police officers taking important decisions alone on the streets in a split second.

Various studies (Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2003; Wilson & Brewer, 2001) carried out in Australia and Poland respectively concurred that police officer decision-making and actions, emanating from individuated patrol-based activities and culture, were negated by the practice of team-based policing that is demanded by the community policing traditions. However, Kennedy (1980:173) opposes this view and applauds team policing. According to him, team policing enhances a culture of accountable decision-making and problem-solving. Team policing is advantageous from an organizational effectiveness perspective. It formalizes organizational relationships in a manner that maximizes the input of all departmental personnel in the decision-making processes in order to make operations more effective. In this way, the negative views against team policing with specific reference to its effects on individuated decision-making and actions, is refuted.

- **Proposal 5: Developing a culture, mentality, and an attitude within crime prevention that reflects that of the National Commissioner of the South African Police Service**

Research participants proposed that by developing a culture, mentality, and an attitude within crime prevention that reflects that of the National Commissioner of police, will assists in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. Participants opined that this strategy brings home the very essence and importance of the role of a police officer in society. This is because police officers individually represent the office of the National Commissioner in everything that they do and abstain from doing. It is for this reason that police officers are required to behave and act like the National Commissioner of police, reflect the same attitude, skills, and knowledge, as he will in similar cases. In achieving this goal, they are armed with weaponry that includes creativity, problem solving, and agency (acting as his agents). Every time they apply their minds and use their discretionary powers, police officers are required to show restraint, demonstrate congruency of decision-making and problem solving with that of the National Commissioner, and show regard

for human rights. Police actions are, furthermore, required to exceed the public expected outcomes.

In order for the Gauteng police to develop and maintain this culture, they are required to unite their institutional, executive, and individual thinking patterns into a united front (Walsh, 2001:354). In order to achieve this, provincial management must start developing (if not already in place) a strategic management system that uses organizational strategy to unite the decision-making, actions, and problem-solving system of the executive (senior management), operational commanders, and that of line police officers into a coordinated, united, and compatible pattern. This will help to ensure that the strategy and actions of the province, the area, police station, as well as that of an individual police officer, that are developed within this process and are part of this process, becomes a combination of planned actions or on-the-spot reactions to changing unanticipated conditions (Walsh, 2001:354).

This approach is in line with the decision-making model proposed by Hawkins (2002) where he refers to a holistic model of "Legal Decision-Making" (LDM). According to him, in legal decision-making the personal freedom of the police officer to make decisions "out of kilt" is questioned by the next level of decision-maker, namely the public prosecutor. In dealing with this dilemma he proposes the application of the LDM model. This model is a collective enterprise that enables several people to take part individually in decision-making thereby individually participating in deciding the outcome of the case.

These two approaches (Walsh, 2001; Hawkins, 2002) ensure that every police officer's pattern of thinking and behaviour becomes patterned to that of the police executive management. This should ensure that a united front of decision-making and actions is achieved within the police department.

- **Proposal 6: Promoting a culture of police officer accountability to the national policing frameworks**

Research respondents proposed that by promoting a culture of police officer accountability to the (national) policing frameworks will assist in the practice and a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices. Participants emphasized that the policing frameworks not only become their code of practice and values, but are also fundamental standards of police practice. They referred to the Constitution as the main

framework embodying all the values, norms, and objectives for which the whole nation strives for. Police officers are therefore required to protect these frameworks on a 24-hour basis. They identified other important policing frameworks, namely the police service establishing legal framework, the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, Police Regulations, "*Batho Pele*", related Public Service Acts and regulations, and related crime prevention and combating frameworks that guide their behaviour.

It is important for police officers to know how these frameworks should be promoted within the police practices. Reynecke (2001:19) opines that from a police managerial leadership perspective, the SAPS as a service industry, is concerned with the labour-intensive and intangible nature of its services. However, the intangibility of its services cannot be displayed, demonstrated, or communicated easily. This has an ultimate result that quality control and service standardization are difficult to effect and maintain. This stance is supported by the Van Vuuren study (2000) regarding a SAPS-based performance management system. He acknowledges that performance management for the SAPS is difficult to measure and assess. However, he maintains that police service output must be quantified and performance measured. Client needs must be determined to know what they want, and then all the available resources must be allocated in an attempt to achieve this goal effectively and efficiently.

5.2.5 Efficient crime prevention operations

It is proposed that efficient crime prevention operations should enhance the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng police practices. Participants proposed four strategies in which an efficient crime prevention operations system should be implemented within the Gauteng police practices. These strategies are by:

- Enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations.
- Developing and implementing a suitable crime prevention-orientated measure of effectiveness and efficiency.
- Efficiently managing crime prevention operations and projects.
- Implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout the Province.

