A COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION APPROACH FOR THE PREVENTION OF VIOLENT CRIME IN THE WESTERN CAPE

By

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DECLARATION

I, Leslie Siegelaar, declare that the content of this thesis represents my own unaided work, and that the thesis/dissertation has not previously been submitted for academic examination towards any qualification. Furthermore, it represents my own opinions and not necessarily those of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

L. Siegelaar   2023/04/12

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Signed   **Date**

ABSTRACT

South Africa's crime rate is amongst the highest in the world, with the violent crime rate as a major contributor. These high levels of violent crimes threaten the social, economic, and political gains made since the dawn of democracy in the country. Evidence indicates that the South African Police (SAPS) and other law enforcement agencies are ineffective in preventing violent crime. Amongst the reasons for the failure is the inability to address the root causes of violent crime, including social and environmental issues such as alcohol abuse, unemployment, gang membership and the design of suburbs. According to the 2017/18 crime statistics, the Western Cape reported the highest number (3 729) of murders in the entire country. The city of Cape Town hosted four of the top ten stations for the most reported violent crimes in the country, namely Nyanga (2), Mitchells Plain (3), Khayelitsha (6) and Delft (10). These statistics lead to Cape Town being identified as the most dangerous city in the country. SAPS' response to violent crime has been varied, and, in some cases, limited success was achieved across the country. The overall performance of the SAPS does not necessarily reflect the levels of resources and commitment invested over the past years. Community Policing Forums (CPFs) are constitutionally mandated to support policing efforts through community policing. They could thus participate in preventing violent crime by focusing on the root causes of this violent crime.

The core objective of this study was to determine to what extent the CPFs of Nyanga and Mitchell's Plain fulfil their mandate in participating in the prevention of violent crime in their respective geographical area and to present a community participation approach to enhance their participation in the prevention of violent crime. Data were collected through a mixed approach of close-end questionnaires and semi-structured interviews among members of both CPFs and experts in crime prevention and violent crime. It was found in this study that the CPFs of Nyanga and Mitchells Plain are involved in programmes and projects for the prevention of violent crime. It was also found that the current institutional capacity of both CPFs needs to be improved to support their participation in the prevention of violent crime. The study further found that there is enough legislation and policies in place that allow for community participation in the prevention of violent crime. The ultimate finding of the study is that the elements of a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime, namely community policing, social crime prevention, the social-ecological model, evidence-based policing, and a theory of change, are supported by the respondents and could enhance the institutional capacity of the CPFs.

This study concludes by recommending an evidence-based social crime prevention approach for counteracting violent crime in the city of Cape Town. This approach aims to contribute scientifically to the body of knowledge in the fields of community policing and social crime prevention.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to:

My heavenly Father, for giving me the strength to complete this research project.

My mother, Dinah, who passed away in May 2022.

I would have liked her to share this moment with me as she always believed in me and encouraged me to persevere.

My father, Stoffel.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ABT   Area-Based Team

ANC   African National Congress

CDC   Centre for Disease Control and Prevention

CJS   Criminal Justice System

CoCT   City of Cape Town

CPD   Cleveland Police Department

CPF   Community Policing Forums

CPOP   Community Problem-Orientated Policing

CSF   Community Safety Forum

DA   Democratic Alliance

DAPCV   Development Approach for the Prevention of Violent Crime

DBE   Department of Basic Education

DCS   Department of Correctional Services

DJCD   Department of Justice and Constitutional Development

DOCS	Department of Community Safety
DPME	Department of Planning, Monitoring and Evaluation
DSCVP	Directorate for Safety, Crime and Violence Prevention
DSD	Department of Social Development
EBP	Evidence-Based policing
EBSCP	Evidence-Based Social Crime Prevention
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
ISCPS	Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy
ISS	Institute for Security Studies
JCPS	Justice Crime Prevention and Security Cluster
LCPS	Local Crime Prevention Strategy and Pan
MTF	Medium-Term Framework
NCPS	National Crime Prevention Strategy
ND	National Development Plan Vision
NGO	Non-Government Organisation

NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
O&M	Community Operation, Maintenance and Management
OECD	Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation
P4	Public Participation Planning Partnership
PAGAD	People against Gangsterism and Drugs
POP	Problem-Orientated Policing
PSDF	Provincial Spatial Development Framework
PSP	Provincial Strategic Plan
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SANDF	South African National Defence Force
SAPS	South African Police Service
SARA	Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment
SARS	South African Revenue Service
SONA	State of the Nation Address

SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VPUU	Violence Prevention through Urban Upgrading
WCG	Western Cape Government
WCICPP	Western Cape Integrated Violence Prevention Policy
WCSP	Western Cape Safety Plan
WPP	White Paper on Policing
WPSS	White Paper on Safety and Security
WPTPS	White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service
WPTPSD	White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery

GLOSSARY

Community policing

Hill and Hupe (2002:294) describe community policing as a philosophy that focuses on the management styles and operational strategies of the police in dealing with community-police partnerships and problem-solving approaches.

Crime prevention

Burger (2007:12) defines crime prevention as any action designed to reduce either the actual level of crime or the perceived fear of crime.

Development

Development is a process that continuously improves the social conditions and well-being of the populace of a country (Patel, 2015:29).

Developmental crime prevention

Lab (2020:135) considers a developmental crime prevention approach as focusing on societal activities that focus on factors that could predispose groups in society, specifically the youth, not to get involved in crime.

Evidence-based policing

Evidence-based policing is a methodology using the best available research outcomes to inform and evaluate policing activities (Sherman, 1998:3).

Social crime prevention

Pelser (2002) refers to social crime prevention as dealing with crime through social development.

Violent crime

Stevens and Cloete (1996:01) define crime "as a violation of the law that warrants punishment by the state". For this study, violent crime will be any act of violence against any human that warrants punishment by the state.

Root causes of crime

Root causes of crime is defined as risk factors and conditions that hinder healthy development and can become the breeding ground for crime (Burger, 2007:45)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

High levels of violent crime in South Africa threaten the gains made since the dawn of democracy. Violence in various forms, such as violence against women and children, gang violence, and farm attacks, posed different challenges regarding policing. The actual violence and the fear of violence eroded the expectations that came along with the transformation of the police service post-1994 (South Africa, 2019). During that era, the police were expected to uphold apartheid laws and protect the government amongst most citizens. Violent means were used in attempts to enforce the supremacy of the police. The new dispensation posed different challenges to the police, amongst others, to adopt democratic approaches to deliver their service (South Africa, 1996). The representative-elected government introduced numerous policing policies and strategies, such as the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS), to live up to expectations. These approaches focused on involving stakeholders in delivering policing to society (South Africa, 1996).

Crime prevention was identified in the NCPS as one of the areas for implementing these policies and strategies and made provision for the involvement of different stakeholders. Despite these efforts, violent crime levels are still unacceptably high and risk the democratic gains over the past twenty-five (25) years (Bhorat, 2017). South Africa's crime statistics are among the highest globally, especially for violent crime (South Africa, 2019). Housing and health remain some of the biggest social challenges to the government. According to the 2017/18 crime statistics, the Western Cape reported the highest number (3729) of murders in the entire country. The City of Cape Town (CoCT) includes four of the top ten stations for the most reported violent crimes in the country, namely Nyanga (2), Mitchells Plain (3), Khayelitsha (6) and Delft (10). These statistics led to the CoCT being identified as the most dangerous city in the country (South Africa, 2019).

The inability of the South African Police Services (SAPS) to effectively prevent violent crime may also have a ripple effect in that the reporting of more violent crimes results in more case dockets for investigation, which, if effectively performed, will lead to an increase in court

roles which can lead to pressure on the already overcrowded prison community. It can, therefore, be argued that the inability to address violent crime effectively leads to direct pressure on the country's budget. This is a situation that a developing country like South Africa cannot afford. Many other social and development needs, such as housing, education, and health, must be addressed.

1.2   Background

The South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No, 68 of 1995), as amended by the South African Police Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No, 57 of 2008), determines that SAPS is responsible for the safety and security of all people in the country. Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) identifies the following core functions of the SAPS:

- crime prevention;
- crime combatting;
- crime investigation;
- maintaining public order;
- protecting and securing the inhabitants of the republic and their property;
- upholding and enforcing the law.

The Western Cape Crime Overview 2013/14 shows a comparative crime analysis for the Republic of South Africa (RSA) and the Western Cape in Table1.1 below. Notable is that in five crime categories, the provincial increase is higher than the national increase, murder 12.8% against 5.0%, assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm 1.3% against -1.5%, common assault, 4.7% against -3.3%, common robbery 16.7% against 12.7% and robbery with aggravating circumstances 5.7% against 0.6%. In terms of attempted murder, the national increase (4.6%) was higher than the provincial increase (2.5%) (Western Cape, 2015).

Regarding the crime category, total sexual crimes are -8.1% against -5.6%. The provincial decrease is more than the national decrease. Contact crime increased by 5% in the Western Cape whilst stabilising at 0.5% nationally. These statistics show that violent crime in the Western Cape posed a significant problem during the past decade, and there is little to no proof that efforts by law enforcement to prevent it have been successful.

Table 1.1: Crime Statistics RSA and WC

Crime Category	Republic of South Africa				Western Cape			
	2012/2013	2013/2014	DIFF	% DIFF	2012/2013	2013/2014	DIFF	% DIFF
Murder	16,259	17,068	809	5.0% .	2,580	2.909	329	12.5%
Total sexual crimes	66,387	62,649	-3,738	-5.6%	8,776	8,062	-714	-8.1%
Attempted murder	16,363		17,110	747	4.6%	3,280	83	2.5%
Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm	185,893	183,173	-2,720	-1.5%	24,519	24,846	327	1.3%
Common assault	172,909	167,157	-5,752	-3.3%	35,603	37,273	1,670	4.7%
Common robbery	105,888	119,351	13,463	12.7%	16,738	19,526	2,788	16,7%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	53,540	53,858	318	0.6%	12.427	13,140	713	5.7%
Total contact crime	617,239	620,366	3,127	0.5%	103,923	109,119	5,196	5.0%

Source: Western Cape crime overview, (2013/2014)

These increases in the different categories and the overall total of reported contact crime indicate SAPS Western Cape's inability to prevent violent crime (South Africa, 2015) effectively. Four years later, there is still no improvement in preventing these violent crimes. These statistics lead to Cape Town being identified as the most dangerous city; seven out of the ten police precincts with the highest murders reported in the province are also within the city's boundaries, namely Nyanga (1), Phillipi East (3), Delft (5), Khayelitsha (6), Kraaifontein (7), Gugulethu (8) and Mfuleni (10). The Nyanga police station is holding the number one position for the past six years, which must reflect the inability of the SAPS to address violent crime (South Africa, 2019). The township is labelled as the murder capital of the country. The murder rate in Cape Town is 66, 4 per 100 000 people compared to 66,2 for the previous period. It is significantly higher than the reporting figure for Nelson Mandela Bay, 39, 2 per 100 000 people and the national rate of 36 per 100 00 people (Western Cape,

2019).SAPS' response to violent crime has varied and, in some cases, limited success across the country. Thus, innovative approaches to violent crime prevention strategies are needed to supplement and enhance the efforts of the SAPS. Section 64E (c) of the South African Police Service Amendment Act, 1998 (Act No.83 of 1998) declares that the municipal police service is responsible for crime prevention. Therefore, local governments contribute to crime prevention in their respective constituencies (South Africa, 1998).

This study is grounded on the principle that SAPS and local government are dually mandated by Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 and Section 64E (c) of the South African Police Service Amendment Act, 1998 (Act No.83 of 1998) to perform the function of crime prevention (South Africa, 1998). The demands placed on SAPS and the limitations of the formal policing sector to provide adequate access to sustainable crime prevention strategies resulted in local and international attention focusing on the contribution of other participants, such as community-based organisations, the private sector, and communities at large, to supplement the formal policing sector.

1.3   The research problem

The violent crime rate is a significant factor in South Africa's high crime rate, which ranks among the highest in the world (Bhorat, 2017). These high rates of violent crime undermine the social, economic, and political advances that the country has accomplished since the beginning of democracy (Lamb & Warton, 2016). It is expected that nations would work hard to minimise crime overall and violent crime in particular. The occurrence, extent, and impact of violent crime in CoCT should concern all stakeholders, including different levels of government, law enforcement agencies, impacted communities and victims, businesses, and society in general. Research has demonstrated that SAPS cannot effectively prevent crime, and it has been suggested that crime prevention models be investigated as potential answers to this problem (Semenya, 2012). In addition, Olutula (2011:276) advised that more rigorous studies be performed to address the underlying causes of crime and to develop a strategy that may more effectively address the current obstacles in crime prevention. To further crime prevention, it is advised that communities be mobilised to collaborate and that consultation between the police and communities be enhanced (Mokhlomole & Olutola, 2023).

1.4   Purpose Statement

The SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001) formalise the elements of community policing into policy and deal with establishing CPFs at the station, area (now cluster) and provincial levels. It also contains the principles relating to the functioning of CPFs and Boards. Section 8 (1) of these regulations, CPFs, must consult with the station management to develop an annual community safety plan for their respective areas and submit it to the Cluster Board. Section 8 (2) dictates that the safety plan must:

1. include action steps, projects, and programmes of the CPF to achieve the objectives of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act;
2. indicate how these action steps, projects and programmes will be funded;
3. in what way these action steps, projects and programmes will contribute to the achievement of the objective of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act (South Africa, 2001).

These obligations imply that CPF members must be trained in, or at least familiar with, projects and programmes for successful implementation, as expected in this obligation. Going by the preceding, it is clear that the CPFs are the organisations through which the community can participate in crime prevention as mandated by the Constitution's provisions. However, it is not known if the CPFs are participating in preventing violent crime in Nyanga and Mitchell's Plain.

1.5   Key Research Questions

The research project poses the following key research questions:

- What are Community Policing Forums (CPFs) currently doing to fulfil their mandate to participate in the prevention of violent crime in the geographical areas (Nyanga and Mitchells Plain) within the CoCT, Western Cape, South Africa?
- What is the current institutional capacity of Nyanga and Mitchells Plains CPFs to fulfil their mandate?

- How does the existing legislative framework support community participation in preventing violent crime?
- What would be the elements of a community participation approach to improving the prevention of violent crime in the Western Cape?

1.5.1   Objectives of the Research

The objectives of this study are to:

- determine to what extent Nyanga and Mitchells Plain CPFs fulfil their mandate to prevent violent crime in their respective geographical area;
- investigate the current institutional capacity of CPFs to fulfil their mandate;
- determine how the existing legislative framework provides for community participation in the prevention of violent crime; and
- propose a community participation approach based on evidence-based social crime prevention and a developmental approach to prevent violent crime in the CoCT effectively. Currently evidence-based policing is not implemented in South Africa and no developmental approach for the prevention of violent crime exists.

1.6   Research Design and Methodology

1.6.1   Research approach

Theron (2007:275) encourages a plurality of social research methods. The mixed quantitative and qualitative research approach included a close-ended questionnaire and a semi-structured interview schedule. Primary research was through an empirical survey, directing questionnaires to a targeted research population. Interviews were conducted with knowledgeable groups and individuals, which include members of CPFs and retired senior police officers.

1.6.2 Sampling strategy

Through sampling, the researcher used a percentage of the research population to represent the sum; the sample must have similar characteristics to that of the population (Bezuidenhout, 2015:51). According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:54), a research sample represents a portion of the research population that will allow a basis to validate inferences about the population. Based on the statistics discussed earlier in this chapter, the researcher performed the research in the Nyanga and Mitchells Plain policing precincts. Through purposive sampling, the researcher approached community forum members of Nyanga and Mitchells Plain with closed-end questionnaires to obtain their views because they were regarded as knowledgeable and could add value to the understanding of CPFs participation in the prevention of violent crime. 12 out of 13 and 14 out of 15 members of the Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs completed the questionnaires, which resulted in a 92% and 93% response rate, respectively. The researcher also conducted four semi-structured interviews with experts in policing to gauge commonalities regarding the role of CPFs and the prevention of violent crime Two more individuals with in-depth knowledge of CPFs were invited for interviews but did not honour the invitations. Purposive sampling aims to obtain explicit information from respondents to advance the purpose of the study (Bryman et al.,2021:224).

1.6.3 Data analysis

The Research Department of the Cape Peninsula University of Technology was utilised to analyse the close-ended questionnaires using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Qualitative content analysis was used to analyse the data collected through interviews.

1.7 Preliminary Literature Review

Burger (2007:140) argues that SAPS should not have crime prevention as a core function. He based his argument on the premise that the root cause of crime is socioeconomic, and that SAPS has no control over these factors therefore should not be held accountable for them.

The inability of SAPS to prevent violent crime is provided as a reason for the community of Khayelitsha's involvement in 'mob justice' (Gillespie, 2013). The author defines 'mob justice'

as any action by community members to take revenge and violent punishment for committing a crime. It usually happens in the presence of other community members to serve as a deterrent and 'moral education'. It is also referred to as community-based justice or popular justice. In1996, the Cape Flats communities organised themselves and formed the anti-crime organisation People against Gangsterism and Drugs (PAGAD) to fight drugs and violence in their communities (South African History Online, 2011). This organisation's unlawful strategies and actions forced the SAPS to act, and Operation Good Hope, a crime prevention strategy to address urban violence and gangsterism, was established (De Lange, 2000). In December 2002, after a trial that lasted 149 days, two members of PAGAD were convicted on various charges of violent crimes, including murder, attempted murder, kidnapping and armed robbery. They were later sentenced to long-term incarceration (News 24, 2002). It is thus evident that communities are already participating in crime prevention, albeit illegally and outside the formal structures. This type of community action could be viewed as radical community participation and is counterproductive for policing as it adds to the already high workload of the SAPS. According to the 2010/2011 Annual Report on Police (2010/2011:59), the Department of Police recognised that the department could not prevent crime alone and needed partnerships with other departments and stakeholders. Strategies for effective crime prevention can be achieved when multi-agencies fuse their efforts and collaborate at a local level (Pheiffer, 2013:64).

1.8   Delimitation of the Research

In terms of Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the objectives of the South African Police Service are the prevention, combatting and investigation of crime. This study focuses only on the prevention of violent crime and is also confined to the jurisdiction of the SAPS in the CoCT, Western Cape, South Africa. This study further acknowledges that several communities participate in crime prevention through neighbourhood watches, street committees, and other forms. This study emphasises community participation by focusing on the root causes of crime, especially violent crime. This study only includes members of CPFs as representatives of the communities and not the communities at large.

The study also aims to determine the participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime and does not include an assessment of their efficiency and effectiveness.

1.9 Significance of the Research

The high levels of violent crime across the country pose a severe threat to the democratic right of citizens as enacted in the Constitution. In Section 205 of the Republic of South Africa Constitution (1996), citizens have the right to a safe and secure environment. Violent crimes negatively influence health, criminal justice, social services, and development environments. The physical and mental health of citizens is affected, which over-burdens health systems; human capital formation is undermined, contributing to slow economic and social development (Ikejiaku, 2009). This study could be found beneficial in that the proposed community participation approach could enhance the ability of SAPS to address the root causes of violent crime effectively. It could also contribute to achieving the goals of South Africa's first National Development Plan Vision (2030) (NDP), published in August 2012. The NDP "requires a long-term, holistic approach to building community safety, in which state and non-state capacities and resources are mobilised". (South Africa, 2012)

1.10 Expected outcomes, results, and contribution of the research

The researcher ultimately aims to make the findings of this research available to the top management of the SAPS Western Cape and publish the findings in academic journals, both locally and internationally. The results of this research will also be available for presentation at conferences. The study further aims to present a community participation approach and thereby contribute to the body of knowledge in the field of crime prevention and community participation.

1.11 The Layout of the Study

Chapter 1: Introduction and background

Chapter 1 presents an introduction to this study and outlines the research problem, purpose, objectives, and questions, including an overview of the research methodology.

Chapter 2: Crime: Its root causes and impacts

This chapter deals with the literature review from previously published literature of South African and international research concerning crime, its root causes, and impacts.

Chapter 3: Crime prevention, community participation and the legislative framework

This chapter explores these concepts and explains why this community participation approach could help to solve the ongoing challenge of violent crime in the Western Cape. This chapter also focuses on the legislative framework for CPFs and community participation in general.

Chapter 4: Theoretical point of departure and framework

In this chapter, the theoretical point of departure for crime prevention and community participation is discussed, with a specific focus on the policy process that would allow for the implementation of existing policies that allow for community participation The policy process, namely agenda setting, policy design, decision-making, implementation, and evaluation is discussed.

Chapter 5: Research design and methodology

Chapter 5 presents the research design, data collection, data analysis, and validity and justifies the methodology used. The chapter explains qualitative and quantitative approaches and reflects on the different research designs. The data collection instruments and strategies to ensure the reliability of the data collected and the validity of the findings are discussed.

Chapter 6: Data analysis and interpretation

The collected data were analysed, interpreted, presented, and discussed in this chapter. The data collected through questionnaires were analysed using SPSS, and the data collected through interviews was analysed through qualitative content analysis.

Chapter 7: An Evidence-based Social Crime Prevention approach

This chapter augments the research findings in proposing an EBSCP approach to deal with violent crime challenges in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain within the CoCT, Western Cape. The

existing crime prevention approaches in South Africa do not include evidence-based policing and no literature exists on a developmental approach for the prevention of violent crime.

Chapter 8: Summary, Recommendations and Conclusion

A summary of the research, along with recommendations and conclusions are included in this chapter.