● **Proposal 1: Enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations**

Research participants proposed that by enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations will assist in ensuring an efficient crime prevention operations system in order to enhance and promote accountable policing. According to the

participants, the main aim of crime prevention is to sustain and maintain public order by means of crime prevention and police responsive operations. Various police, community, and multi-agency-based crime prevention initiatives should be implemented. It was suggested that these initiatives should be police-driven. Where the police experience difficulties in achieving the goals that are set for these initiatives, the police are required to inform the local structures and community representatives as a resolve to seek solutions to the problems.

Goris and Walters (1999) studied the development of the Belgian crime prevention contracts. They also assessed the difficulties experienced with "multi-agency crime prevention" initiatives. In their findings, they suggested that much of the political rhetoric in Belgium which called for local, community, and inter-sectoral partnerships, had lacked clear practical expression. This situation is similar to what happened in other countries, including Canada and the UK (England, New Zealand, Australia, and Wales). However, other studies (Crawford & Jones, 1995; Sampson, Blagg, Stubbs, & Pearson, 1988) have found that partnership approaches to community and partnership-based crime prevention, remain popular. It also found that partnership approaches that are centred upon the networking of community agency expertise, collaborating ideas, and involving the community in decision-making and management, was viewed by politicians and public servants as integral to community or locally-based crime prevention initiatives.

It is clear that little has been done to explore policing accountability through crime prevention operations. However, police-public accountability can be enhanced through crime prevention operations. It is recommended that studies must be conducted to identify and describe these operations and to analyze conditions under which they can be developed and implemented.

- **Proposal 2: Developing and implementing a suitable crime prevention-orientated measure of police efficiency**

Research respondents proposed that by developing and implementing a suitable crime prevention-orientated measure of police efficiency should ensure efficient crime prevention operations in order to enhance accountable policing. In order to evaluate crime prevention police service delivery endeavours effectively, it was suggested that another form of evaluation (namely an evaluation that would be unique and crime prevention-orientated) was necessary. Walsh (2001:355) concurs that traditional police performance management strategies are not successful. In order to make these measures more successful, he suggests that police

evaluation endeavours must be focused on four areas in which police crime operations indicators should aim at. These four areas are:

- the quality of operational plans;

- the quality of police (managerial) efforts to reduce crime;

- the managerial oversight of policing operations; and

- the results emanating from the operational strategies.

In an endeavour to offer a police crime prevention-orientated performance management system, Moore and Braga (2003) developed a balanced scorecard. It is aimed at police-oriented performance management. This scorecard consists of a battery of measurements that include:

- Outcome measure of performance, both as ultimate measures of value created, and as ways of testing whether innovative programmes work or not;

- Activity and output measures, focus on managerial attention on the way they are using authority and money to accomplish results; and

- Expenditure and investment measures, to help police organizations manage the transition from traditional styles of policing to the new style more effectively.

Gauteng police managers/commanders must develop performance measurements for their police stations and areas that are directed at measuring outcomes, activities and outputs, and inputs (or what can be called organizational development activities). These are crime prevention-orientated performance evaluation measures that are sought in Gauteng Province.

● **Proposal 3: Efficiently managing crime prevention operations and projects**

The research participants reverted to their previous view, namely that a strategic planning session for the whole Province, would help in developing a provincial strategy or plan with each unit having its own goals and objectives. Thereafter, it would be much easier for the various stakeholders to determine their respective roles in realizing the plan. This would ensure that management would be working with people who know exactly what is expected of them, how they would be evaluated, and what management functions and roles are in realizing the strategy or plan. The plan would assure them that in terms of the agreement, management's doors would be open, and their managers would be prepared to listen to problems and support them in every way possible. All this would ensure that crime prevention operations are carried out and managed efficiently.

Thereafter, in a coordinated way, the Province has to develop a portfolio of crime combating and prevention projects aimed at implementing the plan agreed upon. This would realize the ideal of a holistic approach to crime prevention by designing and implementing crime prevention projects. Lessons learnt and the profiles of the various communities would assist in identifying the focus areas and the approaches to follow, thereby fostering a relationship between the various communities and the police and sharing the responsibility for crime prevention.

The consolidation of ideas during the drafting of the plan would help in identifying the coordination of functions and the role to be played by security organizations. Security organizations would not have specific details, in order to protect the covert nature of crime prevention operations. At the same time, this activity is aimed at promoting the integration of operations between the police and the private security organizations.