1.12 Chapter Summary

This study proposes a community participation approach to prevent violent crime in the CoCT, Western Cape. The CoCT is amongst the highest contributors to violent crime in South Africa, and many of the instrumental policing precincts are previously disadvantaged areas. The reaction of SAPS to this violent crime is not satisfactory, and their inability to prevent it needs the assistance of other stakeholders, especially those of local communities. The support of local communities may enable SAPS to address the underlying (root) causes of crime and not only deal with facilitative causes. CPFs are mandated by legislation to cooperate with SAPS to address the needs of communities at the national, provincial, and local levels. There is a common belief amongst some researchers that crime prevention is not the ultimate function of the SAPS as they cannot address the underlying (root) cause of crime as it is socioeconomic. However, the South African Constitution clearly explains SAPS' functions, including crime prevention. Preliminary research indicated that SAPS are involved in various partnerships with stakeholders, including local communities. Still, it is not evident that these interventions focus on addressing the root causes of crime. It is also unclear if the local communities are involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation processes. Nevertheless, the researcher believes the research is relevant and important because the high levels of violent crime threaten the citizens' constitutional rights. Violent crime also negatively influences other essential government services like health, justice, social and development, thereby putting pressure on the already over-burdened fiscus of the country. It could also contribute to achieving the NDP objective of a long-term, holistic approach to community safety by participating in state and non-state capital and resources. The next chapter discusses the concepts of crime, its root causes, and its impact.

CHAPTER 2

CRIME: ITS ROOT CAUSES AND IMPACT

2.1   Introduction

Chapter one detailed the importance of community participation in preventing violent crime in the CoCT, Western Cape. This chapter defines crime in general, details violent crime, and discusses the root causes of crime and its impacts on communities. South Africa's crime rate is amongst the highest in the world, with the violent crime rate as a major contributor (Bhorat et al., 2017). According to the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2018), South Africa is ranked 3rd in the world for reported crime after countries like Venezuela and Papua New Guinea. Although dedicated crime prevention strategies are evident in these agencies, they appear reactive, creating an opportunity for repetitive crimes to shift from one area to another. The Western Cape is the province with the most significant contribution to the high crime rate in the country (SAPS Western Cape Annual Report 2019 -2020).

2.2   The current situation

The prevention of violent crime and the failure of these policing agencies to adequately implement strategies to deal with the problem is well-researched and documented (Altbeker, 2008, 2011; Burger, 2007; De Lange, 2000). For the period between 2016/17 and 2018/19, the total amount of violent crime for the Western Cape shows an insignificant decrease of 1.5% and 0.9%, whilst the murder rate increased by 12.6% and 6.6%, and the attempted murder rate increased with 9.2% and 4.4%. Only the sexual offences rate of 0.6% and 0.5% and common robbery 4.5% and 5.4% show a slight decrease over this period, whereas assault with the intent to do grievous bodily harm - 3.4% and 3.8%, common assault - 3.2% and 1.6% as well as robbery with aggravating circumstances 1.2% and - 1.1% fluctuated. (Table 2.1). It is thus apparent that the policing agencies are still struggling to prevent violent crime effectively and sustainably in the Western Cape.

Table 2.1: Western Cape violent crime between 2016/17 and 2018/19 (April to March)

Crime Category	2016/17	2017/18	Difference	% Difference	2018/19	Difference	% Difference
Murder	3 311	3 729	418	12.6%	3 974	245	6.6%
Total sexual offences	7 115	7 075	– 40	– 0,6%	7 043	– 32	– 0.5%
Attempted murder	3 387	3 698	311	9.2 %	3 860	162	4.4%
Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm	24 417	23 583	– 834	– 3.4%	24 488	905	3.8%
Common assault	39 868	38 579	– 1 289	– 3.2%	39 202	623	1.6%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	24 032	24 329	297	1.2%	24 065	– 264	– 1.1%
Common Robbery	12 574	12 003	– 571	– 4.5%	11 355	– 648	– 5.4%
Total	114 704	112 996	– 1 708	– 1.5%	113 987	991	– 0.9%

Source: SAPS Western Cape Annual report 2018-2019

The communities under scrutiny in this research, namely Nyanga and Mitchells Plain, contributed significantly to the high violent crime rate in the province. These police stations are, according to the 2017/18 crime statistics, amongst the top ten stations for the most reported violent crimes in the country, namely Nyanga (2) and Mitchells Plain (3). According to the 2017/18 crime statistics, the Western Cape reported the highest amount (3729) of murders in the entire country. The Nyanga police station reported 308 murders in table 2.2, the highest in the country, whilst Mitchells Plain recorded 148 murders in table 2.3 (South Africa, 2019).

Table 2.2: Nyanga SAPS crime statistics April to March 2017/18 - 2019/20

Crime category	17/18	18/19	Diff.	% Diff.	19/20	Diff.	% Diff.
Murder	308	289	-19	-6.2%	185	-104	-36%
Total sexual offences	308	294	-14	-4.5%	242	-52	-17.7%
Attempted murder	172	164	-8	-4.7%	115	-49	-29.9%
Assault with intent to cause grievous bodily harm	870	804	-64	-7.6%	593	-211	-26.2%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	1646	1548	-98	-6%	1368	-180	-11.6%
Common robbery	440	378	-62	-14.1%	384	6	1.6%

Source: SAPS Western Cape Annual Report 2019/2020

Table 2.3: Mitchells Plain crime statistics 2017/18 - 2019/20

Crime category	17/18	18/19	Diff.	% Diff.	19/20	Diff.	% Diff.
Murder	140	148	8	5.7%	115	-33	-22.3%
Total sexual offences	200	173	-27	-13.5%	212	39	22.5%
Attempted murder	246	213	-33	-13.4%	202	11	-5.2%
Assault with intent to cause grievous bodily harm	594	568	-26	-4.4%	502	-66	-11.6%
Common assault	1574	1661	87	5.5%	1770	109	6.6%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	946	912	-34	-3.6%	875	-37	-4.1%
Common robbery	662	627	-35	-5.3%	555	-72	-11.5%

Source: SAPS Western Cape Annual Report 2019/2020

2.3   Definition of Crime

Crime is "an act or omission prohibited and punished by law, any act punishable under the criminal code, whether or not it has come to the attention of the police" (South Africa, 1996). Crime is an action that constitutes a serious offence against an individual or the state. It is punishable by law (Pearsall 2001: 46). Crime is thus behaviour that is prohibited and is punishable by the law. Different types of crime exist, of which the most common are

economic, property, and violent crimes. The main aim of economic crime is to gain material gain through illegal means (Brown et al., 2001: 493). The emphasis is to gain material benefit without causing physical harm to the victim.

Property crime includes harm or damage to the victim's property without physically harming the victim (Brown et al. 2001:435). Violent crime is "applications or threats of physical force against a person, which can give rise to criminal or civil liability, whether severe or not and whether with or without a weapon. When more severe, such violence may be associated with intimate violations of the person or the potential to cause serious physical pain, injury, or death" (Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation 2008). The distinctive difference between these different categories is that violence or threats of violence are directed at the victim of the crime. The focus of this study is the prevention of violent crime, and the other categories will be excluded from the research. Different types of violent crime will be highlighted in the following section.

2.3.1 Types of violent crime

SAPS is using the term contact crime to refer to the category of crime that includes the following crimes murder, total sexual offence, attempted murder, assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm, common assault, robbery with aggravated circumstances and common robbery (South African Police Service (SAPS), 2014). Some definitions of some of these crimes will be discussed next:

- *Murder* – "the unlawful and intentional causing of the death of another human being" (Snyman, 2014).
- *Rape* – "the unlawful and intentional commitment of an act of sexual penetration with another, without that person's consent" (Snyman, 2014).
- *Robbery* – "the unlawful and intentional theft of property by using violence to take the property from somebody else: or threats of violence to induce the possessor of the property to submit to taking the property" (Snyman, 2014).
- *Assault* – "the unlawful and intentional act or omission which results in another person's bodily integrity being directly or indirectly impaired, or which inspires a belief in another person that such impairment of bodily integrity is immediately to take place" (Snyman, 2014).

The use of violence is the common element in all the crimes discussed. It is well-known that South Africa had a history of legitimised violence before the dawn of democracy in 1994. The apartheid government used the police and military to enforce violence on those who opposed them and violently removed communities to settlements without infrastructure. Many of those areas are today the pinnacles of violent crime. The communities under scrutiny in this research, namely Nyanga and Mitchells Plain, contributed significantly to the high violent crime rate in the province. These communities are all situated in the CoCT, and the 2017/18 statistics indicate that the CoCT murder rate was 69 per 100 000 residents compared to 36 per 100 000 nationally (South Africa, 2019).

2.3.2   Reasons provided for the high levels of violent crimes

Various reasons were put forward for the high levels of violent crime in the province, which include:

2.3.3   Excessive use of alcohol

The excessive use of alcohol is a factor identified by the Minister of Police, Bheki Cele. He was supported by the Minister of Social Development, Lindiwe Zulu, who questioned the high amount of liquor outlets (Daily Maverick 24 April 2020).   This was their reaction after South Africa because the Covid pandemic was placed under lockdown on 26 March 2020 for three weeks, which was later extended by another two weeks. The total ban on the sale of alcohol was included in the lockdown measures. It is claimed that it led to a noticeable decrease in violent crime and hospital trauma centre admissions. These claims are corroborated by the statistics in Table 2.4, which show dramatic reductions in all the crime categories under discussion.

Table 2.4: Western Cape violent c rimes for the period April to June 2020/21

Crime Category	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	Case Difference	% Difference
Murder	817	885	935	1 056	767	– 289	– 27.4%
Total sexual offences	1 581	1 616	1 418	1 585	990	– 595	– 37.5%
Attempted murder	797	876	962	931	858	– 73	– 7.8%
Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm	5 543	5 193	5 297	5 300	3 028	– 2 272	– 42.9%
Common assault	9 439	9 066	8 940	8 520	3 737	– 2 783	– 32.7%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	6 155	5 943	5 924	6 260	3 547	– 2 713	– 43.3%
Common Robbery	3 143	2 956	2 744	2 838	1 387	– 1 451	– 51.1%
Total	27 474	26 535	26 220	26 490	16 314	– 10 176	– 38.4%

Source: SAPS (2020)

During the period of hard lockdown (level 5), the ban on the sale of alcohol was supported by other measures such as the presence of the South African National Defence Force (SANDF), the limitation of people's movement, and the extra deployment of SAPS members that accordingly contribute to the significant decrease in these statistics. As the lockdown was eased during the third quarter (October to December 2020), it became evident that reductions are not sustainable as there are notable increases in murder (11.2%), sexual offences (2.0% and attempted murder 22.5%), whilst the decreases in the total amount of crimes (- 4.6%) and the other categories are notably lower comparing to the first quarter (April to June 2020) (Table 2.5)

Table 2.5: Western Cape violent crimes for the period Oct to Dec 2020/21

Crime Category	2016/17	2017/18	2018/19	2019/20	2020/21	Case Difference	% Difference
Murder	918	1 021	1 074	1 020	1 134	114	11.2%
Total sexual offences	1 972	1 991	2 124	2 097	2 138	41	2.0%
Attempted murder	875	969	1 029	892	1 093	201	22.5%
Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm	6 925	6 840	7 214	6 777	6 669	– 108	– 1.6%
Common assault	10 798	10 523	10 877	10 885	10 571	– 314	– 2.9%
Robbery with aggravating circumstances	5 981	6 214	6 100	6 119	5 489	– 630	–10.3%
Common Robbery	3 197	3 114	2 910	2 935	2 231	– 704	– 24%
Total	30 666	30672	31 328	30725	29325	– 1 400	– 4.6 %

Source (SAPS 2020)

The Western Cape Alcohol-related Harms Reduction White Paper (2017) identifies alcohol as a significant contributor to social harm, including violent crime in the province. Therefore, the provincial government decided that an alcohol-related harm reduction approach is needed. Various pieces of legislation like the Marketing of Beverages Act, 2013 and the Liquor Amendment Bill, 2017, supporting the White Paper, are stuck in bureaucracy, thus contributing a social contributor to violent crime is not effectively addressed. Alcohol-related harm and other identified societal factors like domestic violence, relationship issues and revenge attacks (root causes) are areas where community participation through community policing can play a fundamental role.

2.3.4 Gang activities

The Western Cape Minister for Safety and Security identified gang activities as significant contributors. The 2017/2018 crime statistics reveal that 22% of the murders committed in the Western Cape were gang-related, whilst 23% were due to arguments, domestic violence and retaliation or revenge attacks. No possible motive could be determined for a further 38% of the murders.

To address the 22% of murders attributed to gang-related violence, the SANDF was deployed on the Cape Flats to assist the police (SABC News Online 12 June 2019). According to the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) (August 2019), the deployment is misdirected as the areas with the highest murder rates in the province are not commonly known as gang-ridden areas. These are areas with rates per 10000 residents, like Nyanga (308/135:100 000), Philippi East (205/323:100 000) and Khayelitsha (192/82:100 000) compared to Manenberg (61/63:100 000, Bishop Lavis (98/82:100 000) the more known areas to be prone to gang violence. The deployment of the SANDF is thus not only misdirected but also not complemented with actions focusing on addressing social causes like domestic violence, relationship issues and revenge attacks (root causes).

The inability of SAPS to prevent violent crime is provided as a reason for the community of Khayelitsha's involvement in 'mob justice' (Gillespie 2013). The author defines 'mob justice' as any action by community members to take revenge and violent punishment for committing a crime. It usually happens in the presence of other community members to serve as a deterrent and "moral education". It is also referred to as community—based justice or popular justice. In 1996 the Cape Flats communities organised themselves and formed the anti-crime organisation People against Gangsterism and Drugs (PAGAD) to fight drugs and violence in their communities (South African History Online, 2011). It is thus evident that communities are already active in preventing crime, albeit illegally and outside the formal structures. However, this type of community action is counterproductive for policing as it adds to the already high workload of the SAPS. After researching Operation Good Hope as a model for violent crime prevention in the Western Cape, De Lange (200.80) recommended that an integrated development approach model is needed to address the challenge.

Cristova (2011:95) recommended, after surveying the influence of crime on a sub-economic suburb in the Cape Metropole:

- the promotion and formation of grassroots instruments for the sharing of experience and knowledge between communities,
- active community participation in the sustainable management and protection of local natural resources.

These steps will develop their productive capacity and build local capacity through the establishment of a network of community-based learning centres. These recommendations, along with others previously mentioned, indicate that the root causes of crime play a pivotal role in the commitment to crime and need to be addressed as part of a holistic crime prevention approach.

2.3.5 The root causes of crime

The root cause of crime may vary from community to community and are therefore difficult to generalise in identifying these root causes. Grant (2015:2) identifies social factors, employment and skills opportunities for youth, poor parental supervision, and many others as dominant causes of crime (South Africa, 1998, Cristova, 2011, Palmary, 2001). According to Palmary (2001), it is not a single social or environmental problem that leads to the commitment of a crime, but rather, the complex interaction between some of these causes contributes to an increase in crime. Hence, a diverse approach must be applied to address as many as possible of the identified issues. Table 2.6, adapted from Grant (2015:6), identifies certain domains (areas) of importance and links them to specific social and environmental risks. These domains include individual, family, school, peer-related and community factors. Individual factors could include hyperactivity and aggressiveness, whilst family factors could include parental criminality and child malnutrition. The factor discussed earlier in 2.3.3 and 2.3.4 could be viewed as some of the existing root causes of violent crime in the Western Cape.

Table 2.6: Domains of importance

Domains	Risk factors
Individual factors	Hyperactivity; risk-taking Aggressiveness Early initiation of violent behaviour Beliefs and attitudes favourable to deviant or antisocial behaviour
Family factors	Parental criminality Child maltreatment Low-income family management practices Low levels of parental involvement Parental attitudes favourable to deviant or antisocial behaviour
School factors	Academic failure Low bonding to school Frequent school transitions
Peer-related factors	Delinquent siblings Delinquent peers Gang membership
Community factors	Poverty Community disorganisation Availability of drugs and firearms Neighbourhood adults involved in crime Exposure to violence

Source: Grant (2015)

According to Saferspaces (2022), these domains could be identified as risk factors and, if present, could increase the chances of resorting to violent crime; therefore, the higher the risk factor, the higher the chances that someone would become violent and involved in a crime. Risk factors are "characteristics, variables, or hazards that, if present for a given individual, make it more likely that this individual, rather than someone selected from the general population, will develop a disorder" (Saferspaces, 2022).

Focusing on these domains (root causes) during a social crime prevention approach could decrease the commitment to a crime. According to Manaliyo (2014), after researching the root cause of crime in Site B, Khayelitsha, it was found that the following are perceived to be the root causes in that area:

Poverty and high unemployment rate: the argument is that the majority of the community is poor and unemployed individuals who are looking to satisfy their basic needs. Therefore, crime is seen as a strategy to gain income.

Alcohol consumption and drug abuse: it was found that alcohol and drugs were among the root causes of crime as either the perpetrator or the victim was using them. In the case of the perpetrator, it is to gain access to money to buy alcohol or drugs and in the case of the victim, when losing control due to taking alcohol or drugs.

Lack of parental guidance: the results showed that most crimes were committed by young adults and teenagers. It could indicate that parents are not concerned or interested in the whereabouts of their children or that some parents support and protect their children from taking responsibility for their actions.

Ineffective justice system: the research shows that it is perceived that the criminal justice system is ineffective and thus contributes to the root cause of crime. The unresponsiveness of SAPS to crime through late or non-attendance of complaints and the belief that SAPS members are corrupt and involved in crime are major contributors.

Lack of positive role models: the fact that Site B, Khayelitsha, is experiencing high levels of crime exposes young people to criminal behaviour. The high amount of unemployed youth in the area contributes to their vulnerability to negative social role models (Manaliyo, 2014).

These research findings confirm that each community experiences unique root causes of crime and needs to consider that in how they design solutions. The social-ecological model could contribute to addressing root causes.

2.4   Tackling the Root Causes of Crime

2.4.1   The Social-Ecological Model (SEM)

The Social-Ecological Model (SEM) emphasises the interaction between individuals, relationships, community, and societal influences that put people at risk of becoming victims or transgressors of violent crime (figure 2.1). The SEM encourages intervention over multiple levels simultaneously to effect meaningful prevention. On the individual level, the focus is on a biological and personal history that could influence the risk of becoming either a victim or transgressor of violence. These factors include, but are not limited to age, education, income, substance abuse or a history of abuse. Focusing on attitudes, beliefs, and behaviour could be prevention strategies. Conflict resolution and life skills training could also

enhance prevention strategies. The second level, namely relationships, identifies close relationships as a feature that may increase the risk of exposure to violence as a victim or a transgressor. Role players like peers, partners and family members could influence one's behaviour and contribute to exposure. Strategies for prevention at this level may include collective efforts like parenting and family-focused prevention programs (Centre for Decease Control and Prevention (CDC), January 2020).

Problem-solving skills could be improved through mentoring and peer programs. Community, as the third level, includes schools, workplaces, and neighbourhoods as areas of socialisation conducive to becoming a victim or a transgressor. Focus is placed on the social and physical environment to implement prevention strategies. The improvement of economic and housing opportunities in communities, social inclusion, attention to processes and policies and the social environment in schools and workplaces could be introduced. The fourth level, societal, examines broad societal issues that assist in creating a conducive environment for committing a violent crime. Social and cultural norms that are favourable to violence as a resort for conflict resolution are among these factors. Health, economic, educational, and social policies that promote social inequality amongst communities are contributing factors (CDC, January 2020). The ultimate aim of the model is to prevent crime before it begins.