Various researchers (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999) proposed that a strategy like this must be based on two approaches. The first approach is that it must tie up strategy and performance accountability into the whole organization, permeating the whole police chain of command. This will see the provincial commissioners, area commissioners, and station commissioners being held to account and to perform. They would be held to account by ensuring that crime patterns and high profiled incidents are identified and dealt with. The various commanders lower down (below) in the line of command must ensure that they run the day-to-day operations in their various stations. These lower level commanders/managers must be held to account for the tactics and operational strategies employed. Line police officers and their immediate supervisory command must be held to account for their communication and working with each other to define strategy and develop crime control measures for specific street-level conditions.

The second approach connects to the first. It requires a quadrant approach to police operations and programme management based on the Compstat principles (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999). It proposes the following:

First, it proposes an accurate and timely intelligence management system where police officers effectively and efficiently respond to crime and to community needs. The whole line of command must have accurate knowledge of when particular types of crimes are occurring, how and where the crimes are being committed and who the criminals are. They must work together to make

crime intelligence gathering and dissemination effective. Bratton and Knobler (1998:22-5) are of the opinion that this information processing and management turns the whole police organization into what Peter Senge (1990) described as a learning organization. This organization is described as one that becomes effective because it assesses, evaluates, and adapts its responses to the needs of its environment.

Second, it proposes a rapid deployment of personnel and resources. This approach opposes the traditional managerial paradigm that creates organizational sub-divisions into competing power centres competing for limited resources. Instead, the approach envisions the (Gauteng) police department as made up of one large team focused on the primary organizational mission. Here, operational commanders are empowered with the authority to use an array of personnel and other necessary resources to achieve their objectives. Where additional resources are required, the operational commander will request additional resources at the Compstat meeting, and the police executive can shift resources from one commander to another as tactical needs dictate.

Third, it proposes an effective and efficient police managerial strategy and tactics where the executive, operational commanders, and line officer's decisions and actions are united into a coordinated and compatible pattern. In this strategy, operational commanders are held to account for the quality of their plans, the quality of their efforts toward crime reduction, their managerial oversight over operations, and the expected results.

Fourth, it proposes a relentless follow-up and continuous assessment of police performance. Executives (provincial police management) and the operational command staff members constantly follow up on what is being done by their personnel, and assess results of their strategies. This follow-up and assessment process enhances managerial accountability and effectiveness because it allows police executives and commanders at all levels to assess their results and change tactics and deployment based on what they see and know (Bratton & Knobler, 1998; Safir, 1997; Silverman, 1999).

- **Proposal 4: Implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout Gauteng Province**

Research respondents proposed that by implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout Gauteng Province will ensure effective and efficient management of crime prevention operations. The crime prevention strategy should be directed at strengthening local crime

prevention and ensuring that the policing strategy is cascaded down to the lowest levels. They felt that the only way to achieve this would be by implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout the Province. Dixon (1999:243) believes that policing accountability can be reinvented and strengthened by means of sector policing. He identified four elements under which this can be done. The first is by dividing the policed area into small and manageable sectors using the principles of geographic responsibility. The second is through problem-solving strategies as advocated through the tradition of problem-oriented policing. The third is by means of community consultation as prescribed by the principles of consultation. The fourth is through the new police managerial paradigm that requires both sector police officers and inspectors to account for their various sectors.

The SAPS national crime prevention division in Pretoria has finalized the national policy document on the implementation of sector policing throughout South Africa. The evaluation reports of the pilot projects that were implemented in Gauteng Province have made it necessary to adopt sector policing throughout the Province.

5.2.6 Managing the effects of the policing environment

It is proposed that by managing the negative effects of the policing environment in Gauteng Province will enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing. Four strategies are identified to harmonize the police operating environment thereby managing the effects of the policing environment. These strategies are by:

- Developing a provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing function into the various communities.
- Training communities in modern community crime prevention strategies.
- Neutralizing the negative effect of the policing environment.
- Promoting responsible and caring communities in Gauteng Province.

● **Proposal 1: Developing a Provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing functions into the various policed communities**

Research respondents proposed that by developing a provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing function with the various communities will ensure that the negative effect of the police operating environment is managed efficiently. The participants were concerned about the poor progress in the positive shaping and change in the policing environment before and after the democratization of South Africa in 1994. In order to

solve this problem, participants suggested that they, together with their management, need to start developing and implementing a community-based policing strategy. This strategy must be aimed at promoting policing throughout the various communities in Gauteng Province. This is where they will start emphasizing to the communities exactly, why the communities require formalized policing and their role in it. In turn, they will listen to these communities detailing what the police should refrain from doing, and what they should start doing.

In this strategy, the policed communities should be divided into two strata, namely the crime-prone or criminal-orientated, and the crime-free or non-criminally-orientated communities. This strategy should then be given to the provincial structures responsible for policy regarding public development. These structures are required to come up with a strategy for developing those crime-prone communities and areas. Doing this will also enable those people responsible for developing partnerships between the police and the communities to do so.

This approach should enhance and reshape the policing environment and help in creating and implementing the ideal police-community society for which policing ideologies aim at. One participant emphasized the importance of this approach in reintegrating the policing function with to the communities. He said:

> This strategy would help us to forge ourselves back again to where our communities are. We have to service even those criminals from townships who always fear us.

Pelser (1999:10-11) acknowledges the previous role of the SAPS at national level in setting up structures and strategies to ensure that policing permeates the various strata of society in South Africa. One of these strategies and structures was the introduction of the Sub-component: National Community Policing Desk (NCPD). This component was tasked to develop a Police Policy Framework on community policing; issue Regulations, National Orders, and additional guidelines on community policing; initiate national workshops on community policing and to empower national and provincial role-players to this end; manage a Community Policing Programme Forum (CPPF) effectively; partake in practical projects aimed at achieving police priorities; assists with the development of the training curricula on community policing; contribute regularly to the reviewing of all training curricula to ensure that it integrates community policing; contribute to the Service Delivery Improvement Programme (SDIP); establish liaison links for regular interaction with the communities at the lowest level; and develop a Framework and Guidelines on Partnership Policing.

Participants also identified a need for a local-driven strategy to enhance and harmonize the relationships between the police and their communities. In this regard, Reynecke and Fourie (2001:17) postulate that police managers should be aware of management environmental trends. They are required to use technological tools to scan the environment to make appropriate decisions in order to enhance police performance.

● **Proposal 2: Training communities in modern community crime prevention strategies**

Research respondents proposed that by training communities in modern community crime prevention strategies and practices will ensure that the negative effect of the police operating environment is managed efficiently. Training communities in modern community crime prevention practices and tactics is one of the cornerstones of social crime prevention. This training entails both assisting the communities to root out criminal elements and promoting co-operation between these communities, the police, and other crime prevention agencies, like the Johannesburg Metropolitan Police Service. This training also involves reaching out to people who have committed crimes in the past and helping them to see that "crime does not pay".

Nel, et. al. (2000:55-6) hypothesize that a community safety audit will be a good starting point to mobilize the community towards community crime prevention. After the audit has been completed, the community should be provided with the outcomes and a strategy should be formulated to deal with these problems. In this regard, a five-step approach towards a meaningful community crime prevention strategy is proposed. This strategy comprises of the following activities:

- Developing a range of focus areas.
- Identifying possible partners and partnerships.
- Identifying possible solutions.
- Selecting the most suitable programmes and refining them.
- Obtaining support for the various programmees (Nel, et. al., 2000:55-6).

● **Proposal 3: Neutralizing the negative effects of the policing environment**

Research participants proposed that neutralizing the negative effect of the policing environment will assists in managing the negative effect of the policing environment thereby contributing to the practice and a culture of accountable policing in Gauteng Province. In order to neutralize this negative effect, it is proposed that Provincial police leadership must improve the police

managerial supervision style and culture thereby creating a positive police working environment. The type of supervision experienced by employees does impact on both the job satisfaction and commitment. The job satisfaction of employees is enhanced when superiors provide a supportive environment where they are encouraged to interact and speak out about workplace issues (London & Larsen, 1999:11). Employees' job satisfaction and commitment are higher when there is a positive feedback environment both vertically between superiors and employees and horizontally between police officers themselves (Emmert & Taher, 1992:40). Previous studies identified a positive relationship between employees' job satisfaction and commitment and a participative management style used by superiors (Kim, 2002:202).

- **Proposal 4: Promoting responsible and caring communities in Gauteng Province**

Research participants proposed that by promoting responsible and caring communities will enable managing the negative effect of the policing environment thereby contributing to the promotion of an accountable policing culture and practice. The participants suggested that the communities within the Province must take responsibility for rooting out crime. The community is regarded as the creator of crime and criminality. For this reason, it is reasonable to expect the communities to shoulder the responsibility of rooting out crime and criminality. Participants further identified a need for a provincial strategy to close the gap that exists between the community and the police, thereby reintegrating police officers with their respective communities. This will ensure that they become representatives and agents of the community in combating crime.