Saferspaces (2022) refers to these elements as protective factors that could enhance an individual's capacity to abstain from violent crime and define it as "factors that shield people from the risks of becoming violent".
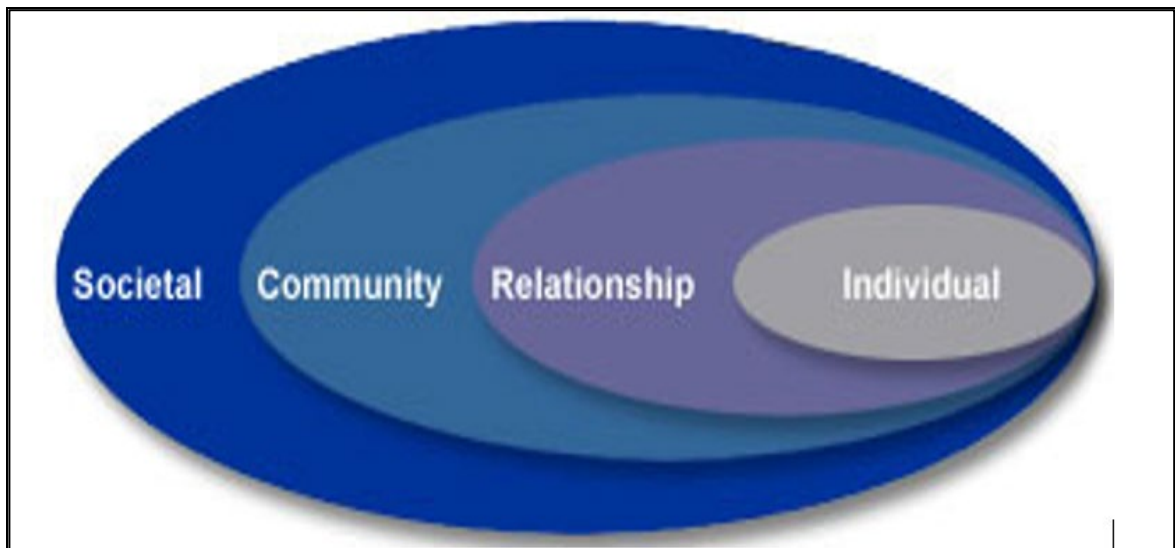
Figure 2.1: The Social-Ecological Model

Source: Centres for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC, 2020)

The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) promotes an adapted SEM and focuses on five levels of intervention: individual, interpersonal, community, organisational and policy/enabling environment (Figure 2.2). On the individual level, the UNICEF model corresponds with the CDC model concerning biological and personal history factors such as age, education, and gender. The interpersonal level corresponds with the relationship level of the CDC model, focusing on social networks like family, friends, and peers. The community level also focuses on relationships within communities like institutions, organisations, businesses, and community leaders. The organisational level corresponds with the societal level of the CDC model, focusing on social institutions and the services they provide to individuals and groups. The policy/enabling level concentrates on the role of all levels of government and globally to support and provide resources to enable individuals and groups to act (UNICEF, April 2018).
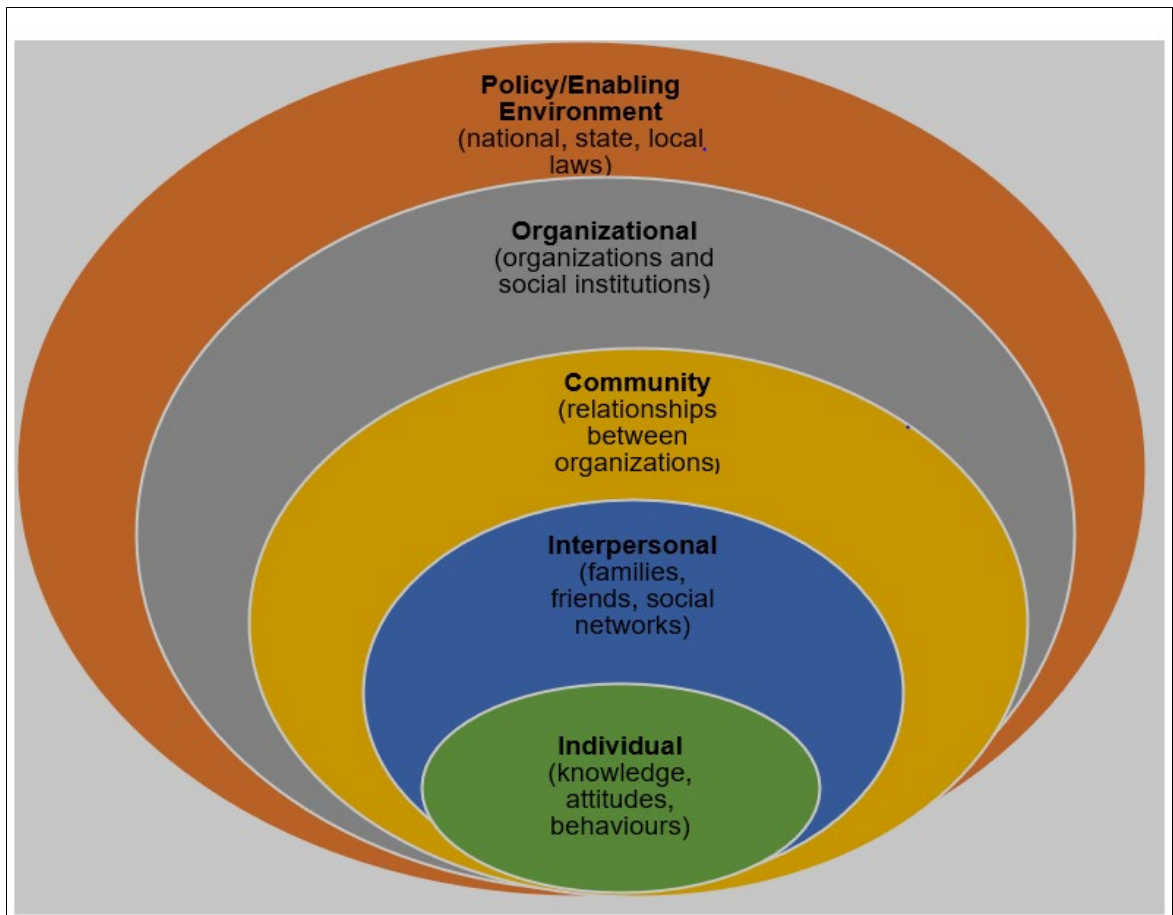
Figure 2.2: UNICEF's Social-Ecological Model

Source: UNICEF (April 2018)

There are considerable similarities between these models like the focus on the individual, community, and social levels. However, level five in the UNICEF model allows for the involvement of stakeholders in government and globally for the allocation of resources as well as addressing policy restrictions or adopting new policies where needed. A developmental approach to community development could assist with addressing the root causes of violent crime and providing protective factors to enable individuals to refrain from violent crime.

2.4.2 The Developmental approach to the root causes of crime

A developmental approach is needed for communities to improve their future (Theron & Mchunu, 2016). Patel (2015:29) defines development as a process that continuously improves the social conditions and well-being of the populace of a country. Lab (2020:135) considers a developmental crime prevention approach as focusing on societal activities that focus on factors that could predispose groups in society, specifically the youth. These activities must be directed at beliefs and attitudes to prevent recipients from getting involved in crime. The community (beneficiaries) must be the essential participant in the process (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998) in Theron & Mchunu, (2016: 17) and must be involved in all the phases, thereby a bottom-up approach instead of the top-down approach is followed. This will give them a direct say in development outcomes and enable them to influence and direct the process and control and own it. These authors mentioned that participation is the first building block in the holistic approach to the development process, followed by social learning, capacity building, empowerment, and sustainability.

2.4.2.1 Social Learning

The social learning principle is based on Peter Senge's (1990) "learning organisation" theory, which entails adaptive and generative learning. Adaptive learning focuses on events, and the change is retrospective, while productive learning through creativity emphasises the future. The focus remains on a learning-in-partnership approach. The teaching must be based on the common understanding of the community/ beneficiaries and the change agent/government's experience and understanding of the current situation. They must review the case through feedback and observation by asking what happened and why. This must lead to a conclusion through reflection by probing questions such as how we feel about it. Action should follow the decision and adoption to interrogate the processes, practices, and behaviours that need change. These actions should contribute to the desired future. This approach encourages movement away from the bottom-up approach, where only the views and experiences of the change agent shape the future. This social learning approach should lead to a continuous learning methodology whereby repeating the action steps would improve the desired result.

2.4.2.2 Capacity building

The next element focuses on solidifying the participants' personal and institutional capacity (Swanepoel and De Beer, 2011:26). Monaheng (2000:135) in Theron and Mchunu (2016:19) states that capacity-building consists of three components. In the first instance, it provides access for the participants to various resources like information and knowledge, social mobilisation, and financial and material resources. The resources are essential for the complement interventions or actions needed. The second component deals with the equitable distribution of resources, informed by social, economic, and cultural differences in a community; it must also recognise the contextual realities in the community. Effectiveness from the administrative and institutional structures is the foundation of the third component. The government structure, be it national, provincial, or local in South Africa's case, must be accountable and responsive to the needs of beneficiaries. Therefore, the system must build capacity as an enabler, not a critical role-player. That is the role and function of the community and their identified partners like non-government organisations (NGOs) and voluntary organisations.

2.4.2.3 Empowerment

The next element is built on the belief that authentic participation, social learning, and capacity-building would empower local communities. This will allow them ownership of the programme/project. Empowerment must allow people to express and assert their understanding of development to control the resources to the extent that it serves their needs (Liebenberg and Theron, in Liebenberg and Swarts, 1997). According to Burkey (1996), empowerment must create consensus among the community about the changes they want to experience. For Theron (2008), the following questions must be asked "Does capacity building take place" and "what type and form does empowerment take". This will allow for determining the value of the process in terms of empowerment.

2.4.2.4   Sustainable development

The last element is sustainability, which allows the benefits of current actions to be available to future generations. Liebenberg and Theron (1997:126) defined in Liebenberg and Stewart (1997) as a restricted process of the ongoing flow of benefits and resources in a developmental, ecological, and environmental context. Therefore, the actions must not be short-sighted in their approach and only provide for the existing challenges but must not create further or new challenges in the future. The five building blocks embedded in the public participation planning partnership (P4) enforced the theory that participation should be from the outside and the inside, meaning from affected communities and government structures to be influential and meaningful. Figure 2.3 demonstrates that participation depends on various dimensions, explicitly the intensity of the involvement, the point and stage in which communities are involved, the process's goal, the other stakeholders involved, and the participants' extent and power or influence.
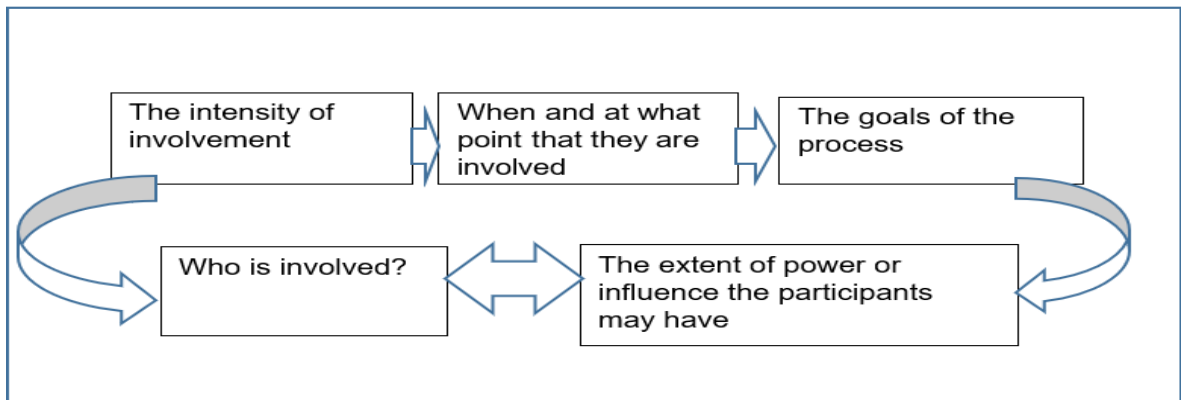
Figure 2.3: Dimensions of participation

Source: Researcher

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) (1994:8) identify a people-driven approach as its six principles. It declares that people are the most critical resource and must shape their future. People must not be passive recipients in the development process;

therefore, the government will build on existing knowledge of local communities in this approach. The principle of the people-driven approach is closely linked to another direction, namely, peace and security.

2.4.2.5   A developmental approach for the prevention of violent crime (DAPVC)

Community participation could be influenced by social learning. SAPS and the community learn about the root cause of violent crime and collectively produce a shared understanding and solution to the challenge. Social learning could lead to the capacity building of SAPS and the community. It would allow access to information, finances, and material resources on both sides. It will also enhance their capacity to deal with violent crime. Social learning and capacity building could empower the police and communities to deal with the root cause of violent crime. It could create sustainability to deal with future challenges in preventing violent crime; this process could thus be appreciated as a developmental approach to the prevention of violent crime (figure 2.4).
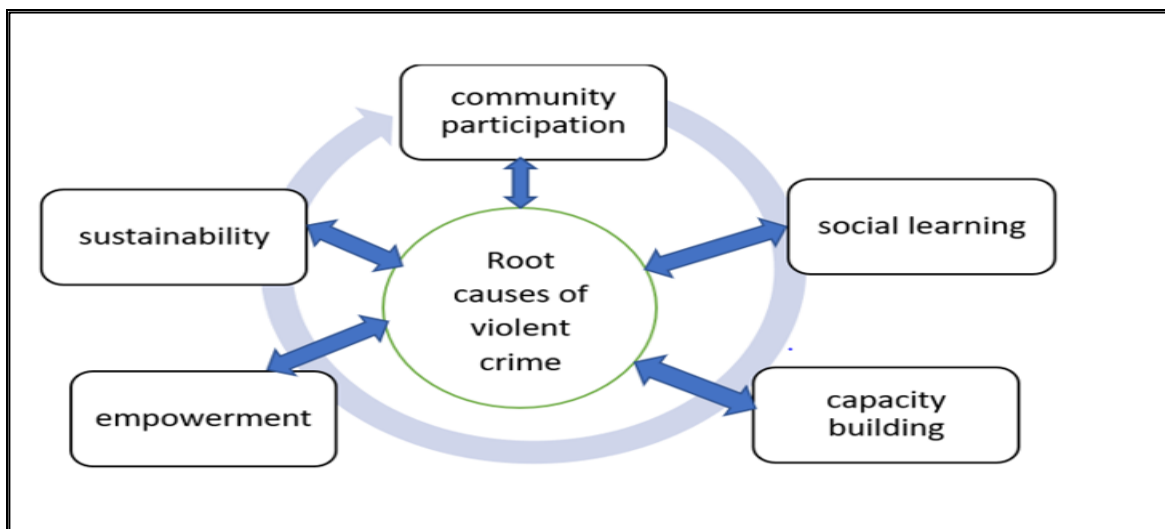
Figure 2.4: A developmental approach for the prevention of violent crime

Source: Researcher

This DAPVC allows for a holistic approach to community participation focusing on the root causes of violent crime. It could improve the social conditions and well-being of the specific community, as postulated (Patel, 2015). The following pronouncement by Burkey (1993) illustrates the fundamental approach to community participation.

Go to the people

Live with the people

Love them

Learn from them

Start with what they have

Build on what they know

And at the end, when the work is done, the people will rejoice:

'We have done it ourselves!'

The community participation process must start with the community, driven by and owned by the community. The communities' contributions must be appreciated, and their knowledge and judgment respected (Burkey, 1993:53). According to Mbambo and Shishonga (2008), community participation creates opportunities for local communities to be involved in matters that concern them. It also serves as a tool for closing the gap between government and civil society (Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008), which could create accountability and transparency.

2.5   Conscientisation as a Development Tool

Freire in Burkey (1993:55) believes that a process of conscientisation or problem-solving education is needed, whereby "the stimulation of self-reflected critical awareness in people of their social reality and of their ability to transform that reality by their conscious collective action". Conscientisation is about an understanding, conviction, and belief that like-minded people can change their situation to achieve the ideal reality (Ledwith, 2005).

It could also be defined as "a theory about the process of learning to perceive social, political and economic contradictions, and to take action against the oppressive elements of reality "(author unknown). It is essential to understand that conscientisation is an interpersonal process and cannot be imposed externally. It is, therefore, necessary for the government and the policing agencies to understand and support communities to realise their full potential through community participation in the prevention of violent crime. Conscientisation will also influence the extent and meaningfulness of the involvement of affected communities. It speaks to their contribution's relevance and vigilance to take action that leads to the desired change. The extent and meaningfulness of community participation would be adequately expressed in the participatory democracy approach.

2.6 Development and Collective Efficacy

The concept of Collective efficacy was developed in 1977 by psychologist Albert Bandura after observing working group dynamics. He concludes that there is a relationship between a group's performance and their confidence in their abilities. The fact that individuals are assured of their place and role in a team positively influences the performance of that team (Donohoo, Hattie and Eells, 2018). Collective efficacy can be defined as "a group's shared belief in its conjoint capability to organise and execute the courses of action required to produce given levels of attainment" (Bandura, 1997: 2018). Social crime prevention could hold the potential that crime levels could decrease if a community believes they can act together to overcome crime's social and environmental causes. Sampson (2013:29) defines collective efficacy as the collective will to solve the crime problem. He emphasises that it is an overarching and causal process that focuses on the expectations of controlling the order through informal control.

According to Brunton-Smith, Sturgis and Leckie (2018), collective efficacy "is conceived of as a confluence of networks, values, and norms of reciprocity that combine to enable individuals and communities to intervene as a way of suppressing norm-deviant behaviour and of maintaining social order". The fundamentals of collective efficacy for crime prevention are the willingness of communities to intervene and the capacity to perform informal social control.

The focus is on communities as a whole, existing networks, norms, and trust amongst community members and, importantly, the capacity of those communities to address the anti-social and criminal activities. The triple challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment pose a severe threat to the ability of communities to contribute effectively to collective efficacy. It could also distract communities from focusing on the social disorder as they are in "survival mode", with immediate needs like hunger, shelter, employment, and other critical needs at the forefront of their responsibilities. These factors could also lead to insecurity, which may influence and weaken the capacity of communities to develop collective efficacy. Social cohesion is a prerequisite for these communities to support collective efficacy since it is essential to understand how members of society think and feel about a particular situation.

The Organisation for Economic Development and Cooperation (OECD 2011) defines social cohesion as a process that focuses on the well-being of the community members and fights exclusion and marginalisation, with a sense of belonging, where trust is promoted. As a result, opportunities are created for the upward mobility of members. Social cohesion is the foundation of collective efficacy. It is well-known that the communities in this study, namely Nyanga and Mitchells Plain, are areas with high levels of poverty and unemployment, contributing to the inequalities they experience. It would thus not be easy to expect high intensities amongst members of these communities to advance collective efficacy.

2.7   The Participatory Democracy Approach

The Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (2006:7) states that a participatory democracy approach opposes the representative democracy approach, where participation is limited to only involvement in electoral processes.

According to the participatory democracy approach, politicians, policymakers, and bureaucrats do not have enough information and knowledge to make informed decisions regarding the needs of communities. This could inform the delivery of erroneous or unwanted services to communities. Theron and Ceasar (2013:102) support this approach and note that it also gets referred to as the "deepening democracy approach".

Pretty et al. (1995) in Theron and Ceasar (2013:109) present seven typologies that could be used to achieve the principles of the participatory democracy approach, namely:

- Passive participation. Participation is through people being informed about the action taken or what already happened. An outside power drives the process, and the people are passive bystanders.

- Participation in information giving. Participation occurs using providing information through questionnaires, telephone interviews, or other strategies. There is no opportunity for stakeholders to influence proceedings, and no feedback is provided, or an opportunity created for evaluation.

- Participation by consultation. Participation is through attending sessions where their views are obtained by an outside body that contextualises the problem and solutions. There is no participation in the decision-making, and the outsider is under no obligation to consider contributions made.

- Participation in material incentives. In return for food and cash, exchanging resources such as labour is considered participation.

- Functional participation. This type of participation happens when groups participate in a project's predetermined objectives. It could be developing or promoting initiatives outside their environment of interest. This form of participation happens after important decisions have already been made.

- Interactive participation. Whereby participation involves joint analysis, development of action plans and capacity building. The participation is authentic and empowering.

- Self-mobilisation. Participation takes place without the interference of recluses; stakeholders take independent initiatives. This is viewed as a bottom-up approach where the participants dictate and determine the assistance they need from outsiders.

Figure 2.5 illustrates the advancement from passive participation, where others told stake-holders how to act, to self-mobilisation, where the stakeholders are the decision-makers.
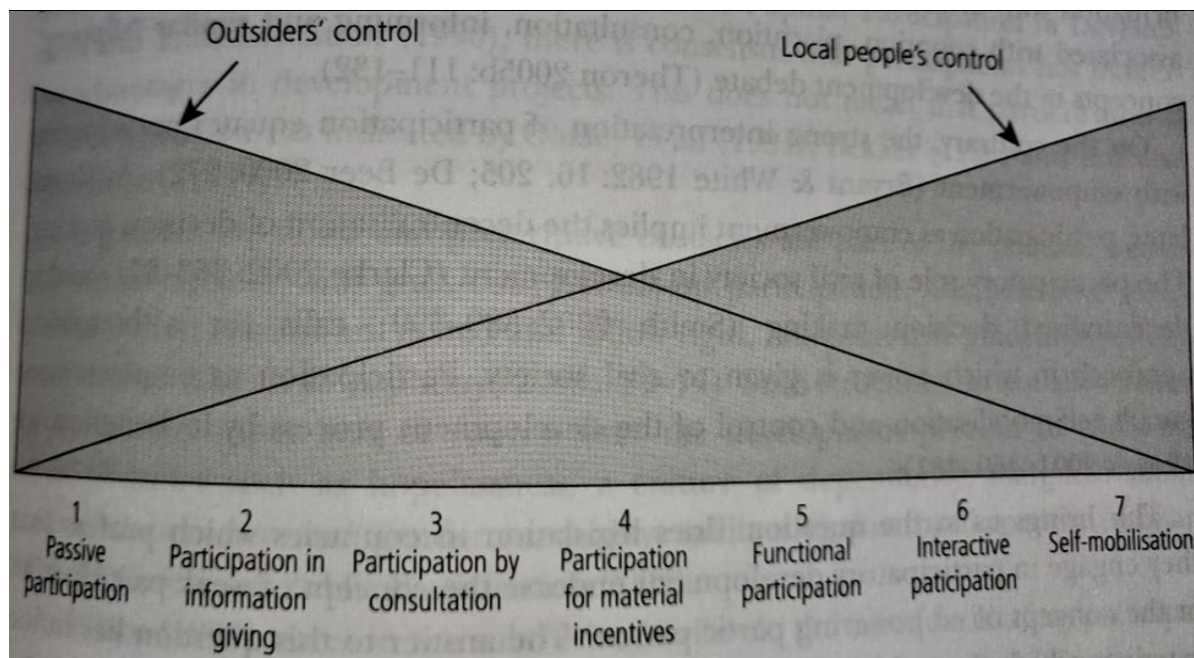
Figure 2.5: A spectrum of participation - Seven typologies

Source: Pretty et al. (1995) in Theron & Ceasar (2013:109)

Oakley and Marsden in Theron and Ceasar (2013:108) promote a four-step continuum for participation which supports the seven typologies of Pretty. The continuum is regarded as a process that transfers involvement from a "less desirable" to a "more desirable" situation.

- *Anti-participatory mode*. Community contribution to the programme/project is viewed as voluntary. There is no expectation from the beneficiaries to participate in the formulation or outcomes of the programme/project.
- *Manipulation mode*. Beneficiaries are involved in the decision-making, implementation, benefits, and evaluation of the programme/project.
- *Incremental mode*. Control of resources and regulative institutions in specific social conditions are given to groups or movements previously excluded.
- *Authentic participation*. The beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of

the programme/project to enhance their future in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance, or essential principles.

The key terms in this continuum are contribution, involvement, control, and influence, leading to successful community participation. Xali (2005) pronounces that for successful community participation in a democracy, communities must cooperate in many ways and trust societies' capabilities, directions, and actions. The author further states that an ignorant community is a poor service delivery partner. It is vital that the knowledge of communities is made available to government agencies and that it must be included in structural and other intellectual capital assets. The community's attitude must be "nothing for us, without us" (author unknown). Theron and Mchunu (2016:14) denote that the change agent /government should become a partner in a participatory process whereby beneficiaries could affirm themselves to create solutions for their problems. This could result in the knowledge of the change agent/government being blended with those of the affected community, which these authors refer to as the ideal development-in-partnership link. There would be genuine contributions by both partners, and Theron and Mchunu (2016: 17-19) refer to it as public participation planning partnership (P4); the result could be authentic grassroots participation that delivers equitability and transforms the livelihood of beneficiaries.

2.8   Chapter Summary

South Africa's crime rate is amongst the highest in the world, with violent crime a considerable contributor to these rates. Although dedicated crime prevention strategies are evident in policing agencies, they appear reactive, creating an opportunity for repetitive crimes to shift from one area to another, there efforts need to be supplemented with community participation The Western Cape province is one of the most significant contributors to the high crime rate in South Africa (SAPS Western Cape Annual Report 2019 -2020). Nyanga and Mitchells Plain policing precincts are two of the greatest contributors to the high violent crime levels. The excessive use of alcohol and gang activities were presented as reasons for the high levels of violent crime. Very little or no focus was placed on the root causes of crime. The root causes of crime may differ between communities and cannot be generalised. These root causes could become risk factors that create opportunities for violent crime and need to be addressed to ensure sustainability in the prevention of violent crime.

A development approach to these root causes contributes to protective factors for individuals against violent crime. While this chapter describes crime in general, specifies violent crime, and explores the core causes of crime and its impacts on communities in the following chapter, the concepts of crime prevention, community participation, and the legal framework are discussed.

CHAPTER 3

CRIME PREVENTION, COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND THE LEGIS-LATIVE FRAMEWORK

3.1   Introduction

The previous chapter discussed crime, its impacts, and the root causes of crime. Two concepts, namely crime prevention and community participation, are central to the arguments in this research. This chapter explores these concepts and explains why this community participation approach could help to solve the ongoing challenge of violent crime in the Western Cape. This chapter also focuses on the legislative framework for CPFs and community participation in general. As indicated in Chapter One, this research is based on the proposition that the SAPS and Local Government are dually mandated to perform the function of crime prevention, especially violent crime. Other government agencies are also involved in crime prevention, such as the South African Revenue Service (SARS), which deals with the prevention of custom-related crime, and the Department of Home Affairs, dealing with undocumented immigrants (Smit, Minnaar and Schnetler, 2004:17). Guided by the South African Constitution, 1996 (chapter 3) and the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, Act 13 of 2005, the South African government adopted a cluster approach to service delivery. Crime prevention forms part of the JCPS. The main argument of this research is that community participation through CPFs could increase the ability of SAPS to prevent violent crime.

3.2   Definition of Crime Prevention

A working definition of crime prevention is adopted from Burger (2007: 12) as "any action designed to reduce either the actual level of crime or the perceived fear of crime". Lab (2004:26) articulates crime prevention as any effort or mechanism to avert crime from happening or prevent further criminal activity.

3.2.1   Approaches to Crime Prevention

Understanding the different approaches to crime prevention is needed to comprehend community participation in preventing violent crime. Clarke and Newman (2005), Brantingham

and Faust (1976) pioneered the primary, secondary and tertiary approaches to crime pre-vention. Primary crime prevention approaches focus mainly on environmental factors such as town planning, urban renewal, and improvement of safety features. This approach is suit-able for local governments as part of their core functions. Newburn (2007:566) observed primary crime prevention as an action that changes circumstances, making it impossible to commit a crime. Groups of people at risk of becoming offenders or victims of crime focus on secondary crime prevention approaches. Communities can participate in activities and pro-grammes to manage these interventions. Lab (2004:26) and Newburn (2007:566) concur with this focus on secondary prevention. Tertiary crime prevention aims to help those who are already criminals and those who earn a living from criminality. This approach mainly focuses on those in custody, and community participation is limited in implementing these programmes. However, communities can participate in the reintegration programmes after their release from prison. The ultimate focus of this approach is the rehabilitation of these offenders.

3.2.1.1   *The Problem-orientated policing (POP) approach*

The Problem-Orientated Policing (POP) approach was first introduced in 1979 by Herman Goldstein, whose main argument was that policing was too reactive and not analytical enough. He accused the police of suffering from the "end over means" syndrome as they are more concerned with improving organisational and operational matters than the outcome of their work. He opined that a response from the police to each call is insufficient for crime prevention but that the police should identify the underlying causes of the problems and address that. The approach is centred on three key elements: identifying and defining the problem, gathering information about the issue, and implementing alternatives to solve the problem (Goldstein, 1997).

POP is aimed at the police to perform these three functions to improve their output, and they could consult the local community for assistance if needed (Carlos, 2013). The local com-munity is reduced to becoming a tool for policing, with no real influence on the outcome of the process. The SARA model (Scanning, Analysis, Response and Assessment) as the problem-solving approach is a product of the POP. During the scanning process, the police are expected to scan the community and identify the problem; analysis of the problem will

follow after a response is formulated and implemented. Lastly, the process will be assessed and evaluated (Washtenaw County Sherriff's Office, 2013). At any stage of the process, the police can request the assistance of the local community.

3.2.1.2   Community Problem-Orientated Policing (CPOP)

To accommodate community participation in the POP, a combination of community and POP was designed and referred to as Community Problem-Orientated Policing or community and problem-orientated policing (CPOP). According to Atkins (2000), CPOP involves the community joining the police as co-producers of crime prevention using a problem-solving approach. Some authors also refer to CPOP as a community-oriented policing (COP), focusing on community partnership, organisational transformation, and problem-solving (Skogan 2006, Weisburd and Eck 2004). The Cleveland Police Department (CPD) defines CPOP as the routine collaboration between the police and community members/stakeholders to identify problems, co-produce solutions and jointly assess the outcome. The focus is on creating a partnership and a problem-solving platform for issues of common concern. This demonstrates that CPOP is an approach that is implemented internationally.

3.2.1.3   The health approach

The CPD base their CPOP on what it describes as "the health approach". This approach is about preserving and encouraging the health of a community. While a healthy community appears well maintained, the community's efforts and other stakeholders, like the police, keep the situation intact. As soon as something goes wrong, immediate action is taken to regain the community's health.

For the health approach to be implemented, the CPD adopted The Wellness Model, which postulates that it is not enough to keep a body healthy to react when an event or condition is identified but that the body also needs a maintenance plan to secure the prevention of an event or illness from happening in the first place. Thus, communities need a maintenance plan to sustain their health (Cleveland Police Department, 2018 Community & Problem-orientated Policing Plan).

According to the plan, CPOP is the responsibility of all police officers without regard to where they are assigned. It is not an individual's responsibility or a specific unit or department. Literature on international f the use of CPOP show that some states in the United States fo America implemented it to deal with community participation. The Cincinnati Police Department also adopted the CPOP approach based on four principles: CPOP is a police approach to resolving troublesome community circumstances. It usually is repetitive in the form of offending, victimising, and locations. Problem-identification starts the process, which includes a description of the harmful behaviours and the environments where the behaviour occurs. Secondly, a careful analysis of the problem is needed. CPOP is driven by information; data, intelligence, and community input are essential. The focus of the study is to u ncover critical aspects of the problem that can be addressed to reduce the problem. In the third instance, the police and their partners must engage in a search for solutions, informed by the information analysis.

It could be that a law enforcement response is possible but may not be required under the circumstances. It could be that active participation or partnership with other City agencies, community members and the private sector is needed. It is thus imperative for the City to support the CPOP approach. Lastly, the evaluation of the problem-solving efforts is required to determine the impact on the problem. Once success has been achieved, the police can move on to other issues. In the case of limited success or failure, more work needs to be done, including re-analysing the problem or further searching for solutions (City of Cincinnati – Collaborative Agreement Provisions Evaluation, undated). Cincinnati Police Department acknowledges the difficulties it experienced in integrating problem-solving into the system, as traditional law enforcement values were the cornerstone of its approach.

Personnel did not quickly adopt these progressive and unconventional ideas. It took a lot of perseverance and diligence for the department's personnel to accept the problem-solving methodology as standard practice. The further problem was that this approach was time-consuming and labour-intensive and required academic skills and thought processes unavailable or acquired for law enforcement. To overcome these challenges, the Collaborative Agreement proposed a Community Police Partnering Centre with the primary function of impartial facilitator work with the community and the police to teach and advance CPOP.

The centre also needs to emphasise that the community must assume a leadership role in community problem-solving (City of Cincinnati – Collaborative Agreement Provisions Evaluation, n.d.).

3.2.1.4　Evidence-based Policing

The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) (22 May 2019) defines evidence-based policing (EBP) as the generation and testing of hypotheses to produce social evidence to best deal with crime. EBP is relatively new in South Africa but has existed since 1998. It is centred on the approach in the medical field (Evidence-based medicine) where successful medical treatment of a particular problem is shared. Other doctors could learn from it and build on the success, leading to continuous improvement (ISS 2019). Sherman (1998: 3) defines EBP as a methodology using the best available research outcomes to inform and evaluate policing activities. Lum and Kope (2015,6) add to the definition by stating that EBP is a decision-making perspective, not a remedy. A police approach is not blindly decided but is supported by research evidence and analytics. Lastly, that research finds its way into discussions on addressing crime (ISS, January 2020).

The actions of the police are cordon and search, stop and research, crime prevention fliers and other activities are examined to provide evidence for those actions and determine if the desired results are achieved. It could either lead to best practice with the evidence to support it, or it could be altered and changed based on the evidence obtained from the process (Figure 3.1).

| WHAT WE DO NOW | AN EVIDENCE-BASED APPROACH TO THESE ACTIVITIES | RESULT |
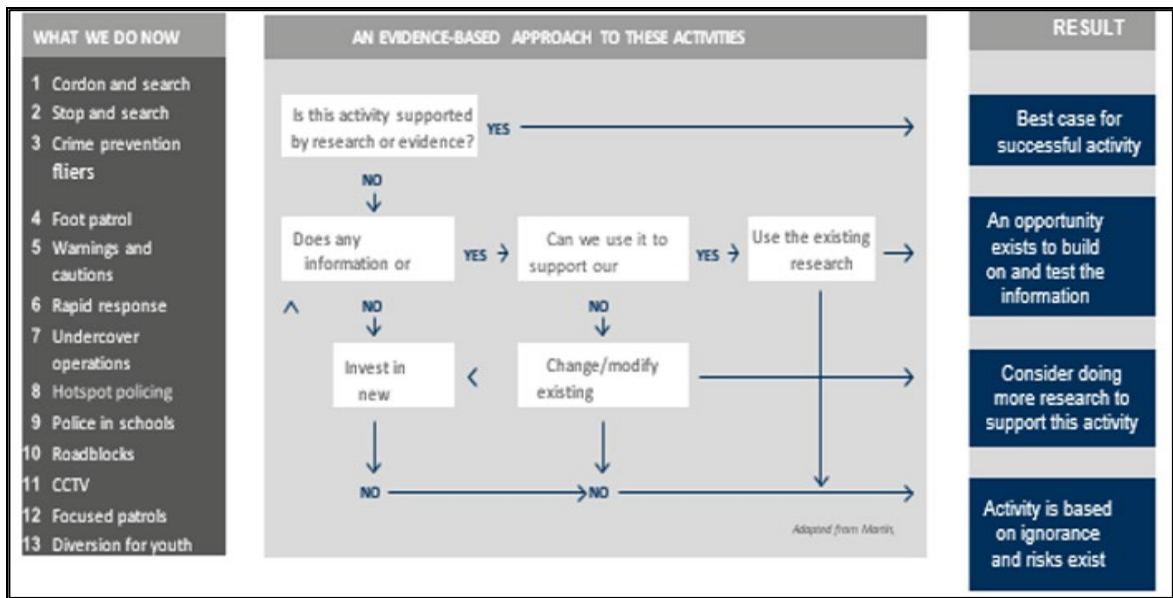
Figure 3.1: Evidence-based policing

Source: Institute for Security Studies (2019)

EBP is comparable to POP and is led by the policing agencies and supported by various other stakeholders and the specific communities that are not actively involved in generating evidence for implementation. In South Africa, Evidence-based policing is promoted in the White Paper on Safety and Security, the National Development Plan, and the SAPS' Sector Policing Guidelines and Research Agenda. EBP is currently piloted in the five police stations in the Eden district of the Southern Cape (Vuma, 2022). Limited evidence exists concerning the implementation of EBP in South Africa. Sherman, the founder of evidence-based policing, later adapted his definition to "a method of making decisions about 'what works' in policing: which practices and strategies, which police missions most cost-effectively. In contrast to making decisions based on theory, assumptions, tradition or convention, an evidence-based approach continuously test hypotheses with empirical research findings" (Sherman, 2013:1). This emphasised that decisions about policing must be based upon scientifically generated facts and not merely beliefs.

The original concept of evidence-based medicine includes five steps that explicitly include experienced practitioners and affected groups (Brown, 2018).

The steps in the process are as follows:

- Ask: the experienced practitioners should be asked to dissect the problem to allow precise and explicit articulation to the greatest extent
- Acquire: the best information on the problem must be obtained to determine relevance and validity
- Appraise: the evidence should be critically weighed
- Apply: using the evidence to the benefit of the affected groups
- Assess: the evaluation of the outcomes.

These steps could allow for a social crime prevention product suited to the needs of a specific situation.

3.2.1.5   The Broken Window Theory

The Broken Window theory of Wilson and Kelling (1982) is based on collective efficacy as it expects communities to respond immediately to an incident in their community. The theory assumes that if a window in a building is broken and left unattended or unrepaired, the rest of the windows will also be broken. The unattended or unrepaired window indicates a lack of care; therefore, the breaking of more windows will be treated the same way. This type of community response could indicate a lack of common concern and a willingness to address the issue. The authors maintain that abandoned property, dirty parks, and adults not dealing with their ill-disciplined children could lead to families moving out of communities and non-caring or criminal elements moving in. The Broken Window theory believes that unattended misbehaviour propels the breakdown of community values and therefore gives rise to criminality.

3.2.1.6   Social Crime prevention

The social crime prevention theory is premised on the proposition that law enforcement focused on crime prevention policies are inadequate or insufficient to deal with crime prevention. This approach must be supplemented with strategies that reduce social risk factors (root causes). Therefore, social crime prevention aims to support law enforcement by

influencing the macro-structural social factors contributing to crime in communities (Bruce and Gold: 2009). According to South Africa (1998), social crime prevention addresses the socioeconomic and environmental factors that may encourage people to commit a crime. Pelser et al., (2002) refer to social crime prevention as dealing with crime through social development.

The objective of social crime prevention is two-fold: firstly, to reduce an individual's motivation to commit a crime through their social influence and institutions of socialisation and, secondly, by altering social relationships and/ or the social environment (Crawford and Adams, 2017). Social crime prevention is about strengthening social cohesion and fabric through empowering individuals, families, and communities to participate in development (Department of Social Development's Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy, 2011). According to Hill and Paynich (2014), social crime prevention implements measures and initiatives that focus on social programmes, education, employment creation, welfare, police, and corrections. Furthermore, social crime prevention includes integrated crime prevention by individuals, communities and businesses, non-government organisations, and all levels of government aiming at social and environmental factors that could increase crime risk (Van Dijk and De Waard, 1991). These definitions crystallised that the primary focus of social crime prevention is to enable participants (individuals, communities, and government at all levels) to deal with social and environmental factors (root causes) conducive to crime commitment.

The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) (1996) identified a strategic, problem-solving approach or crime prevention. It emphasised cooperation and collaboration in planning to optimise their chances of success in the fight against crime (Department of Safety and Security,1996).

The White Paper on Safety and Security (WPSS) (1998) dictates that the government cooperates with local police to identify local safety urgencies and possible areas for the provincial government to address. This document also specifies public values and education as four-pillar approaches. Through this approach, meaningful community participation in crime prevention will be enabled through education and information programmes. The WPSS also promotes social crime prevention as an alternative or a parallel approach (supplementary) to the criminal justice approach (law enforcement) and defines social crime prevention as

actions directed at socioeconomic and environmental factors conducive to crime commitment. The focus is on social and environmental factors that could entice or lead to committing a crime. Therefore, social crime prevention could be the ideal approach to create opportunities for communities to conceptualise and implement strategies and programmes to address the root cause of violent crime.

The Department of Social Development (DSD) developed the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (2012) (ISCPS), emphasising the pivotal role of local government in effecting safe communities Up to date no evidence exists of the implementation of this strategy. In addition, the Annual Report on Police (2010/2011:59) indicates that the SAPS is involved in various social crime prevention partnerships with other stakeholders like the Interdepartmental Management Team for the Rape and Sexual Offences programme. The National Protection Authority (NPA) leads the programme and focuses on prevention, improving the criminal justice response, and supporting victims of sexual offences. The role of SAPS includes the prevention and investigation of those offences.

Another partnership is the Inter-Sectoral Steering committee for child justice, led by the Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DJCD). This committee monitors and observes the constitutional rights of children awaiting trial. According to the document, provincial structures have been established to ensure that SAPS is represented. The SAPS and the Department of Basic Education (DBE) are joint custodians of the Safer Schools Programme, linking police stations to schools. The establishment of Safer School Committees and standard social crime programmes and the mobilisation of local communities are some of the objectives of the intervention. Therefore, it is evident that the SAPS is involved in several partnerships with other departments and stakeholders.

According to Gould (2016), the criminal justice ministries and departments' custodians of crime prevention are absent in implementing social crime prevention. Their focus is instead on strengthening the crime investigation and prosecution process. The Departments of Social Development and Education were removed from the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster (JCPSC) to demonstrate that point. The government's emphasis is to enhance and strengthen the criminal justice system with the assistance of communities (Gould: 2016). It is questionable if this narrow focus on the criminal justice system will improve crime prevention without focusing on the root causes of crime. The failure of these efforts to

enhance community participation through social crime prevention resulted in approaches involving commercial partners and international funding. The Violence prevention through Urban Upgrading (VPUU) is such an approach and will be discussed next,

3.2.1.7   *Violence Prevention through Urban Upgrading (VPUU)*

The Violence Prevention through Urban Upgrading (VPUU) programme is the result of a partnership between the City of Cape Town (CoCT), the German Development Bank and the local community through the Khayelitsha Development Forum. The programme was launched in Khayelitsha, Harare, and Khayelitsha in September 2005 to extend to Nyanga, Gugulethu, and other identified areas. The approach is based on five components, namely:

1. Situational Crime Prevention focuses on spatial intervention through urban design through the physical building and upgrading facilities.
2. Social Crime Prevention is social actions to prevent crime and enhance community identity and independence.
3. Community Operation, Maintenance and Management (O&M) will aim to develop the institutional capacity of communities to enable them to deliver and manage facilities.
4. Community Participation ensures that the local people are fully involved in the programme.
5. Knowledge Management will record the lessons learnt and knowledge gained for future reference (Cloete, 2013).

These components indicate that this aims to be inclusive and allow the local community to develop their future.

The goals of VPUU include:

- a general upgrading of low-income neighbourhoods and a better provision of public and private social, cultural, and commercial services to the population;
- A strengthening of the capabilities and competencies of democratic community structures;
- Improvement of the potential for economic activities and income generation – and hence increase the self-help potential of the population;
- Effective community-led O&M of areas leading towards sustainable neighbour-hoods;
- Introduction of alternative conflict resolution mechanism;

The study of the association between infrastructure development and social outcomes in Khayelitsha found that respondents living within 2 km of VPUU infrastructure experienced less violence, displayed fewer signs of depression, and were more pleased with their infra-structure than those who lived more than 2km away from such VPUU infrastructures (Sala-hub et al., 2019). These findings align with policy development focusing on safety through environmental design, such as the Western Cape Province Integrated Violence Prevention Policy (WCIVPP), 2013 and the WPSS, 2016. In addition, Cloete (2013) asked the research question, "Is the VPUU methodology of community participation, representation and ac-countability suitable for reforming the South African local governance model"? The study was conducted in Harare, Khayelitsha. The findings of the study are as follows:

- No actual representation occurs as Safe Nodal Area Committee members were co-opted and not elected and argued that regular elections are needed for the presentation. Additionally, no actual decision-making process exists, as commu-nity meetings merely inform communities of the decisions taken.
- Participation is top-down instead of bottom-up, and the agenda and terms of par-ticipation are pre-determined. The Safe Nodal Area Committee is not accountable to the community but only to member organisations.
- Limited success was achieved with this intervention in terms of community partic-ipation. These findings are not envisaged in the components and goals discussed in this chapter, specifically in community participation, which envisages full

participation in the programme. However, this approach has the potential for full participation of the community if structured properly. Sector policing is one of the approaches of the SAPS to implement community policing in communities.

3.2.1.8 *Sector Policing*

The idea of sector policing as a method of community policing was introduced in 1994 when the then Minister of Safety and Security proclaimed that police officers should have in-depth knowledge of problems in a specific area to address those problems successfully. The NCPS alluded to sector policing as bringing the police service to the community. It further defined a sector as a minor, manageable part of a geographical area, with police members assigned to these sectors permanently (Maroga, 2016). According to Van Niekerk (2016, 8), sector policing fulfils community policing as perceived by the community policing approach. It focuses on crime prevention through partnerships with the community in a specific area. The objectives of sector policing are primarily aimed at improving the functions of the SAPS like crime prevention, visibility and accessibility, improved response time and crime investigation. The utilisation of the community through cooperation and partnership is merely in fulfilling the SAPS mandate and not as such to create meaningful engagement to find sustainable solutions to the existing problems in the community. It could therefore be perceived as police- rather than community-centred.

Without the input of the local community, the possibility exists that only the stakeholders known to the SAPS would be included in the profile; the same could apply to the crime trends and socio-fabric factors. The establishment of the sector forum makes provision for the meeting to jointly address safety and security issues in the sector. Therefore, it would be advised that the implementation process be changed to allow for the establishment of the sector forums and the compilation of the sector profile. This would create an opportunity for the community to form part of compiling the sector profile, increasing ownership and legitimacy of the process.

According to Burger (2007, 149) the focus of sector policing should be changed from community policing to community safety and should be aimed at:

- Structuring and organising the community and existing structures to enhance their safety and security;
- The creation of an effective mechanism for policing needs in a sector;
- Provision of sufficient and comprehensive information to the community regarding their sector;
- The utilisation of the community's information regarding threats in their sector;
- Intersectoral collaboration between different government agencies regarding root causes of crime, which are out of the control of SAPS (Burger, 2006:149);
- The overarching argument is that the community needs to be empowered to find sustainable solutions for the crime challenges in their sectors;

It is thus essential that the crime prevention function of policing agencies should be supplemented with interventions to be effective and efficient.

3.3 Community Participation

A community participation approach could assist in advocating the importance of addressing socioeconomic causes (root causes) of violent crime. However, community participation as an approach to preventing violent crime could only be articulated after crime prevention as a concept is conceptualised and a shared understanding is achieved. According to McGee (in Human, Marais & Botes, 2009), community participation can be defined as a "process whereby communities can influence and share control over development activities, decisions and resources involved".