Robinson and Chandek (2000:282) proposed that the community police officers have a responsibility in rooting out crime and criminality. This responsibility is co-shared by the policed community. Community crime prevention programmes must be fully operationalised in order to identify barriers towards the social capital. Here the concept of social capital is defined to be the core of the interaction between the police and the community. Pino (2001:200) describes the role of community policing in realizing that the social capital becomes helpful in measuring the effectiveness in the implementation of community policing. Social capital becomes central to community-oriented policing issues. Such issues include trust and genuine dialogue between different groups, the ability to collectively tap into various resources, and the ability of individuals to work together to solve various communal problems.

At its core, community policing is a philosophy that includes all efforts of the police to achieve the goal of a closer relationship with the public (Robinson & Chandek, 2000:282). Community policing attempts to change police-community relations from hierarchical, distant, and authoritarian relations to equalitarian, intimate, and communal associations (Manning, 1984:222). It is believed that together, the police and the public are more effective and more humane co-producers of safety and public order than the police alone (Skolnick & Bayley, 1988:1).

5.3   CONCLUDING THE STUDY

This study arose from a need to study policing accountability within the police practices of the Gauteng police service as an endeavour towards the overall public accountability of the Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICJS). However, the size of the ICJS made it a difficult task to complete within the timeframe that was set for this project. Consequently, it was decided to focus the study within the SAPS. It was further decided to delimit the study in Gauteng Province due to its proximity and location.

Having decided on this Province it became important to determine the perception of the provincial police service with regard to policing accountability. Seeing that this study was the first innovative study in South Africa, it was decided that its goals will be better achieved if an exploratory strategy was pursued. The study focused on two important questions. Firstly, what were the police perceptions regarding police and policing accountability? Secondly, what were the obstacles that hindered the practice and a culture of policing accountability within the Gauteng police practices? Consequent to this determination, two objectives were regarded as appropriate in order to determine these issues, and these two objectives also guided the study.

5.3.1 Research goals and objectives

The objectives of this study were two-fold, namely:

- To explore and describe the perceptions of the Gauteng crime prevention police officers with regard to police and policing accountability.

- To identify and describe guidelines to support these police officers in enhancing and promoting police and policing accountability in their day-to-day police practices and activities.

5.3.2 Research design and method, data collection, and data analysis

In this study, the researcher made use of a mixed research design (as described in Par. 3.3.2 in Chapter 3). This mixed design consisted of a qualitative, explorative, descriptive, and contextual research design. Data was collected by means of in-depth, semi-structured phenomenological focus group interviews, and supportive field information (observation) in the form of field notes. Focus group interviews were conducted and each focus group interview had approximately 8-15 participants. A tape-recorder was used to capture data, which was then transcribed verbatim to facilitate the process of reducing data. Data analysis was conducted according to the descriptive approach of Tesch (1990:142-145), which follows an eight (8)-steps approach. This method helped the researcher to reduce the data into themes, categories, and sub-categories. The findings of this study were then controlled using available literature.

Guba's (in Lincoln & Guba, 1985:295-300; De Vos, 2002: 351-355) model was used to ensure validity and reliability (trustworthiness) of the study. The four models of trustworthiness that were used, in relevance to each other, in this study were truth-value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality. Using categories of credibility ensures truth-value, applying categories of transferability ensures applicability, applying strategies of dependability ensures consistency, and applying strategies of confirmability ensures neutrality.

To ensure that the study was ethical, a six-point ethical consideration guideline was pursued. This guideline consists of six areas that the study considered. These areas are, protection of subjects from harm, informed consent, voluntary participation, right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity, as well as honesty (Flick, Kardoff & Steinke, 2004:334-339; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:56; Polonsky & Waller, 2005:58-68).

5.3.3 Research findings

The results of the study suggest that the concept police and policing accountability is understood by Gauteng police officers. These police officers have a practical and applied understanding of the concept within their day-to-day police practices. The findings further suggest the occurrence and existence of obstacles that inhibit the practice and a culture of accountable policing. They also suggested strategies that enhance and promote the practice and a culture of accountable policing within the Gauteng police practices.

Six obstacles that hinder the practice and a culture of policing accountability within police practices were identified. These obstacles are:

- Inappropriate decision-making during crime prevention.
- Poor crime prevention management leadership style and culture.
- A lack of vision within the crime prevention police practices.
- Poor institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices (units and police stations).
- Poor crime prevention strategy and operations.
- The negative impact of the police operating environment.

Six strategies were identified as necessary to enhance and promote the practice and a culture of policing accountability within the Gauteng crime prevention police practices. These strategies are:

- A creative problem solving and decision-making culture within the crime prevention police practices.
- A proper crime prevention management leadership style and culture.
- A shared and proper vision within crime prevention.
- Promoting a culture of institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices.
- An efficient crime prevention strategy and operations.
- Managing the negative effect of the policing environment.