3.3.1 Community Participation through Community Policing

Since the dawn of democracy in South Africa and the formation of the SAPS, the narrative of community policing has run like a golden thread through policing documents and policies. The themes remain collaboration, problem-solving and partnerships between the police and communities. It is worth noting that much emphasis is placed on communities assisting

policing action through providing information and supporting police initiatives, with less attention on the police doing the same towards the community. This focus on community policing could also enhance the legitimacy of police action after years of mistrust between the policing agencies and communities' efforts (Cachalia, 2007, Dixon, 2000). Community policing should be based on the principle that both the policing agencies and the community are jointly responsible for reducing crime and, therefore, should be equal partners. In countries like Britain and the United States of America, community policing was introduced to repair the ailing relationships with minority groups (Clegg et al., 2000). In South Africa, community policing forms part of the transition from apartheid to democracy.

Friedman (2000:3) defines community policing as a philosophy and an approach that requires extreme and principal changes to organisations to enable local communities to participate in policing. For Hill and Hupe (2002:294), community policing is a philosophy that focuses on the management styles and operational strategies of the police in dealing with community-police partnerships and problem-solving approaches. According to Roelofse (2007:77), community policing should not be viewed as merely a new structure; it should be a new philosophy focusing on changing the attitude, approach, planning, organisation, execution, and feedback in policing. The police and the community must be equal partners in this venture. Skolnick and Bailey (1988) denote that with the existing social and economic challenges (root causes of crime), community policing is not substituting social and economic change but merely serves as a crime-control measure. Community policing is a concept rather than moderated on flexible principles depending on the local cultures, religions, social morals, and traditional and informal structures (Clegg et al., 2000). A generic definition of community policing would be the interchangeable approach by various stakeholders to deal with challenges in creating the desired environment in a community.

3.3.2   South Africa's movement towards community policing

According to Pelser (1999:2), South Africa's first movement toward community policing was moulded by political violence after the unbanning of the liberation movements in February 1990.

This violence was mainly concentrated in KwaZulu-Natal, the old Transvaal (Gauteng), and the battles between the Inkatha and African National Congress (ANC) groupings. On 14

September 1991, the government, Inkatha and the ANC signed a National Peace Accord. The Accord contains fundamentals like accountability, integrity, impartiality, and effective service delivery. These fundamentals reflect the values attributed to community policing. The National Peace Accord also represented local, regional, and national community organisations.

The Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines identifies five core functions of community policing:

1. Service orientation – creating professional police service to respond to the community's needs and be accountable to the community. -
2. Partnerships – an approach of facilitation and cooperation towards problem-solving.
3. Problem-solving – to be jointly responsible for identifying and analysing the cause of crime and the co-production of solutions to these identified causes.
4. Empowerment – to create the capacity for addressing crime.
5. Accountability – comprehends the need for a culture of responsibility when dealing with the needs and concerns of communities (South Africa, 1997).

According to Minnaar (2010), the implementation of community policing was problematic due to the expectations from black communities, used to "self-policing" through structures such as street committees, self-defence units and people's courts. These activities were viewed as community participation in the prevention of violence in these communities. The expectations also include the idea that communities would police themselves and be supervised by formal police structures. These expectations would be incorporated with the establishment of CPFs.

These are some reasons community members lose interest in community policing as a crime prevention tool and view it as 'police business' (Pelser et al., 2002:26-27 &64). The aim of community policing was more focused on improving the operational effectiveness of the SAPS rather than dealing with needs and the active and meaningful involvement of the community. On the contrary, poorer, and disadvantaged communities observed community policing as controlling the police and not merely participating in policing (Brodgen & Nijhar

2005:138). Pelser (1999) postulated that CPFs face the challenge of whether they qualify as an organ of the state, which would entitle them to legal assistance from the state. The author claims that CPFs do meet the following constitutional requirements as prescribed in Section 239 of the Constitution of South Africa:

> [A]ny department of state or administration in the national, provincial, and local sphere of government; or any other function or institution exercising a power or performing a function in terms of the Constitution or a provincial constitution; or exercising a power or performing a public function in terms of legislation but not including a court or judicial officer.

The state has a constitutional obligation to sustain these institutions. The South African Police Act of 1995, through Chapter 7, regulates CPFs. To implement community policing, different theories were developed and proposed over time.

3.4   Community Policing Forums and Community Policing

The South African Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) was the first document that referred to community policing in community policing forums. CPFs are regulated by the South African Interim Constitution and the South African Police Act. Chapter 14 of the Interim Constitution creates the foundation of policing in the country, whilst Section 221 provides for community forums. In response to provisions in Section 221 of the Interim Constitution, the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act, through Chapter 7, regulates CPFs (This section has been carried over into Schedule 6: Traditional arrangements at item 24 of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996). Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act dictates that it shall liaise with community forums to achieve its constitutional mandate in Section 215 of the Constitution. In terms of the Act, CPFs will function at three levels: station, area, and provincial.

The following objectives are identified for CPFs in terms of Section 18 (1):

a) Establishing and maintaining a partnership between the community and the service.
b) Promoting communication between the service and community.
c) Promoting cooperation between the service and community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing.

d) Improving the rendering of police services to the community at national, provincial, and local levels.

e) Improving transparency in the service and accountability of the service to the community.

f) Promoting joint problem-solving by the service and the community.

These objectives were set against the transformation of SAPS and the amalgamation of the previous eleven policing agencies. Therefore, it partly aims to turn SAPS into an effective organisation that is accountable at all levels and responsive to the needs of the communities it serves (Pelser, 1999). Three categories of responsibilities can be identified from these objectives: improving police-community relations, oversight policing at the local level, and community mobilisation in the fight against crime (Pelser, 1999).

A fourth category can be added, legitimising policing, as police forces from the previous regime had little or no legitimacy amongst communities. Pelser (1999) denotes that these responsibilities could be contradictory as they expect CPFs to improve relationships and oversee police functions. Given the country's history, where the police were portrayed as oppressors, and police-led policing was the only option, this reservation of Pelser is plausible. The Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (1997) established five core elements for community policing: service orientation, partnerships, problem-solving, empowerment, and accountability. The SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001) formalised these elements into policy. These elements align with the objectives of Section 18 (1) of the South Africa Police Act as previously discussed and will, therefore, not be discussed again. SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001).

The SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001) formalise the elements of community policing into policy and deal with establishing CPFs at the station, area (now cluster) and provincial levels.

It also contains the principles relating to the functioning of CPFs and Boards. Section 8 (1) of these regulations, CPFs, must consult with the station management to develop an annual

community safety plan for their respective areas and submit it to the Cluster Board. Section 8 (2) dictates that the safety plan must:

- include action steps, projects, and programmes of the CPF to achieve the objectives of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act;
- indicate how these action steps, projects and programmes will be funded;
- [indicate] in what way these action steps, projects and programmes will contribute to the achievement of the objective of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act (South Africa, 2001).

These obligations imply that CPF members must be trained in or at least familiar with projects and programmes for successful implementation, as expected in the last obligation. Section 8 (3) requires that CPF Cluster Boards compile an area safety plan with action plans, projects, and programmes after receiving their respective police stations 'CPF's safety plan. The section further determines that Area Boards must coordinate and support the goals of CPFs. However, this section is unclear on the nature of the support the Cluster CPF boards must give. In terms of Section 8 (4) of the regulations, Provincial Boards must coordinate and support the Cluster safety plans. In this case, the support of the Provincial Boards to Cluster Boards is also unclear. Regarding logistical support, Section 11 (1) declares that SAPS is under no obligation to provide office accommodation to CPFs or any boards, whilst subsection (2) allows the station commissioner with discretion to accommodate CPFs with office accommodation temporarily. This is only allowed if that specific space is not needed for policing or where the CPF have no options available for their functions.

CPFs are, in terms of Section 12 (1), allowed to raise funds to sustain their financial needs and perform their objectives without clarifying or guiding these fundraising activities. These obligations in the SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards sanction CPFs to be involved in projects and programmes in the prevention of violent crime as it supports the objective of "Improving the rendering of police services to the community at national, provincial and local levels" as identified in Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act.

The formation of CPFs does not exclude other organisations from forming partnerships with them. However, the Constitution exclusively mandates CPFs. According to Veary (7 November 2017), CPFs agendas and programmes must be informed by community needs identified at grassroots levels by community structures such as street committees, neighbourhood watches and civic organisations. SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001) CPFs in the Western Cape are governed by the Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums and Boards in the Western Cape (2010).

3.4.1 Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums and Boards in the Western Cape (2010)

The Uniform Constitution for Community Police Forums and Boards in the Western Cape (2010) is an amendment of the first Western Cape CPF adopted In October 2004. The aim of the Constitution is articulated as "To regulate the establishment, functioning and management of Community Police Forums and Boards, to operate as effective Community Structures through which the Police shall liaise with the Community to achieve the objectives contemplated in Section 215 of the Interim Constitution and Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, and provide for the establishment of Community Safety- and Victim Support Structures under the control of the Forums and Boards", Western Cape (2010). According to this pronunciation, CPFs are community structures that allow SAPS to liaise with communities; thus, it is not a platform for the partnership to deliver the deliverables in terms of the interim and final Constitution. The aims and objectives identified in this Constitution build on those in Section 18 (1) of the Police Act, which was discussed earlier. The additions are as follows:

a) The promotion of cooperation between the South African Police Service, the Local Community, other Law Enforcement Agencies, Community Safety Structures, Victim Support Structures, Community-based Organisations and Institutions and the Municipal Police Service.

b) To promote respect for human rights within the ranks of the SAPS, the Local Community, other Law Enforcement Agencies, Community Safety Structures, Victim Support Structures, Community-based Organisations and Institutions and the Municipal Police Service.

c) Negotiation and cooperation with other Institutions at the Local, Cluster, Provincial,

and National levels to promote the aims and objectives of the Forums and Boards.

d) To mobilise the community and organisations in the community to join the Forums, Sub-Forums, Community Safety Structures and Victim Support Structures

e) To assist with the initiation and coordination of social crime prevention programmes and projects in conjunction with SAPS, other State Departments, Law Enforcement Agencies, Municipal Police services and other CPF Structures.

f) To request SAPS to account for the achievement of the objectives in terms of Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa" Western Cape", (2010).

These additional aims and objectives mainly address the operational and administrative duties of CPFs, whilst only one compels CPFs to form part of social crime prevention programmes and projects. It supports the SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001), empowering CPFs to perform crime prevention through social crime prevention. In addition to these legislations and policies that enable CPFs to participate in crime prevention, other pieces of legislation and policies also provide for the participation of CPFs and the community through other structures. This legislation and policies came under discussion in the following section.

3.5 Additional Legislation and Policies for Community Participation

This section explains the role of national, provincial, and local government and other state departments in crime prevention and community participation.

3.5.1 The Freedom Charter

Although the Freedom Charter is not recognised as part of the legislative or policy environment of the country, it must be acknowledged as a fundamental building block of the democratic process in the country. The interim and final Constitutions of South Africa included many of its demands. The Freedom Charter was formulated and adopted on 25, 26 June 1955 in Kliptown, Johannesburg, by the Congress of the People. The gathering was part of the intensifying of the freedom struggle. It was organised by the African National Congress (ANC) and its allies from the South African Indian Congress, the South African Coloured

People's Congress, the South African Congress of Democrats, and the South African Congress of Trade Unions.The purpose of the gathering was to create an opportunity for the people of South Africa to gather and document their demands in a standard document. The event was attended by three thousand delegates from all walks of life (SA history online, 28 October 2019). These demands documented on that day include the people shall govern, referring to voting rights for every citizen regardless of race, colour, or sex. In addition, it highlighted land, equality, human rights, work and security, education, housing, peace, and friendship. The new Constitution of South Africa includes several aspects documented in the Freedom Charter. Chapter 2 of the Constitution, also referred to as The Bill of Rights, provides these demands in the form of rights. Notably, neither the Freedom Charter nor the Bill of Rights relates explicitly to policing as a demand or a fundamental human right.

3.5.2   National Level

3.5.2.1   *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*

The preamble of the Constitution includes the phrase, "Lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people, and every citizen is equally protected".

It can be interpreted as a guarantee for people to participate in decisions taken on their behalf. Section 59 (1) provides for public involvement in the business of the National Assembly, whilst Section 72 (1) (a) makes the same provision for the National Council of Provinces. At the provincial level, Section 118 (1) (a) provides for public involvement at that level of government. Section 152 (1) (e) makes it imperative for local government to encourage community involvement in local government operations. Community participation is enshrined and acknowledged in the Constitution and all spheres are bound to adhere to it (South Africa, 1996).

3.5.2.2   *The National Development Plan (NDP)*

Chapter 12 of the NDP stipulates that a unified approach to safety and security is needed. It must be harmonised across numerous departments, the private sector, and civic organisations. "Active citizenry, an efficient criminal justice system and effective coordinated

partnerships with civil society and the private sector are key components of a sustainable strategy for citizen safety". The NDP thus encourages community activism and responsiveness (National Planning Commission, 2012).

3.5.2.3   *South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No, 68 of 1995)*

The South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act No, 68 of 1995), as amended by the South African Police Amendment Act, 2008 (Act No, 57 of 2008), determines that SAPS is responsible for the safety and security of all people in the country. Section 205 (3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa includes crime prevention as one of the core functions of the SAPS (South Africa, 2008). SAPS has initiated various community policing strategies, such as sector policing and social crime prevention projects, to enhance community policing partnerships. In October 2018, SAPS announced another such initiative, the Community Policing and Community in Blue Policing concept (South Africa, 2018)

3.5.2.4   *Community Policing and Community in Blue Policing Concept*

The Community Policing and Community in Blue Policing concept was adopted: "Towards an integrated and sustainable policing for a safe and secure South Africa". The overarching objective is to mobilise communities in the fight against crime and encourage them to become active partners in the prevention and combat of crime. The aims of the strategy are:

- To build a community that is morally alert through community outreach, education, and awareness
- To increase resilience to victimisation in sectors of our community through building community resilience to crime
- To build interrelation between safety and security stakeholders through a multidisciplinary collaboration of all role players in the JCPS cluster
- To involve and empower all formalised community structures in ensuring public order through Community Policing and Public Order Policing
- To acquaint the community with crime-fighting initiatives within SAPS through communication
- To capacitate CPF structures nationwide.

The concept further aims to develop community members into community patrollers and will be utilised in the following capacities:

- Participation in social crime prevention activities
- To implement situational and developmental crime prevention as part of their community participation approach
- To be advocacy groups for community involvement in the JCPS cluster
- To enhance SAPS ability in a visible and operational capacity
- To augment community-based intelligence (South Africa, 2018).

With these objectives and functions, the veiled aim is to allow community members to perform law enforcement functions which was never the aim of the objectives set for CPFs. Three categories of responsibilities can be identified from these objectives: improving police-community relations, the oversight of policing at the local level, and community mobilisation in the fight against crime (Pelser, 1999). The lack of training and competencies of community members to perform law enforcement could also ruin the purpose of the concept. Involving communities and, specifically, CPFs in the operational activities of SAPS could distort the oversight function of CPFs as it would expect them to be the executor and the judge. (Institute for Security Studies, 2021). It would be against the intention of the principle of natural justice, "Nemo judex in sua causa," meaning that no person can be the judge in a case in which they have an interest.

3.5.2.5   *The Civilian Secretariat of the South African Police Service Act (Act 2 of 2011)*

In Section 208 of the Constitution, a Civilian Secretariat must be established to function under the Minister of Police. The objectives of the civilian secretariat are contained in Section 5 of the Civilian Secretariat of the South African Police Act (Act 2 of 2011). These objectives allow the Civilian Secretariat to influence community participation in policing, as it could advise the Minister on policy development and implementation.

The Civilian Secretariat are empowered to implement partnership strategies and mobilise role players and stakeholders to improve service delivery by the police service. Community policing and CPFs could also gain traction through the Civilian Secretariat. These functions

of the Civilian Secretariat re-enforcing the objectives given to it by the Act, with a strong emphasis on community participation and the quality and accessibility of safety programmes. National dialogue on safety and crime prevention is also a pivotal function given to the Civilian Secretariat, allowing engagement with relevant stakeholders.

3.5.2.6   *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005*

The South African government adopted a cluster approach for service delivery in the country, directed by Chapter 3 of the Constitution and the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005. This Act intends to regulate the establishment of a framework to promote and enable intergovernmental relations between the different spheres of government. The SAPS and, more directly, crime prevention, forms part of the JCPS cluster. Other departments that form part of the cluster are Defence and Military Veterans, Justice and Correctional Service, Social Services, Home Affairs, State Security and Finance. The government aims to deliver integrated planning, decision-making, and service delivery by following a cluster approach.

The JCPS cluster designed several action steps as part of its delivery strategy, including:

> The mobilisation of the population in the fight against crime, the focus will be on changing the CPF regime to allow for a broader understanding of community safety and also to expand the role of CPFs to accommodate the matters of the JCPS and assist CPFs with financial support and administrative infrastructure to be more effective.

With specific regard to crime prevention, the JCPS action steps include:

- The implementation of social crime prevention measures through crime prevention campaigns in the 169 priority police stations around the country and prioritising the role of society in offender rehabilitation.
- The formation of partnerships with organs of civil society and communities aims to form partnerships for crime prevention and increase the role of communities in rehabilitating offenders.
- Improve the functions and effectiveness of CPFs.

It is evident that the actions of the JCPS are aligned with the vision of the Constitution in terms of community participation in policing and crime prevention, however scant literature is available on the implementation of these action steps. The SAPS also forms, along with the departments of Correctional Services (DCS), Justice and Social Development (DSD), part of the Criminal Justice System (CJS). The SAPS is mainly responsible for the crime prevention, investigation of crime and the arrest of criminals, whilst the NPA decides on prosecution, with the role of the courts to decide on the guilt or innocence of an accused person. The justice department must provide accessible, quality justice for all whilst the DCS manages the prison society and ensures that sentences are served to rehabilitate people in their care. The DSD provides social workers and probation officers to assist victims of crime, families, and communities (South Africa, 2019). The successful prevention of crime, and more so violent crime, would elevate the burden on all the other stakeholders in this system. This is one of the reasons that communities must participate in the prevention of violent crime to improve. In August 2015, the CJS adopted a seven-point plan, with one of the points partnering with communities.

3.5.2.7   *White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service 1995 WPTPS)*

The change to democracy in South Africa necessitated a shift in service delivery. The fragmented service delivery and inequalities during the apartheid regime are well documented. Initially, the government adopted the Public Service Act of 1994 to create a unified national public service. To change the public service to be representative and provide a service to address the social and economic inequalities and race-driven approach, the White Paper on the Transformation of the Public Service, 1995 (WPTPS) was adopted.

The WPTPS is aimed at three levels of the public sector: administrative, service delivery, and statutory agencies; it is, therefore, inclusive of the entire public service. The mission statement of "the creation of a people-centred and people-driven public service characterised by equality, quality, timeous and a strong code of ethics" embraced community participation and created a clear path for partnerships between the state and civil society. The objectives of the WPTPS include communication, consultation, participation, and six other key areas. The focus is to create an effective mechanism for consultation and involvement of internal stakeholders like public officials, unions, and civil society to contribute

meaningfully to the process. To give effect to the objectives of the WPTPS and ensure practical implementation of the White Paper on Transforming Public Service 1997, the Batho Pele White Paper was adopted.

3.5.2.8   *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997 (WPTPSD) (Batho Pele White Paper)*

The RDP informs the transformation and improvement of public service delivery and focuses on how general service delivery progresses and the effectiveness of these services. Therefore, the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997 (WPTPSD) focuses on the people receiving these services, which is why it is named the Batho Pele White Paper. Batho Pele is a Sesotho proverb meaning 'People First'.

The following eight principles accepted to guide the policy are called the Batho Pele principles: Consultation, Service standards, Access, Courtesy, Information, Openness and transparency, Redress, and Value for money.

The principle of consultation is aimed at participation to allow citizens to influence the public services they receive and choose as far as possible the services they need, thereby affecting the level and quality of these services. Information, openness, and transparency will make information available to communities and empower them to make informed decisions. The other principles do not directly influence community participation. The National Crime Prevention Strategy was one of the first steps of the ANC government to address the unacceptable levels of violent crime at the time.

3.5.2.9   *The National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS)*

The high levels of crime, more so violent crime, were concerns faced by the newly elected democratic government in 1995. The realisation that crime and violence could threaten citizens' constitutional rights and freedoms and impede democratic processes led to the embracing of the NCPS by the government.

Coupled with this, the government also realised that the reasons for crime are deep-rooted, that the country's historical and socioeconomic realities must be considered, and that a

comprehensive strategy beyond policing is needed. Thirdly, it was accepted by the government that civil society's energy is required to deal with crime and violence. The objectives of the NCPS gave birth to the introduction of the ICSPS, albeit almost fifteen years later.

3.5.2.10 *Department of Social Development's Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy*

In 2010 the Cabinet adopted the Outcome-based approach to deliver the national priorities, which were what the government expected to achieve, how to achieve it and identifying signs of achievement.

Cabinet agreed on twelve (12) critical outcomes with clear outcomes and indicators (The Presidency, 2010). Outcome 3, "All people in South Africa are and feel safe, " focuses on crime prevention at all three levels of government. This must be done cooperatively and mutually by the government, the private sector and civil society (The Presidency, 2010). This outcome laid the foundation of the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) adopted by the DSD in 2011. The strategy acknowledges that the causes of crime and violence are complex and that diverse methods are needed to prevent crime and violence.

Furthermore, the strategy notes that issues such as community participation, improved community safety, building social cohesion and adding value to the quality of life of all people are essential to the strategy. The motivational factor for the adoption of the ISCPS has been "to reduce the crime rate through empowering young people, victims, women and all vulnerable groups to address the root causes of crime, to mobilise dynamic forces in communities by taking a long-term approach, to work towards the sustainability and mainstreaming of responses and results emanating from social crime prevention efforts in communities and at the local level" (DSD, 2011). The ISCPS identifies six strategic objectives to institutionalise social crime prevention across different departments and external role players.

These objectives emphasised that localised experience is pivotal to unearthing the causes and the systematic dysfunctions that contribute to the high levels of crime and violence. Furthermore, these objectives affirm that local solutions should be explored as a point of departure for intervention strategies. Moreover, it presents a comprehensive role for government and civil organisations to collaborate. Along with these objectives, certain principles guided by the Batho Pele values embraced the ISCPS.

3.5.2.11   Principles of the ISCPS

Whilst the Batho Pele values guide the enacting of the ISCPS, the emphasis on early intervention and the primary focus on prevention will receive priority. The following guidelines will apply:

- *Participation*: Full participation by communities in social crime prevention is a prerequisite.
- *Self-reliance and empowerment*: Communities must be encouraged to become self-reliant, and there must thus be the empowerment of people by departments to improve their quality of life.
- *Accessibility*: The availability of services based on universal access and equitable disbursement of resources.
- *Transparency and Accountability*: The services in the form of interventions and programmes should be appropriate and be delivered transparently, whilst departments should maintain accountability.
- *Effectiveness and Efficiency*: Implementing the ISCPS should be cost-effective and efficient.
- *Partnership*: Partnerships between the government, civil society and the business sector are the main driver of the ISCPS. These partnerships must also augment and promote social justice and integration.
- *Sustainability*: The ISCPS should be implemented sustainably (DSD, 2011).

The abovementioned principles guide the actions of government departments in implementing the ISCPS and, if diligently applied, could contribute to a bottom-up approach to crime prevention. The objectives and principles of the ISCPS are shaped by specific values that echo "the whole government departments" and "whole society approach", where the contributions are equally valued irrespective of the contributor's position.

These values include:

- *Support for all*: creating opportunities for all South Africans to participate in social crime prevention.

- *Family as the cradle of nature*: Forming strong family foundations to produce safe communities.
- *Community safety*: the assurance of security within all the communities, irrespective of the resources available.
- *Mutual respect and dignity for all*: The enforcement of the Constitutional obligation towards citizens.
- *Integrity*: The processes followed must be trustworthy and provide a platform for hope in government processes.
- *Accountability*: The rules of good governance must be applied to the spending of public funds.
- *People first*: A people-centred approach founded on diligence and respect must be followed to deliver the ISCPS (DSD, 2011).

With these clearly defined objectives, principles and values, the ultimate goal of the ISCPS is to identify and address the root causes of crime. In addition, the aim is to mandate relevant government departments and civil society stakeholders to collaborate in their actions.

3.5.2.12   White Paper on Safety and Security (1998) (WPSS)

As one of the first policy frameworks for safety and security since 1994, the White Paper on Safety and Security (1998) (WPSS) responded to the challenges of reforming the police from a force to a service. It also sought to introduce social crime prevention to law enforcement officials to reduce crime and violence. The objectives of the the1998 WPSS include the definition of strategic priorities to approach crime and violence, to express the role and responsibilities of multiple role-players in the safety and security environment, especially that of local government and civil society and to clarify the constitutional duty of the Department of Safety and Security (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016). The WPSS was reviewed in 2010 and resulted in the identification of the need for two separate policies, namely one that would concentrate on policing White Paper on Policing (WPP) and the other focusing on integration and development as tools to erode crime and violence, with the understanding that crime and violence prevention extends beyond the contribution of the policing agencies. The latter identified need led to the development and adoption of the WPSS (2016).

3.5.2.13 *White Paper on Safety and Security (WPSS) (2016)*

The White Paper on Safety and Security (WPSS) (2016) confirms that the obligation to create safer communities is no longer a function of government in isolation but rather is the responsibility of the government and its citizens. This belief is founded on the broader development agenda of the government determined by the Medium-Term Strategic Framework (MTSF 2014-2019) and articulated by the NDP2030. The WPSS is premised on the Socio-ecological mode and is discussed in a later chapter. This model advanced the interventions in individual, family, community, and government spheres to empower capacity and flexibility and provide protective measures endorsed by broader fundamental and environmental change in promoting safer communities. Furthermore, as alluded to in this chapter, the WPSS endorsed the primary, secondary and tertiary crime prevention methodology to achieve safer communities (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016).

3.5.2.13.1   Evidence-based interventions

The WPSS states, "Strategies and interventions must be evidence-based and informed by a multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices". The document further states that evidence must be provided regarding social crime prevention in dealing with the underlying causes of crime and violence. The White Paper emphasises that reliable, updated information must be collected from various departments and sectors to ensure, amongst others:

- Identify specific contributing factors (to obtain a holistic understanding of the frequency of the problem and the modus operandi of those involved).
- Evaluate what works and develop a database of evidence-based information for future use (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016). The WPSS, therefore, endorsed evidence-based policing.

3.5.2.13.2   Public and Community participation

Centred on the NDP 2030, the WPSS recognises the importance of public and community participation to achieve sustainable strategies for safer societies. The WPSS promote the involvement of the public at large and specific communities in several areas to support

safety, crime, and violence prevention, including the development, planning and implementation of interventions, and public and private partnership. These actions must be enabled through inclusive community structures such as different faiths, youth, businesses, women, and marginalised and disadvantaged groups. Community Safety Forums (CSFs) and CPFs are the two structures identified as essential and vital forums in achieving the objective of public and community participation.

3.5.2.14   *White Paper on Policing (2016) (WPP)*

The White Paper on Policing (WPP) (2016) is informed firstly by the revision of the 1998 WPSS that required policing to be informed by the changes that happened in the country after the dawn of democracy in 1994 and the priorities of the NDP objective of "Building Safer Communities". These priorities can be summarised in four broad categories: the professionalisation of the SAPS to demilitarise policing, the building of safety through an inclusive approach, and the strengthening of communities' role in protection. Some synergy could be identified amongst these objectives in that a professional and demilitarised police service could enhance integration and community participation.

In terms of community participation, the WPP defines community-centred policing as "creating an environment that facilitates building sustained community support and participation". Central to this approach is that policing must be sensitive to vulnerabilities and policing challenges of local communities. Important to note is that the WPP prescribes that local police must have the ability to respond to these vulnerabilities and policing challenges of communities. However, there is a lack of consistency in referring to approaches as the WPP at one stage refers to community-orientated policing that remains the operating paradigm of SAPS.

The WPP continues to describe community-orientated policing as the SAPS and CPFs must forge partnerships to enhance regular communication and information-sharing, thereby limiting community participation to these two levels. The areas of organised business, civil society formations and academia were identified to form working relations with, whilst the construction of street committees and youth involvement in community policing under the auspices of CPFs are encouraged.

However, it is noticeable that the WPP pronounced, "Issues related to the operational effectiveness of CPFs and their ability to properly execute their mandate in terms of oversight over the police will be best resolved by locating these structures within the Civilian Secretariat for Police". The Civilian Secretariat for Police was shaped to affect Section 208 of the Constitution. Effective oversight over the SAPS thus enhances the role of the Minister of Police (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2016).

Commonalities between WPP (2016) and the WPSS (2016) are that both focus on an integrated approach for achieving identified objectives and emphasise community participation as essential to obtain safety. The significant difference between these documents is that the WPSS (2016) focuses on the external environment of SAPS to contribute to creating safe and secure communities, while the WPP focuses internally on improving policing through a professional and demilitarised approach. Along with other legislation and policy directives discussed earlier in this chapter and previous chapters, it enables the government at the national level to make the community participate effectively and efficiently in developing policies, strategies, and programmes to prevent crime and violence. In addition, the South African Constitution provides provinces to adopt their Constitutions and be involved in policing.

3.5.3 Provincial Level

3.5.3.1 *The Constitution of the Western Cape*

In terms of Section 142 of the South African Constitution, in 1998, the Western Cape Province adopted the Constitution of the Western Cape to guide the functioning of the provincial government. In terms of Section 143 of the South African Constitution, the content of provincial constitutions must be consistent with the content above. In Section 116, the South African Constitution dictates equal public access to the provincial legislation applicable to the National Assembly and the NCOP. The Constitution of the Western Cape, in terms of Section 28, gives effect to the direction of consistency by duplicating the provisions for public access made for the National Assembly and the NCOP. Chapter 8, Section 66 (1) of the Constitution of the Western Cape demonstrates the police functions that Section 206 (3) of the South African Constitution empowers provinces with.

These allocated functions indicate that the provincial government has no operational powers and responsibilities in policing. Their role is limited to overseeing the police, building police-community relationships, and liaison with the Minister. Promoting good relations between the police and communities could create a window of opportunity for the Western Cape government to further an agenda of community participation in policing. On 22 August 2012, the Premier of the Western Cape, after receiving complaints about police efficiency and the breakdown in the relationship between the community and the police in Khayelitsha, appointed a commission of inquiry to investigate these allegations. This was done in Section 206 (5) of the Constitution. This decision was challenged by the Minister of Police but was upheld by the Constitutional Court (4 September 2014, *Eyewitness News*). A further window of opportunity is created by Section 66 (2), which empowers the Western Cape government "to investigate or appoint a commission of inquiry into any complaint of police inefficiency or where there is a breakdown in relations between the police and the community". This opportunity to promote community participation is, conversely, reactive after researching existing ties. Both these opportunities are limited in allowing this level of government to encourage community participation in policing. To perform the functions identified in Section 66 (1) of the Constitution of the Western Cape, Section 67 (1) permits the provincial parliament to pass legislation for the execution. In 2013 the Western Cape provincial government published the Western Cape Community Safety Act, 2013 (Act 3 of 2013) to regulate the performance of the province's constitutional obligations regarding policing, as discussed earlier in the chapter.

3.5.3.2   *Western Cape Community Safety Act, 2013 (Act 3 of 2013)*

In conjunction with the regulation of the constitutional obligations of the province in terms of policing, the Western Cape Community Safety Act (3 of 2013) allows for performing the functions bestowed on the province by Sections 19 and 21 of the South African Police Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), which is to provide for directives for the establishment CPFs and boards. The Western Cape Community Safety Act also provides partnerships with community organisations and accreditation organisations and associations as neighbourhood watches. To enhance community participation in policing, the Provincial Minister is granted permission by the Western Cape Community Safety Act to perform certain functions in terms of Section 3, three elements are extracted from Section 3 as follows:

1. the promotion of good relations between the police and the community;
2. the identification of possible causes of any breakdown in the relationship between the police and any community and launch measures to improve the relations;
3. the establishment of partnerships with any community aiming at fostering good police-community relations.

Section 5 of the Act allows the Provincial Minister to issue directives for establishing CPFs and boards. Regarding support for CPFs, Section 5 (3) states, "the head of the department may assist community police forums and boards by providing funding, training or resources". This leaves the head of the department with discretion in terms of funding, training, and resources, with no obligation towards CPFs or boards.

Section 6 of the Western Cape Community Safety Act encourages voluntary community organisations and associations that are operating not for gain and with the sole purpose of safeguarding their members, their immovable property and other property against crime to apply for accreditation with the Department of Community Safety (DOCS) as neighbourhood watches. These accredited neighbourhood watches qualify for funding, training, and resources from the provincial department. In this case, the Provincial Minister, and the department responsible for policing the DOCS are duly mandated to ensure and enhance community participation in policing to contribute to crime and violence prevention in the province. In contrast with the limited opportunities created by the Western Cape Constitution for community participation in policing, the Western Cape Community Safety Act makes ample opportunities for community participation to contribute to the safety of communities. To enhance the ability of the provincial government to contribute to the prevention of violent crime, the WCIVPP framework was adopted in August 2013. The policy aimed to create a comprehensive intersectoral and whole-of-society approach to violence prevention.

3.5.3.3 *Western Cape Integrated Violence Prevention Policy 2013 (WCIVPP)*

After hosting the World Health 5th Milestone meeting in 2011, which emphasised the need for "joining forces and empowering prevention", the Western Cape government adopted the Western Cape Integrated Violence Prevention Policy (WCIVPP). The policy focuses on the

health approach that concentrates on the underlying causes and risk factors (root causes) present in society, the community, the family, and the individual. The interactions of these factors could result in acts of violence. Therefore, the whole-of-society approach included in the policy's aim is defined as individuals, parents, communities, and the state preventing violence.

One of the focal areas of the integrated provincial violence prevention policy framework is to improve collaboration between various sectors such as health, criminal justice, education, and social development. Another feature of the policy is that activities must be evidence-based to justify the intervention (Western Cape Government, Department of the Premier, 2013). The policy's objectives speak to initiatives identified by the provincial government to address violence in communities. Still, there is limited reference to community participation except that the guideline denotes that a whole-of-community approach will be applied. Several years after adopting the policy, no evidence exists to prove that the strategy enhances or contributes to violence prevention in the province.   The Western Cape Government's (WCG) Provincial Strategic Plan, 2014-2019, identified safety and wellness and social ills as one of its five strategic goals for the period.

3.5.3.4   *Western Cape Safety Plan (WCPS)*

The Premier refers to the plan as the most comprehensive and expensive safety plan in the history of the Western Cape. The WCPS focuses on the following:

- The deployment of 3000 new law enforcement officers to crime-ridden areas
- The deployment would be based on data-led technology
- Training and deployment of 150 investigators to prepare dockets for prosecution
- A violence prevention programme that is world-class and is evidence-led
- The allocation of a safety priority for every cabinet minister (Western Cape Government, 2019).

These focus areas are not aligned with the constitutional obligations of provincial governments, as discussed earlier in this chapter. These obligations indicate that the provincial government has no operational powers and responsibilities in policing. Their role is limited

to oversight over the police, building police-community relationships, and liaison with the national Minister.

Section 41 (1) (g) of the Constitution directed that each sphere of government "must exercise their power and perform their functions in a manner that does not encroach on the geographical, functional or institutional integrity of government in another sphere". In terms of implementing policing policies, the tension between the national government (SAPS), the provincial government, and the local government (CoCT) is well documented and compounded by the fact that the national government is ANC lead. In contrast, the province is led by the Democratic Alliance (DA), and the DA also governs the CoCT. This tension heightened in 2013 when the Constitutional Court in Minister of Police and Others v Premier of the Western Cape and Others again expressed the centralised nature of the South African policing model.

The court reiterates that the Provincial Executive's powers over the police are limited to 'monitoring, overseeing and liaising functions' as set out in Section 206 (3) of the Constitution. The court confirmed Provincial Executive has limited powers over the police, and all significant power is vested in the national government. The Mail and Guardian (5 August 2020) reported a leaked memorandum from the Western Cape Police Legal Service. The SAPS complained that the CoCT is overstepping its mandate by performing crime investigation functions. Another issue was the introduction of law enforcement officers by the provincial government. The Act allows law enforcement officers to perform search and seizures, which SAPS claims to be a national competency. The apparent response to the allegations is that a "serious shortcoming" in service delivery by SAPS sparked their activation of these services.

These shortcomings of SAPS are identified in the plan as the deployment strategies and pronouncements by SAPS are not supported by data and technology, the ratio between administrative staff and operational staff, the inadequate skill level within SAPS, the lack of accountability for poor service delivery as well as the criminal behaviour by police members, the weak state of community-police relations and the challenges faced by police leadership. Therefore, these shortcomings called for the WCG to intervene in providing policing to the communities in the province (Western Cape Government, 2019).

The WCG furthermore depend on Section 206 (1) and (2), which state that "A member of the Cabinet must be responsible for policing must determine national policing policy after consulting the provincial government and taking into account the policing needs and priorities of the province as determined by the provincial executives" and "The national policing policy may make provision for different policies after taking into account the policing needs and priorities of these provinces". The argument is that the Minister of Police is ignoring the needs and priorities identified by the WCG, thus putting them in a situation to fill the policing gap through their means and ways. These actions are detrimental to communities as a collaboration between these levels of government could enhance the prevention of violent crime in the city and province. It, however, strengthens the argument for community participation in the prevention of violent crime. Secondly, these focus areas of the WCSP do not include the root cause of crime to be addressed. Therefore, it could be argued that the plan is overemphasising law enforcement as a solution to the problem, with little or no attention to community policing and social crime prevention. As discussed earlier, the Western Cape Constitution acknowledges that a local government only mandates those functions or, in the case of crime investigation, only the SAPS are constitutionally mandated.

According to the WCSP, the WCG will agree with the CoCT to support its crime prevention function. The CoCT (local government) is duly mandated in terms of legislation to perform the role of crime prevention. The investigation capacity identified in the WCSP will also be conducted in partnership with the CoCT (Western Cape, 2019). According to the WCSP, these interventions are interim arrangements and will be revisited when SAPS adequately responds to the needs and priorities identified by the WCG. Thirdly, the focus area of creating a violence prevention programme that is world-class and evidence-led could be achieved through the objectives of CPFs, namely "Promoting cooperation between the service and community in fulfilling the needs of the community regarding policing" and "Improving the rendering of police services to the community at national, provincial and local levels".

These objectives are derived from the South African Police Service Act through Chapter 7, regulating CPFs. Section 18 (1) of the Act dictates that the SAPS liaise with community forums to achieve their constitutional mandate in Section 205 of the Constitution. Sections 19 and 21 of the South African Police Act of 1995 mandated the WCG to establish CPFs and boards. It could thus be argued that there must be cooperation between the WCG and

CPFs to achieve the objective of CPFs. In implementing the focus area of an integrated violence prevention programme, the Department of Community Safety (DOCS) adopts the Area Based Team (ABT) approach.

3.5.3.5   Area Based Team (ABT) approach

The Area Based Team approach in support of the implementation of the WCSP aims to reduce murders and violence overall. This sole objective will be achieved through:

- Aligning violence prevention, urban design, and law enforcement interventions;
- Using evidence-informed & data-led methods;
- Applying it in selected high-violence areas;
- Coordinating all interventions using ABTs (Western Cape Government, 2021).

It is unclear whether these activities aim to converge the root causes of violent crime. The role of communities is not clarified as stakeholders are identified as government and civil society. Community participation in this approach is limited to consultation regarding safety matters. In support of the ABT, the WCG will assess the functionality of CPFs. (Western Cape Government, 2021).

ABTs were established in Atlantis, Bishop Lavis, Delft, Khayelitsha, Harare, Samora Machel, Gugulethu, Mitchells Plain, and Philippi/Hanover Park. ABTs aimed to reduce the murder rate by 50% by 2029 (Western Cape Government, 2021). In response to the establishment of the ABTs, the Western Cape Police Board chairperson, on 22 June 2021, on behalf of 153 CPFs, wrote to the Portfolio Committee on Police Chairperson, calling for intervention between the CPFs and DOCS. The reason forwarded in the letter is that the position of CPFs is not given any financial support by DOCS for crime prevention projects or training to enhance the capacity of its members.

The author mentioned that the CPFs were informed about establishing the ABTs and that CPFs in those areas are not guaranteed financial support. The letter also claims that DOCS are causing division between CPF members by directly funding and providing equipment

and training to neighbourhood watches. Finally, it stated that neighbourhood watches are members and stakeholders of CPFs.

The letter further requests intervention regarding the conflict between CPFs and SAPS provincial management. The conflict is centred around the existence of CPF boards due to the restructuring of SAPS. These allegations mentioned in this letter are not complementary to community policing and the relationship between WCG and CPFs, as SAPS and CPFs are not conducive to effective community participation in preventing violent crime. Whilst uncertainty exists about provincial governments' role and functions in policing, local government is duly mandated to prevent crime.

3.5.4   Local Government

Along with the national government, local government is mandated to perform the function of crime prevention. Section 64E (c) of the South African Police Service Amendment Act, 1998 (Act No.83 of 1998) sanctions local governments for executing crime prevention in their respective municipalities. The South African Constitution, through Section 152 (1) (d), empowers local government "to promote a safe and healthy environment", and subsection (1) (e) allows for community participation in the matters of local government.

3.5.4.1   *Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2000*

Chapter 4 of the Act deals with community participation in the business of Municipal Councils; Section 16 stipulates that municipalities must develop a culture of community participation, which includes:

- the function is to encourage and create conditions for community participation in the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), a municipality's principal strategic planning instrument;
- the building of the capacity of communities to participate meaningfully in the processes;
- provide resources and funding for the implementation of the priorities mentioned above.

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Section 17 of the Act deals with community participation mechanisms, processes, and procedures. Thus, the local government is legally obliged to allow for community participation in all their affairs, including promoting a safe and healthy environment. The WPSS (2016) identifies local government as a critical role player in service delivery to local communities regarding safety and security.

3.5.4.2 *Community Safety Forums*

The WPSS (2016) defines the role of CSFs as delivering the national agenda of enhancing the delivery of crime prevention and the improvement of the criminal justice system at the local level. The formation of CSFs is based on two documents, the NCPS (1996) and WPSS (1998), which recommend an integrated approach to crime prevention and the enhancement of law enforcement.

3.5.4.3 *Community Safety Forums Policy (2011)*

The main aim of the policy is to govern the functions of Community Safety Forums (CSFs) in terms of their mandate to facilitate the provision of a multi-sectoral approach by the government in terms of safety and security in communities. The policy declares that CSFs are instruments to enhance and support the role of CPFs because CPFs are partnerships between SAPS and a specific community and is only mandated for policing and do not include other government departments and other stakeholders, such as the criminal justice and social sector government organisations

The SAPS is responsible for facilitating and maintaining partnerships and communication between the community and the police. The role of communities is to influence and participate in CSFs programmes. The community participation approach advanced in this research is ideally suited to be implemented by CSFs to venerate community participation in crime prevention. Furthermore, the involvement of CPFs in CSFs could allow them access to resources and stakeholders outside their environment.

3.6   Chapter Summary

Crime prevention and community participation are central to the arguments in this study. Various crime prevention approaches exist, but not all the approaches make provision for community participation. Community policing was adopted to allow for community participation, and CPFs are constitutionally mandated to implement community policing. Various policies are in place to guide the functioning of CPFs. These policies are supported by other legislation and policies at the national, provincial, and local levels. Some of the additional policies and legislation make explicit provisions for CPFs to participate in crime prevention, while others provide for community participation in general. The next chapter explores the theoretical background for crime prevention and community participation.