5.3.4 A framework/model for the study

From the research results, guidelines of the study were identified and described. These guidelines are aimed at supporting crime prevention police officers to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within their daily police practices. From these guidelines, a six-tier framework was developed as a guideline of this study.

This framework consists of the following elements:

- A creative problem-solving and decision-making culture.
- An appropriate crime prevention management leadership culture.
- A shared vision within the crime prevention police practices.
- A culture of police institutional and structural accountability within the crime prevention police practices.

- Efficient crime prevention operations.
- Managing the effects of the policing environment.

In view of the findings of this study and the framework that developed from these findings, it can be safely concluded that the research questions and objectives of this study were answered and achieved.

5.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Conducting this study was challenging as a result of the relative newness of the concept "police and policing accountability" to both the police officers and the Integrated Criminal Justice System (ICSJ) domains in South Africa, Britain, and the United States. Existing studies in Britain (Dixon, 1999 & 2000(a); Bailey, 1983; 1988); and the United States (Goldstein, 1977 & 1987; Green & Mastrofski, 1988; Walker, 1999 & 2001) were used to guide the current study. However, studies conducted in both these continents were conducted by means of legalistic (literature review) research methods. Both continents failed to produce empirically-based research findings that can inform future studies in both the concepts of police and policing accountability. As a result, the lack of comparative studies from both these continents made it literally impossible to conduct a comparative empirical overview.

The funding for the study became a shortcoming in that monies required for operational costs could not be obtained outside from independent sources. The researcher had to make use of his own personal money to fund the study. NRF funding came once during 2002 to fund the study. This funding was solely used for registration at the University of Pretoria. The funding for field work and for the use of the independent observer, which are qualitative protocol requirements, were borne by the researcher.

The relative newness of this topic caused the researcher not to divide the line officers participating in this study into their demographic characteristics and ranks. As a result, the researcher was unable to monitor the viewpoints of participants on the basis of their rank in order to ascertain whether there was a disparity in the rank order of participants. It also made it virtually impossible for the researcher to establish if viewpoints expressed in this study were those of the overall group or just the viewpoints of a particular rank.

Support for the study sometimes became a problem in that during the conduct of the study a lot of exodus took place. The researcher left his seven-year employer, namely Technikon SA and joined the corporate world. This exodus limited the usage of peer support, advice, and motivation that are all regarded as ingredients for a good research project for researchers.

Supervision from the University was once interrupted by the departure of the only supervisor, Dr. Bezuidenhout. He had to go on a year sabbatical leave to the United Kingdom. However, after a year, academic support and supervision resumed again. As it happened, the supervisor was burdened with a lot of information and he worked hard to ensure the success of the study. This is greatly appreciated considering that he supervised this whole study alone.

The findings of this study are limited. This is a qualitative study and the findings cannot be applied to other contexts. There cannot be generalization of the applicability of these findings in other provinces other than in Gauteng Province.

5.5   RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

The recommendations emanating from this study will be made with specific reference to the following themes:

- Crime prevention police practices.
- Education, training, and development of police officers in crime prevention police practices.
- Police policy.
- Research into police and policing practices and crime prevention police practices in particular.

5.5.1 Crime prevention police practices

It is clear from the findings of this study that police officers, and crime prevention police officers in particular, are required to improve their performance and improve the lives of the people whom they serve. It also became clear that these police officers need to embed accountable policing practices into their daily practices.

It is fundamental that a new training programme must be developed in which police officers are inducted and trained in the four dimensions approach of Dixon (1999; 2000(a)). This model was refined in the current study. The empirical findings of obstacles hindering the practice and a culture of accountable policing must be highlighted. In order to deal with them, the proposed

strategies must be used to highlight the practice and the nurturing of a culture of accountable policing.

During the conduct of this study, participants emphasized that in order to implement accountable policing practices within their daily practices should be focused more on the police line of command, crime prevention police practices, and the police management leadership. This emphasis indicated that police officers regarded the police line of command as the only appropriate institution for the enhancement and the promotion of accountable policing practices. Therefore, it is proposed that police practices should be geared at the promotion of accountable policing through the promotion of institutional and structural accountability other than external institutions that are created to monitor police performance. In their exposition, they highlighted three structures in which police institutional and structural accountability should be directed at. These structures are:

- The police and policing environment.
- The police line of command.
- The institution which they termed "the individual police officer as a professional officer of the law". This institution is equivalent to the British consideration of the supremacy of the office of the police constable.

According to the participants, the practice and a culture of accountable policing in Gauteng Province can be improved, enhanced, and promoted within the daily practices of (crime prevention) police officers. In order to do this, it was proposed that a six-tier framework/model should be implemented to guide this process. This model proposes the following:

First, crime prevention police practices can be promoted and enhanced by means of a strategy that focuses on a creative problem-solving and decision-making culture. This strategy will ensure that crime prevention police officer's actions are not indiscrete, that their actions and decisions are not blinded, and that there is accountability for every decision taken by every crime prevention police officer. In order to do this, a quadrant approach of ensuring creative decision-making is proposed. In this approach, four guidelines were proposed by the participants, namely an accountable decision-making culture, training in problem-solving, "fast and sharp" thinking skills, and an ability to account for decisions and actions As well as a culture of equitability, measurability, and reasonability.

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Second, crime prevention police practices can be enhanced and promoted by means of improved managerial leadership on a day-to-day basis. This will ensure that a proper crime prevention-orientated management leadership style is put in place to improve upon the inadequacy of the local police station management style. Participants proposed ten guidelines that must be adhered to in order to have this type of managerial leadership culture at the local police station level. These guidelines will ensure that local police station management leadership style is improved upon. Issues requiring consideration include such aspects as implementing the police code of conduct attentively; developing and implementing a police collegial support system; empowering crime prevention police officers (CPOs) with new tactics, skills and new work methods; realigning police support systems with crime prevention; developing and implementing an efficient crime prevention-orientated performance management system; promoting both an open door policy and participative management leadership style and culture; retraining and re-orientating both operational police officers and their commanders in modern crime prevention strategies and methodologies; emphasizing the "lead-by-example" (LBE) management leadership style and culture; putting in place a management leadership style and culture that serves as an example; and re-engineering the policing strategy for Gauteng Province.

Third, local police management practices could be enhanced and promoted by means of a shared vision within the crime prevention police practices. This approach will eliminate obstacles that hinder visionary police leadership within the provincial police practices. These obstacles include the perception of the 24-hour police accountability mentality; a lack of police pro-active orientation; and a lack of visionary leadership by local police station management. Eliminating these obstacles will ensure that every police officer that is attached to the Gauteng police service shares the crime prevention police vision, strategy, goals and objectives. In order to do this, an approach based upon a shared vision within crime prevention police practices was proposed. This approach is centred upon six- (6) strategies. These strategies are by developing and implementing a visionary managerial leadership culture within crime prevention; repositioning the police's core business as crime prevention; emphasizing the practice of "quality service and policing efficiency"; applying "professional customer care" within the crime prevention police practices; restructuring the component of crime prevention and response services at local level within Gauteng Province; and developing and implementing an intelligence-led crime prevention system and strategy.

Fourth, by promoting a culture of institutional and structural accountability could enhance crime prevention police practices, thereby contributing towards the creation of an accountable provincial police service. This activity will eliminate such operational police obstacles as a lack of respect for police management and the police line of command, and a lack of self respect by crime prevention police officers themselves. This will ensure that both the horizontal and vertical lines of command, as well as the environmental accountability are improved upon and promoted within the daily crime prevention police practices. Guidelines to achieve this, as was recommended, are to include such activities as promoting respect for the police line of command, promoting accountability to both the crime prevention function and milieu, promoting a 24-hour police accountability culture, enhancing and promoting police officer individual accountability, developing a culture, mentality, and an attitude within crime prevention that reflects that of the National Commissioner of the SAPS, and promoting a culture of police officer accountability to the (national) policing frameworks.

Fifth, an efficient crime prevention operations strategy that contributes towards enhancing and promoting accountable policing is proposed. The study emphasizes that a crime prevention-based operations provincial strategy will result in improved and accountable police practices. This strategy will eliminate police operational obstacles such as an "indifferent" problem-solving mentality, and shortcomings that are prevalent within the existing logistical support system. Four guidelines towards achieving an efficient crime prevention operation strategy are proposed. These guidelines include enhancing police accountability to the communities through crime prevention operations; developing and implementing a suitable crime prevention-orientated measure of effectiveness and efficiency; efficiently managing crime prevention operations and projects; and implementing and strengthening sector policing throughout the Province.

Sixth, accountable crime prevention police practices are proposed to be feasible. The feasibility is dependent upon an approach based on managing the negative effect of the policing environment. The practical implementation of this approach will eliminate police operational obstacles that include the influence of the "turbulent" policing environment, and the irresponsible and uncaring approach to the public/community within the Gauteng police practices. Guidelines of implementing this approach were suggested. These guidelines include developing a provincial strategy for shaping the modern policing environment and reintegrating the policing function into the various (policed) communities; training communities in modern community crime prevention

strategies; neutralizing the negative effect of the policing environment; and promoting responsible and caring communities in Gauteng Province.