While the information in this chapter is extremely comprehensive and relevant, I believe that examiners will be looking for two additional strengths:

1. As far as possible a consistently chronological structure allowing for an assessment of the development of legislative policies in regard to policing over time (or if the underlying principles did not really change from 1994 to the present – this should also be noted)
2. More importantly, they will need to see additional literature which critiques each policy and reveals to what extent it was implemented, and to what extent it was successful. (This may entail cutting some of the details so that the chapter doesn't get too long)

CHAPTER 4

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO CRIME PREVENTION AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

4.1 Introduction

Chapter 3 presented a discussion of crime prevention and community participation, as well as the legislative and policy framework for community participation in crime prevention and the roles and responsibilities of the three spheres of government in terms of community participation in crime prevention. This literature confirms that there are sufficient enabling legislation and policies for community participation at all three levels of government to amicably deal with the challenge of violent crime prevention in the Western Cape. The challenge appears to be translating these goals and objectives in these policies into action through policy implementation. Khan (2019) posited that a public policy is a guide to deliver on a wide-ranging framework whereby philosophy, principles and vision or decisions are put into action through programs, projects, and actions, which is policy implementation. This is what is needed with the various legislation and policies that were discussed in the previous chapter. In this study, a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime in the Western Cape could be designed and implemented in this way. In this chapter the policy process which includes agenda setting, policy design, decision-making, implementation and evaluation is discussed. This process could assist in designing, implementing and evaluation of a community participation approach. The core objectives of this research are to determine if the Nyanga and Mitchells Plain CPFs are involved in programmes and projects to fulfil their mandate and to propose a community participation approach in the prevention of violent crime.

4.2 The Policy Process

Policy implementation forms part of the policy process that consists of various steps. Cloete and De Coning (2011) define a policy as

[A] public statement of intent, including sometimes a more detailed program of action, to give effect to selected normative and empirical goals in order to improve or resolved perceived problems and needs in society in a specific way, thereby achieving desired change in society.

Anderson (2011) defines public policy as "a purposive course of action followed by an actor or set of actors in dealing with a problem or matter of concern". The essence of a policy is therefore to provide for re-action to either a real or perceived problem or matter with the aim of bringing along change. This change is aimed at improving the life of the community. Whilst Cloete and De Coning are not clear of how the community is supposed to participate in the implementation, Anderson indicates that it could be one actor or more, creating the opportunity for the community to partake in the implementation process.

The policy process consists of five interlinked steps according to Cloete and de Coning (2011). These steps are:

4.2.1   Agenda setting

Policy agenda setting aims to get the attention of decision-makers on certain policy issues, ultimately to be addressed in the form of a policy. Agenda setting entails systematically identifying issues, defining, and structuring the problem, prioritising the problem, and lobbying for support. The issue at hand must be identified correctly and systematically (Cloete and de Coning 2011). it is important to ensure that the real issues are identified and addressed during implementation. The issues of this study are the prevention of violent crime and the participation of the community in the process. These issues are captured in some of the legislation and policies scrutinized in the previous chapter. Similarly, the problem is well defined and structured in this legislation and policies. It's also been declared a priority and is supported by the government and other stakeholders.

4.2.2 Design

The emphasis of policy design is the planning and the development of policy content, thus is the decision of government actions in dealing with problems and perceived problems in society. The policy design process will allow for:

- Understanding the context and meaning of policy goals, objectives, and alternatives;
- Explanation of the process of identifying policy goals and objectives, including the possible constraints;
- Clarify the bases of policy goals, objectives, and alternatives;
- Dealing with the prioritization of policy goals and objectives;
- Application of forecasting and predictions in policy design;
- The consideration of aspects for alternative policy options;
- Implementation of analytic approaches such as cost-benefit, and cost-effectiveness analysis to avoid wasting of resources.

Policy goals and objectives are the essences of policy design. These policy goals and objectives must be aligned with the problem identified in the agenda-setting phase. It will be detrimental if the problem is not identified because it could lead to policy goals and objectives either misaligned or producing the wrong outcomes during implementation. It is thus paramount that the correct decisions are made during the decision-making phase.

4.2.3 Decision-making

Decision-making in the policy process is viewed as the choice between alternatives at a given moment. It is, therefore, the continuation of the design phase as it chooses between the alternatives generated during that process. The authors determine four (4) steps in the decision-making process, namely, identify the problem, develop the alternatives, analyse the alternatives, and choose the best alternative. It is imperative that the community are part of the decision-making process because they are stood to benefit or loose in terms of the alternative that's get chosen. The best alternative needs to be implemented to give essence to the policy.

4.2.4   Policy implementation

Policy implementation forms an integral part of the policy process, and many policies fails due to the lack of implementation, it is the argument in this chapter that the policies discussed in chapter 3 need to be implemented to deal with the challenge of violent crime. A community participation approach in the prevention of violent crime could be such an alternative.

De Coning, Cloete, and Burger (2018:197) define policy implementation as "the conversion of mainly physical and financial resources into concrete service delivery outputs in the form of facilities and services, or into other concrete outputs aimed at achieving policy objectives". Brynard and De Coning (2006:183) support the position of the relationship between the policy objectives and implementation. Implementation is therefore crystallizing of the objectives of the policy that is aimed to solve the original problem or issue identified. It allows for decisions to be translated into action that could be performed through different approaches.

4.2.4.1   Implementation approaches

The existence of different approaches to implement policies provide stakeholder with the opportunity to utilise an approach best suitable for the circumstances. These approaches include the top-down, the bottom-up and the synchronised top-down and bottom-up approach.

4.2.4.1.1   Top-down implementation approach

This approach allows for decision makers to control the implementation phase and through that decide how the objectives will be achieved (Barret 2004:2005). According to Najam (1995:12) in De Coning, Cloete, and Burger (2018:200) this approach starts at the top level of authority and posed the following questions:

- to what extent the actions of implanting officials and the target groups were consistent with the objectives and procedures outlined in the policy decision?
- to what extent the objectives were obtained over time?
- what were the principal factors affecting policy outputs and impacts?

- how was the policy reformulated over time based on experience?

This view confirms Barret's articulation that the top-down approach permits the decision-makers at the top to control the implementation process with no discretion or influence allowed at lower levels. In terms of community participation this approach could be viewed through the Elite/Mass model of policy analysis of Cloete and De Coning (2018:41-42) (Figure 4.1). The model advocates that there is a divide between elite that could be the decision makers and the masses based on power and influences. It could be perceived as bias towards the achievement of the objectives of the elite and not those identified in the policy. This could result in failure of implementation or the alienation of stakeholders.
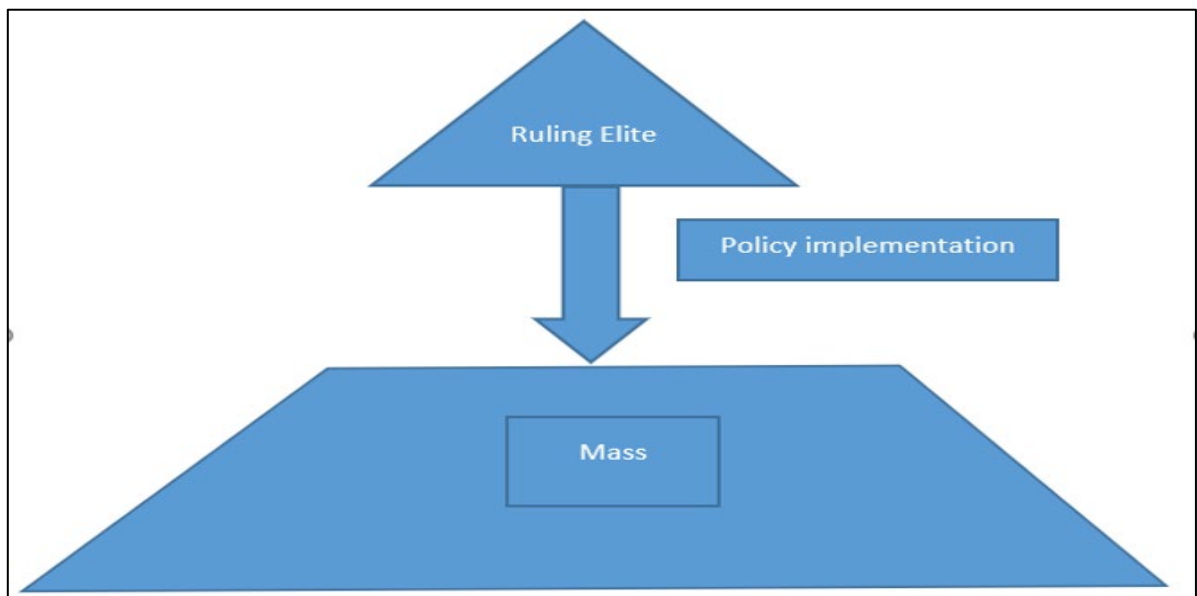
Figure 4.1: Top-down implementation approach

Source: Adopted from Cloete and De Coning (2018:42)

4.2.4.1.2   Bottom-up implementation approach

Hill and Hupe (2009:61) explain that the bottom-up approach focusses on the identification of networks of actors and agencies for collaboration during the policy implementation phase.

The collaboration between these actors and agencies could create for discretion in the implementation at lower level to better fit the local needs. The main difference from the top-down approach is that it is inclusive of stakeholders outside of the decision makers. Najam (1995:14) in De Coning, Cloete, and Burger (2018:201) suggests that the focus should be on the common objectives of both approaches and acknowledges that both contributes useful insight onto the implementation process and thus supports the synchronised top-down and bottom-up approach.

The author also alluded to the fact that each of the approaches could be relevant to a particular circumstance than the other or could be equally relevant at certain stages of the implementation phase. Najam lastly identifies that there is a need to develop new implementation models that embrace the strength of both these approaches.

4.2.4.1.3   Synchronised top-down and bottom-up approach

According to De Coning et al. (2018:203), there exists a common understanding about the complexity, dynamics, multi-level, multi-actor involvement during the implementation phase. This could be influenced by the content and context of the policy being implemented. Therefore, both the top-down and bottom-up approached could both be applied based on the relevancy of the of the complexity, dynamics, and stakeholders. For the implementation of a variety of policies discussed in chapter 3 a synchronised top-down and bottom-up approach for the implementation of community participation in the prevention of violent crime would be appropriate. This would allow communities to meaningfully participate in the implementation of these identified policies and for policing agencies to perform the top-down enforcement of those policies. Barret (2004:258) refers to a hybrid implementation approach that envisages to bridge the differences between the top-down and bottom-up approaches through the incorporation of elements of both. It could allow for central steering and autonomy at local level. Chand (2011) opined that there are other approaches that could reconcile implementation between the top-down and bottom-up approaches.

4.2.5　Alternative implementation approaches

Chand (2011) proposes the following alternative approaches of the implementation process:

The structural approach

This approach focuses on the structure of the organisation as either be horizontal or vertical and for implementation it deviates from the hierarchy and allows flexibility and adaption to the changing environment. It also recognises the interaction between the policy design and the implementation on the policy (Chand, 2011).

The procedural approach

According to this approach, clear procedures should include in the organisational structures and could assist with implementation as it would set pace, co-ordinate, schedule timelines and monitor and manage the implementation progress, thereby ensuring efficiency and effectiveness (Chand, 2011).

The behavioural approach

The dependence on human beings to perform certain actions during the implementation could never be underestimated. The behaviour could be influenced by competency levels, attitudes towards the change brought along by the policy. It is thus important that during the design phase that clarity is sought amongst the policy actors and the target population (Chand, 2011).

The political approach

This approach advocates that the patterns of power within an organisation could influence the implementation. It could ensure the coherent willingness of dominant groups and hold the ability to pursuit coalition partners inside and outside of the organisation (Chand, 2011).

All these alternative policy implementation approaches indicate the adaptability and responsiveness to implementation needs as needed for a community participation approach in the prevention of violent crime. Due to the diverse opinions and the complexity of the implementation phase, interlinked variables are identified by De Coning, et al., (2018: 206 -212) to

assist with the understanding and of implementation and refer to it as the 7-C protocol for implementation. The seven variables are discussed in the next paragraph.

4.2.5.1   The 7-C protocol for policy implementation

Content

De Coning et al. (2018:213) postulate that content refers to the relevancy of the principles and objectives a policy and that its needs to constantly updated in line with existing legislation, directives and identified needs.

Context

According to Brynard (2005), context refers to that policy implementation does not take place in a vacuum. The environmental influences such as the political, social, economic, and legal should be considered during implementation. De Coning et al. (2018:213) assert that the institutional context, such as strategic direction and leadership for implementation, could determine the success of the implementation.

Commitment

Those responsible for the execution of the implementation need to be committed to the task and get the other stakeholders' buy-in. Commitment could be influenced by the already discussed variables (content and context) and the remaining variables, such as capacity, clients and coalitions, communication, and coordination. On the other hand, these other variables could also influence the level of commitment to the execution of the implementation (Brynard, 2005).

Capacity

The structural, functional, and cultural ability for policy is pivotal in creating the capacity for policy implementation. These abilities must be supported by tangible resources in the form of human, financial, material, and technological resources (Brynard, 2005).

Clients and Coalitions

The engagement with stakeholders through public participation and the formalisation of strategies could ensure meaningful participation of all interested parties in implementing the policy (De Coning et al., 2018:214).

Communication

A clear communication strategy is needed to communicate the goals and objectives, roles, and responsibilities of those responsible for the implementation of the policy (De Coning et al., 2018:206). Such a communication strategy could influence the commitment of stakeholders.

Coordination

Cooperation could influence the coordination during the implementation of the policy. This cooperation amongst transversal working groups could enhance alignment, assist in forming partnerships and also engage all the relevant stakeholders (De Coning, et al., 2018:214).

The seven variables for implementation could add value to a community participation approach in the prevention of violent crime. The content of the approach should be based on relevant legislation, directives and identified needs. Institutional context could be provided through the leadership of CPFs, and other organisations involved in community policing, whilst being involved as active partners in the prevention of violent crime could ensure the commitment of these actors. The capacity of CPF and other organisations members could be enhanced through their participation in the implementation, and they could also bring some capacity to the implementation process. As clients of the policing agencies CPFs and community organisations could form coalitions and join forces with these agencies to improve the prevention of violent crime. The CPFs and community organisations could form an integral part of the communication strategy as they are closer to the communities then the policing agencies. This could lead to better coordination between all the relevant stakeholders. These variables are thus suitable to integrate in a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime. The implementation of policies aimed at the prevention of violent crime through community participation should be in the form of programmes and projects. These two implementation methodologies will be discussed next.

4.2.6   Policy implementation through programmes and projects.

The intention of government to bring along change through policy could result in not achieving the perceived change if the policy is not implemented as intended (Van Baalen and De Coning 2011:171). Programmes and projects are viewed as instruments to achieve the implementation of policies. There is thus a relationship between policies, programmes and projects in that policies create the environment and guidelines for the necessary change to be performed. Programmes are the different activities arranged by government and find construction through ongoing activities and projects (Van Baalen and De Coning, 2011: 171) (see Figure 4.2).
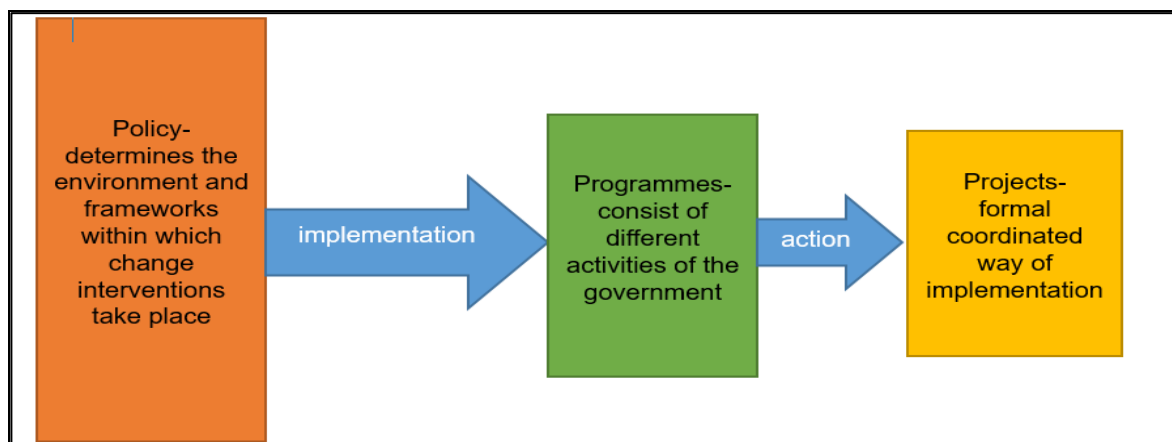
Figure 4.2: The relationship between policies, programmes and projects

Source: Researcher

Policies are the response of the government to needs in society, through the implementation of programmes and projects to deliver or improving an existing service. it is therefore the fulfilment of service delivery need through programmes and projects (see Figure 4.3).
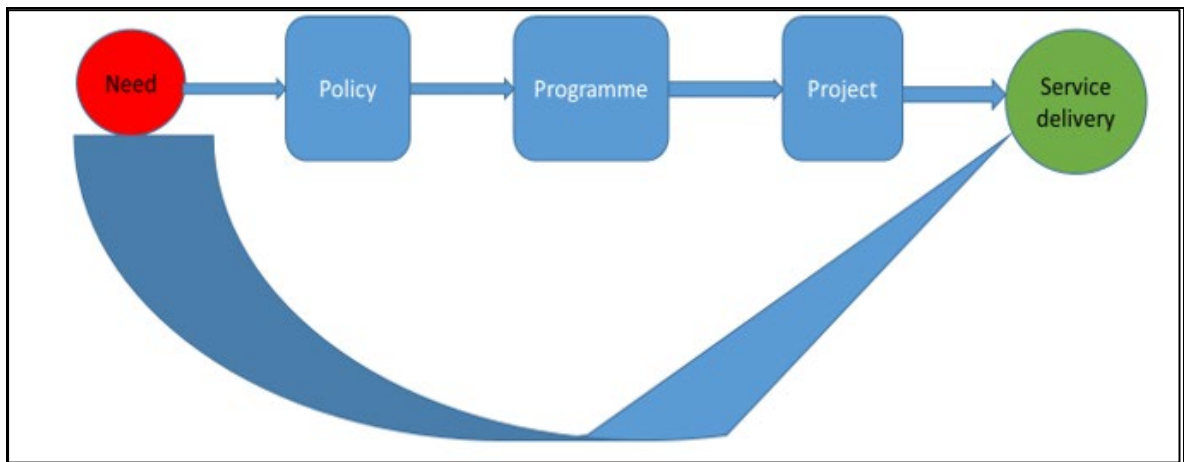
Figure 4.3: Managing between needs and service delivery

Source: Researcher

The management of these programmes and projects will be discussed next.

4.2.6.1 Programme Management

Van Daalen and De Coning (2011:173) define programme management as "the facilitation or management of the relationship between projects or a portfolio of related projects on the basis of sectoral mix, functional and geographical targeting in order to achieve programme objectives and outcomes". The focus of programme management is therefore on the relationship between projects or several projects which have common elements in terms of sectoral mix, functionality, and geographical areas. In terms of community policing the sectoral mix consist out of the business community, and different social-type organisations such as education, social welfare, and religious groups.

For the functional areas' community policing would focus community participation and for a community participation approach in the prevention of violent crime, the functional areas could include scholars, academia, and community change agents to provide special knowledge to the programme. Geographical targeting would entail that this community participation is restricted to the specific problem area that experience high levels of violent crimes. For this research these areas would be Nyanga and Mitchells Plain. The successful

facilitation of the relationship between projects or several projects through programme management could influence the project management phase which will be interrogated in the next session.

4.2.6.2   Project Management

Van Daalen and De Coning (2011:180) alluded to project management as the process which is responsible for the successful conclusion of the project. It could include processes such as initiation, planning, executing, monitoring, and controlling (De Coning, Koster, and Leputu, 20187:252). These elements will be addressed next, Theron and Mchunu (2016:88) refers to it as the project cycle.

Initiation phase

According to van der Waldt and Theron (2016), this phase focusses on the identification of a specific need. This need could be identified by the community, a non-governmental organisation, or the government. This should be an inclusive process and this inclusiveness should run through the policy cycle. These authors recommend that a steering committee must be established that includes representatives of the beneficiaries of the project. A community participation approach for community participation in the prevention of violent crime could made provision for a steering committee to allow for representation of the beneficiaries. This would allow for authentic and community participation and also empower the community to control and own the project. The initiation phase is followed by the planning phase.

Planning phase

Those involved in the project implementation in this phase must ask questions like "how, what, where, with what and by whom" to be informed about the identified need (van der Waldt and Theron, 2016). These authors identified several core processes for the planning phase which include the following:

- Activity definition—the identification of the needed activities to be performed to deliver the project.
- Activity sequencing—the identified activities must be documented and the dependencies between the activities must be determined.

- Activity duration—will focus on the time for the completion of each activity.
- Schedule development—is the analysing of the activity sequence, the activity duration and the identification of resources and equipment needed to develop a project schedule.

By following these core processes, the project team could do resource, cost, procurement, human resource, communication, and risk planning for the project. It will also allow for change as it could occur in communities. The planning phase is the precursor for the execution phase.

Execution phase

This phase entails the production of the project outputs through the performance of the selected activities. This could be performed in a single or multiple stage depending on the complexity and context of the project. The closing phase will conclude the project implementation (Van der Waldt & Theron, 2016).

Closing phase

The completion of the identified activities and the realisation of the expected results and benefits would inform the closing phase. A comprehensive project report should be compiled and delivered to all the stakeholders. Theron and Mchunu (2016:99) recommend that this report must include a section "lessons learned" that could serve as point of departure for follow-up of future similar projects.

A community participation approach for community participation could either be implemented as programme or as project in a programme. If it is presented as a project the project cycle could be useful to assist with implementation as well allow for involvement of local communities and have clear steps to indicate progress of the change needed. The elaboration of programme and project management conclude the policy implementation discussion and the last step in the policy process according to Cloete and De Coning (2011) evaluation will be the focus of the following section.