5.5.2 Education, training, and development of police officers in crime prevention police practices

The education, training, and development of (crime prevention) police officers could enhance and promote accountable policing practices by means of both inductive training and continuous learning. Police officers should be trained in the application of the approach of Dixon (1999; 2000) in order for them to understand the framework that guides accountable policing practices.

Police officers must also be trained in the process of instilling a culture of "parsimonious application of the law" in order for them to make the law as a last resort in their daily practices. In this training, police recruits must be familiarized with the application of the amended section 49 of the Criminal Procedure Act (Act 51 of 1977). The proposals of the Constitutional Court should be incorporated in that training in order to ensure that these police officers understand the rationale behind parsimonious legal application. This will enable young police recruits to know how they are supposed to use force, why the application of lethal force has been relegated as an exclusive police action, and the processes that must be followed in resorting to lethal force. Live case studies, based upon the recent rulings of both the High Courts and the Constitutional Court, must be used to illustrate the sheer meaning of section 49.

Participants proposed that apart from the young recruits, current line police officers must also be retrained in the principles guiding minimum force. This training should guide the police away from resorting to force in their daily police practices. The focus of this training on the use of force must be tailored in such a way that case studies and recent court judgements are used. The training must be monitored in order to ensure that every police officer attends it. The monitoring must be done at three levels, namely the individual police officer, the commander, and the training department of the police. This highlights the need for these three role-players to work together. The responsibilities of these role-players are the key to the career development of every police officer. The training division of the police must ensure that at the beginning of the year, they publish a brochure containing all operational courses that are required by police officers to meet their operational policing needs for them to remain operationally competent and thereby accountable. The police commander must ensure that members are able to attend all the courses as recommended by the provincial/national office of the training division. The

individual police officer must take responsibility for his/her own career development by attending all the prescribed training courses. This will ensure that every police officer is kept abreast of changes and developments at ground level regarding the use of force and other training courses.

Apart from training police officers on the use of force, it is required that police recruits should be inducted towards police accountability practices by means of a programme that focuses upon problem-solving and decision-making, managing crime prevention, police accountability, crime prevention operations, and policing the community and the operational environment.

Furthermore, in-service and advanced programmes dedicated towards crime prevention should be developed, taught, and evaluated within the police. These programmes should be coupled with the review of all college and university curricula, to include the exploration into accountable police practices. Officers should be encouraged to enhance, promote, and embed accountable policing practices, through imparting "fast and sharp" thinking skills. Police officers should be trained in problem-solving methodologies and skills.

5.5.3 Policing policy

The SAPS at all levels of its hierarchy must explore ways in which the whole police organization can practice accountable policing practices as a new policing style. A policy must be developed in this way regarding how this new policing style must be put into practice and immersed within the whole police organization. In doing this, it will ensure that this new policing style is operationalized. This new policing policy must address ways in which police officers must seek ways in order to execute their policing mandate in an accountable way.

5.5.4 Research into accountable police practices

The study demonstrated that previous research into policing accountability, and accountable policing practices in particular, is limited and inadequate. Therefore, further research on police and crime prevention needs to be conducted with regard to:

- The guidelines proposed in this study and the impact it might have on the practice and a culture of accountable policing should be evaluated in order to determine the practical implementation possibilities.
- A model for enhancing and promoting accountable policing on crime prevention police practices within the Gauteng Province should be developed.

- A model for enhancing and promoting accountable criminal justice practices should developed.
- A model for enhancing and promoting accountable public service delivery practices should be developed.

5.6   CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 was dedicated at identifying and describing guidelines to support crime prevention officers to enhance and promote accountable policing practices within their daily activities. These guidelines are a creative problem-solving and decision-making culture, a proper crime prevention managerial leadership style, a shared and proper vision within crime prevention, promotion of a culture of a institutional and structural accountability, effective and efficient crime prevention operations, and managing the effect of the policing environment.

From these guidelines the study was concluded by developing recommendations to improve, enhance, and promote the practice of accountable policing within the daily activities of a crime prevention practitioner. These recommendations included research that can be conducted in future in this area or evaluate the findings of this study.

There is a great need to extend the current study to include all the other remaining eight Provinces. This will help in undertaking a study at national level into accountable policing practices. In the near future, there exists another need to explore ways to develop a framework to manage accountable policing practices in South Africa. This will ensure that the ideal of the constitutional vision of policing South Africa with consent is achieved. This will also contribute to a policing practice that is conducted and managed in a way that enhances and promotes accountable policing practices.

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