Policy evaluation

As the ultimate step in the policy process, Rabie, Cloete et.al. (2018:274) define policy evaluation as "the systematic assessment of the policy design (plan), implementation process (the operations) and the end product and changes (results) of the policy against the intended goals of the policy, programme or project, and against the explicit or implicit values or standards that informed this intent". Policy evaluation places a value judgement on specific areas of the policy which is the policy design, the implementation process, or the results of the policy. It is therefore a process that will allows for assessment of the feasibility, effectiveness and impact of the policy design, the implementation, and the policy results. This is a clear indication that the policy evaluation process is undertaken for specific and clearly defined reasons.

4.2.6.3   *Reasons for evaluation*

Rabie and Cloete (2011:198) identify the following reasons for evaluation to:

- observe progress that were made in the achievement of public policy;
- obtain the best practices from programme/projects for future policy review, redesign, or implementation strategies;
- assess the feasibility of an assumption, principle, model, theory proposal or strategy;
- provide accountability in terms of politics and the finances;
- improve advocacy for a cause;
- enhance public relations.

These reasons for evaluation are aimed at the benefits of policy and should assist to determine the effectiveness of policy implementation. For the evaluation to be effective certain requirements must be met, the criteria for these requirements as put forward by Rabie and Cloete (2011:210) are now discussed:

- *Relevance*: the evaluation must focus on solving the existing or identified issue or problem.
- *Significance*: a change to existing situation is paramount.
- *Originality*: new information that was not available before the evaluation must be generated.
- *Legitimacy*: the buy-in and acceptance of all the major stakeholders in the policy issue must be ensured.
- *Reliability*: the data obtained through the data collection process must be stable and must exist over time and space.
- *Validity*: the evaluation methodology must be able to measure the performance intended to measure.
- *Objectivity*: the evaluation process should be free from value or normative judgements and must be perceived as impartial and unbiased.
- *Timelines*: the most recent performance must be subjected to evaluation to be available to influence decisions for future policies.
- *Usability*: the evaluation report must be accessible to all stakeholders in terms of being user-friendly. It must be practical and focus on problem-solving.

These requirements could act as a crucial indicator of how the policy process unfolded and could permit for detecting problems at various stages of the public policy process. This discussion of the evaluation phase concludes the focus on the policy process. The implementation phase of the policy process is crucial for this research as it could influence the implementation of some of the policies discussed in Chapter 3. It could also contribute to the implementation of a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime as contemplated by this research. Several of the legislation and policies discussed in Chapter 3 rely on intergovernmental relations for its implementation. The concept of intergovernmental relations and policy implementation will be next area of interrogation.

4.3   Intergovernmental Relations and Policy Implementation

The cooperation between different government departments runs like a golden thread through the relevant legislation and policies designed to deal with violent crime. Chapter 12

of the NDP stipulates that an integrated approach for safety and security is needed, and that it must be coordinated activities across various departments, the private sector and community organisations. The NDP also encourages community activism and responsiveness (National Planning Commission, 2012). In 2010 the Cabinet adopted the Outcome-based approach for the delivery of the national priorities, the focus was on what government expects to achieve, how to achieve it and the identification of signs of achievement. Cabinet agreed on twelve (12) key outcomes with clear outputs, outcomes, and indicators (The Presidency, 2010). Outcome 3 namely, "All people in South Africa are and feel safe" focuses on crime prevention on all three levels of government. This must be done in a combined and mutual manner by government, the private sector and civil society (The Presidency, 2010). This outcome laid the foundation of the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) adopted by the DSD during 2011.

The strategy acknowledges that the cause of crime and violence are complex and that different approaches are needed for the prevention of crime and violence. Furthermore, the strategy also notes that issues such as community participation, improved community safety, building social cohesion and adding value to the quality of life of all people are important to be included in the strategy. The motivational factor for the adoption of the ISCPS includes, "to reduce the crime rate trough empowering young people, victims, women and all vulnerable groups to address the root causes of crime, to mobilise dynamic forces in communities by taking a long-term approach, to work towards the sustainability and mainstreaming of responses and results emanating from social crime prevention efforts in communities and at local level" (DSD, 2011).

4.3.1   The six strategic objectives of the ISCPS

The ISCPS identifies six strategic objectives to institutionalise social crime prevention across different departments and external role players, namely:

1. Departments to reinforce internal and external capacity, to allow for improved service delivery. The focus will be on improving the capacity of departments coupled with equipping communities to provide simpler services with minimal departmental supervision.

2. Facilitating directed collaborative partnerships with fellow government departments and civil society, by finding new strategies to mentor and support individuals, families, and community organisations to lessen the workload and capacity in government.

3. Allowing for equitable and integrated hands-on delivery for local service providers, through the combination of services to be delivered.

4. Enhancing sustained institutional structures in communities. The creation of reliable and sustainable feedback channels in communities to ensure realistic community expectations coupled with transparent reporting on success or failure, in terms of service delivery. This could augment the building of trust between departments and communities.

5. The WPSS (2016) supports the inter-sectoral collaboration, consultation, and co-operation approach to ensure efficient and incorporated service delivery. This must include community commitment and requires local, provincial, and national levels government to be accountable. The White Paper also acknowledges that the criminal justice system must be supported by the health, social development, and education systems to address the risk factors identified through the socio-ecological model. In addition to the roles of policing agencies and other role-players in the criminal justice system, there also needs to be parallel strategic crime prevention methodologies that result in social change that positively influences crime and violence. One of the focal areas of the WCIVPP (2013) is to improve collaboration between various sectors such as health, criminal justice, education, and the social development sector.

6. The discussion of legislation and policies regarding cooperation between different government departments emphasizes the importance of intergovernmental relations to optimize this cooperation especially in the field of policy implementation. According to Khan, Madue and Kalema (2011:11) intergovernmental relations "refers to the mutual relations between all spheres of government and all organs of state in South Africa". Whilst Levy and Tapscott (2001:2definenes intergovernmental relations as "as the interaction between governmental units of all types and levels within a political system". Intergovernmental relation, therefore, encompass the three spheres national, provincial, and local government as well as state organs such as community policing forums in the field of policing. The South African

Constitution in Section 30 established a framework for intergovernmental relations and directed for the formulation of as the Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 13 of 2005.

This act intends to regulate the establishment of a framework to promote and enable intergovernmental relations between the three spheres of government. As discussed earlier the South African government adopted a cluster approach for service delivery in the country The SAPS and more directly crime prevention forms part of the Justice, Crime prevention and Security cluster (JCPS).. Section 41 (1) (g) of the Constitution directed that each sphere of government "must exercise their power and perform their functions in a manner that does not encroach on the geographical, functional or institutional integrity of government in another sphere".

The tension between the national government (SAPS), the provincial government and local government (CoCT) with regards to the implementation of policing policies is well documented and is compounded by the fact that national government is ANC lead, the province is led by the Democratic Alliance (DA) and the CoCT is also lead by the DA. This tension heightened in 2013, when the Constitutional Court in Minister of Police and Others v Premier of the Western Cape and Others again expressed the centralised nature of the South African policing model. The court reiterating that the powers of the Provincial Executive, in relation to police, are limited to 'monitoring, overseeing and liaising functions' as set out in section 206 (3) of the Constitution.

The court confirmed Provincial Executive has limited powers in relation to the police all significant power is vested in the national government. The Mail and Guardian (5 August 2020) reported about a leaked memorandum from the Western Cape Police Legal Service in which the SAPS complaint that the CoCT is overstepping their mandate by performing crime investigation functions. Another issue was the introduction of law enforcement officers by the provincial government as well as the fact that the CoCT allows law enforcement officers to perform search and seizures, which SAPS claims to be a national competency. The apparent response to the claims is that "serious shortcoming" in service delivery by SAPS sparked their activation of these services. These actions are detrimental for communities as collaboration between these levels of government could enhance the prevention of violent crime

in the city and province. It however strengthens the argument for community participation in the prevention of violent crime.

4.4   Chapter Summary

The content of this chapter summarised the policy process of legislation and policies for the prevention of violent crime. Five steps namely agenda setting, design, decision-making, implementation, and evaluation were interrogated. The relationship between policy, programmes and projects was highlighted. Programme and project management were deliberated as implementation methodologies. The role of intergovernmental relations and policy implementation were investigated and the tension between the national, provincial, and local government with regards to policing was emphasised. The next chapter explores the main concepts of this study namely crime prevention and community participation.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 focused on the policy process, with a specific focus on the implementation and evaluation of policies. This chapter explains qualitative and quantitative approaches and reflects on the different research designs. The data collection instruments and strategies to ensure the reliability of the data collected and the validity of the findings are discussed.

5.2 Research Methodology

Research methodology aims to interpret findings and analyse findings using basic investigation techniques. It could include the use of questionnaires, interviews, and observation, coupled with the interpretation of results (Du Toit, Knipe et al.,2001:419). According to Brynard and Hanekom (2006:3), research concerns the interpretation of data to conclude. It is thus a systematic method of resolving research questions and answering the research problem. The purpose of the research methodology is to test the nature and dimensions of the aims and objectives of the study.

5.2.1 Research approach

The researcher aims to use a plurality of social research methods consisting of quantitative and qualitative research approaches (Theron, 2006:275). The mixed quantitative and qualitative approach will include a close-ended questionnaire and scheduled semi-structured interviews. The value of using the hybrid system is that it could deliver a better understanding of the research problem than being used in isolation (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). It could thus enhance the credibility of the findings and conclusions.

5.2.1.1 *Quantitative approach*

This approach primarily relies on post-positivist claims for promoting knowledge and influence (Creswell, 2003:18). It utilises surveys, questionnaires, and predetermined instruments to produce statistical data to postulate hypotheses variables and answer questions.

Therefore, it focuses on measuring and analysing the link between variables. Two variables could be identified in this study, as Brynard and Hanekom (2006:22) indicated. The first variable (independent) is the lack of community participation in addressing the root cause of violent crime. The second (dependent) is violent crime due to the lack of participation. There is a relation between the two variables that can be tested (Mouton, 1996:95) and Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, (2005:26). The test can increase the participation of communities in addressing the root causes of violent crimes versus a decrease in violent crimes committed. According to Babbie and Mouton (2002:35), the quantitative research approach pursues to predict, endorse, or investigate the study's hypothesis. Maree (2007:145) opined that this approach is systematic and objective in using selected numerical data to reach general findings. In this study, the researcher approached 13 of Mitchell Plain and 15 of Nyanga CPFs members in their police precincts with close-end questionnaires; they can be regarded as knowledgeable in that regard and can add value to the understanding of CPFs involvement in the prevention of violent crime. The reason for choosing these two policing areas is that they are amongst the top ten police stations for reporting violent crime during 2017/18.

5.2.1.2   Qualitative approach

Qualitative research focuses on social life from different angles and elucidates how people frame identities. This is formulated by examining social processes and interpreting meaning in given settings. Contrary to the quantitative approach, variables are seldom used, or hypotheses are tested. Descriptive data results from qualitative research would typically be the participant's original words (spoken or written) in terms of experiences and perceptions (Brynard et al., 2014 39). To perceive the view through the eyes of the participant is the top qualifier for qualitative research. That enables the researcher to obtain an insider's perspective of the situation, thereby becoming inclusive and part of the reality (Babbie and Mouton, 2002:33).

Methods in qualitative research include case studies, in-depth interviews of specific participants, observation, questionnaires, and the perusal of personal documents (Brynard et al., 2014:40). According to du Toit, Knipe, van Niekerk et al. (2002:425), the following distinctions exist between quantitative and qualitative research (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Distinctions between quantitative and qualitative research

Quantitative	Qualitative
Usually, natural science application.	Usually, social science application.
The focus is concise and narrow.	Focus is complex and broad.
Reductionist in nature (focus on single issues)	Holistic in nature (focus on broader, contextual issues)
Objective	Subjective (human observation and interpretation)
Cause and effect relationship	Basis of knowing (meaning and discovery)
Test existing theory	Develop new theory
An essential element of analysis is numbers.	An important element of analysis is words.
Statistical analysis	Interpretation of analysis

Source: Du Toit, van Niekerk et al. (2002: 45)

This study will combine these methods by focusing on the existing theory and statistical analysis combined with human observation, interpretation and developing a new theory.

5.2.1.3   The mixed-methods approach

A mixed methods approach refers to the integration of quantitative and qualitative research into one project (Bryman et al., 2021). The author refers to the approach as a multi-method approach. For Creswell (2003), the mixed-methods approach aims to collect numeric and text information to provide quantitative and qualitative information to present. Maree (2021:335-354) describes three core mixed methods designs: explanatory sequential design, exploratory sequential design, and convergent design.

Whilst Bryman et al. (2021: 85-87) identify four mixed methods designs namely convergent parallel design where the focus is on quantitative and qualitative data collection simultaneously, with the same priority being given to both approaches. Once the data was analysed separately, the researcher compares and/or combines the results as a whole; this could be to ensure triangulation. During the exploratory sequential design, the researcher departs by collecting and analysing qualitative data, followed by quantitative data.

The aim is to generate a hypothesis or proposition using qualitative research, followed by a test through quantitative research. Using the explanatory sequential design, the researcher starts with the collection and analysis of the quantitative data, whilst the qualitative data is used to expand or explain the findings of the quantitative approach. Lastly, the embedded mixed method design could have a quantitative or qualitative focus but relies on both as it is believed that only one approach would not suffice to understand the topic (Bryman et al., 2021: 85-87). This research employed the convergent parallel design. The qualitative and the quantitative data contributions are viewed as equal to the final findings of the research. Using the mixed methods approach would allow triangulation, facilitation, and complementarity (Bryman et al., 2021:87). The authors define the concepts as follows:

- triangulation is "the use of qualitative research to corroborate qualitative research findings and vice versa"
- facilitation is "one research approach is employed to aid research using the other research approach"
- complementarity is "the two research approaches are employed so that different aspects of an investigation can be dovetailed.

The role of the mixed approach is thus to enhance confidence in the research findings".

5.3   Validity and Reliability

To allow for generalisation and making findings of qualitative search, the apparatuses and techniques for data collection must be valid and reliable. Validity could be defined as using the appropriate design and instrument to obtain the desired results (Brynard et al., 2014:50; Bezuidenhoudt, 2011:52). This could ensure the research and findings are scientific, accurate, and free from bias. The following criteria for validity were designed by Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) and Brynard et al. (2014:50):

- Content-validity focus on the accuracy and suitability of the questions in a questionnaire.

- Criterion-related validity could refer to the instrument used for data collection could be replaced by another instrument that is viewed as valid. It will result in that two sets of data being collected from the same sample.

- Construct validity deals with the desired result that must be obtained from the measurement instrument

- Face validity involves the value both the researcher and the respondent attached to a measurement instrument.

- External validity is concerned with applying the conclusion of the research result to similar problems.

- Triangulation provides a multiple-method approach to ensure the reliability and validity of collected data.

According to Neuman (2003:184) reliability refers to dependency and consistency, implying that the results of the findings could be applied to another setting and the same outcomes would be reflected. The researcher applied these criteria to ensure that the data collected, and presented, including the conclusion drawn from it, meet the requirements of reliability and validity. Using more than one source of measure, an opportunity is created to double-check and improve the trustworthiness of a single source. A mixed-method approach is generally used to strengthen or ensure the validity and reliability of the data (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017:27).

5.4   Data collection methods

Questionnaire surveys and interviews were used as data collection techniques.

5.4.1   Questionnaire survey

According to Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:117), the researcher must focus on the words used in a question and recommend that:

- Questions should not be complicated and lengthy; they must be simplified and short to allow for a straightforward interpretation.

- Unambiguous words must be used to avoid vagueness and wrong understanding.
- Technical and sophisticated expressions should not be used, and the participant's level of education must be considered.
- Double-barrelled questions should not be included as they could have different answers.
- Questions favouring one type of answer over another, or leading questions should be excluded from the questionnaire. These types of questions could induce the participant to the biased.

These authors also distinguish between the content of the questions as dealing with factual or opinion information. Real questions seek to answer objective factors such as personal information and social background and are easier to respond to opinion questions that deal with the participant's view and could be influenced by social, moral, and other beliefs. Another area for consideration identified by Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:120-121) is the types of questions included in the questionnaire. Instead, open-ended questions could give the participants freedom to express themselves in terms of detail, length, and complexity of their answers. Opposed to open-ended questions are structured questions, which limit the participants to a range of questions to choose from. The significant difference between these two types of questions is that structured questions are based on preconceived answers to open-ended questions that are open for interpretation. Questionnaires have the advantage of allowing the participant to think about the solution and could reach many participants. The downside is that the researcher is not always available to clarify uncertainties from participants, which could result in distorted or biased answering of the questions (Brynard et al., 2014:48).

Questionnaires could consist of open-ended or close-ended questions. With open-ended questions, the respondent is offered the opportunity to elaborate on the answer without being guided or influenced, whilst with close-ended questions, the respondent is expected to choose from a range of solutions (Welman et al., 2005:174-175).

The Likert-type scale statements proposed by Millward (2002:102) allow close-ended reports to measure using a scale. The researcher used Likert scale statements with a scale as follows:

1 = Strongly agree

2 = Agree

3 = Neutral

4 = Disagree

5 = Strongly disagree

A copy of the questionnaire is attached as Appendix A.

5.4.2 Interview

An interview creates a two-way conversation between the interviewer and the participant, focusing mainly on collecting ideas from the participant regarding beliefs, views, opinions, and behaviours held by the participant (Maree, 2007:87). It is also an opportunity for the researcher to clarify statements and explore further explanations (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:107). Three types of interviews, namely structured, semi-structured and unstructured, are available to utilise (Welman et al., 2005:165). During a structured interview, the re-searcher uses a predetermined number of questions for the participant. No additional ques-tions are entertained, and the researcher does not diverge from the predetermined ques-tions. With unstructured interviews, the researcher can examine an issue in-depth and do so in an informal manner. There are no predetermined questions to post, but it is pivotal that the researcher has a sound knowledge of the issue to be covered. Semi-structured inter-views cover the position between structured and unstructured interviews; it allows the re-searcher to compile a list of aspects to be covered. The questions to the participants will include these aspects and could differ from interview to interview, with the focus on the relevant elements (Welman et al., 2005:166). The researcher approached individuals who can be regarded as experts in policing with semi-structured interviews.

They are regarded as knowledgeable in that regard and can improve the understanding of community participation in the prevention of violent crime. A copy of the interview schedule is attached as Appendix B.

5.5 Research Population

A research population is defined as a "group in the universe which possesses specific characteristics" (Brynard et al., 2014:57). For this study, the research population was drawn from Nyanga (Figure 5.1) and Mitchells Plain (Figure 5.2) policing precincts because they share the same high levels of violent crime.
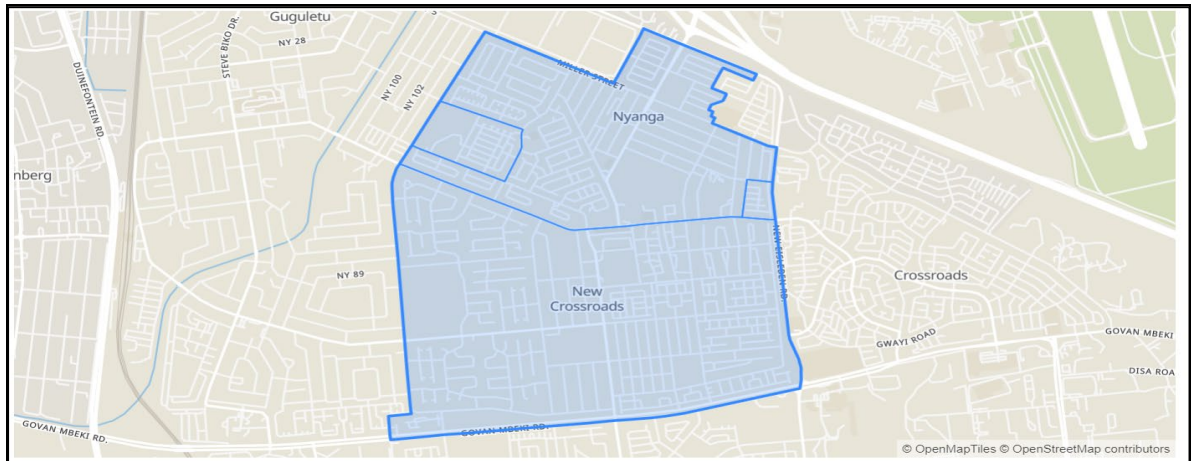
Figure 5.1: Geographical area of Nyanga township

Source: City of Cape Town; SDI&GIS (2013)

Figure 5.2: Geographical area of Mitchells Plain

Source: City of Cape Town; SDI&GIS (2013)

5.5.1   Target population

The target population within the research population is the CPF members in these areas because of their attributes in community participation in poling and especially in the prevention of violent crime. They are also the representatives of the communities at large.

5.6   Sampling Strategy

Sampling means taking a percentage or a smaller number of population units as typical or having characteristics of that total population (Bezuidenhout, C., 2015:31). Brynard and Hanekom (2006:54) postulated that a research sample is a percentage of the population selected for a particular research project. The sample provides a means for making interpretations about the population using explanations made on the sample. Through purposive sampling, the researcher approached several members of CPFs in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain police precincts with questionnaires.

They could be regarded as knowledgeable in that regard and can improve the understanding of the CPFs involvement in the prevention of violent crime. Purposive sampling is applied when the researcher chooses only those respondents with specific knowledge that best meets the purpose of the study (Bailey 1994:96). Using purposive sampling, the researcher makes a judgment call regarding who the most wide-ranging information could be obtained to reach the research objectives. Brynard and Hanekom (2006:54) state that a research sample is a portion of the population selected for a particular research project. The sample provides a means for making inferences about the population using observations made on the sample. The fact that purposive sampling is based on the judgement of the researcher could lead to perceived researcher's biases if the judgement is not based on a clear condition (Gaganpreet, 2017). In this research the criteria for the use of purposive sampling are the specific knowledge of the participants regarding CPFs. In conjunction with snowball sampling, purposive sampling is used in this research project.

Snowball sampling is defined as that the researcher approach a few participants from the relevant population, which in turn identify other members of the same population for inclusion in the sample. These selection forms are explained as deliberately obtaining information

from a specific unit as representatives of the relevant population (Welman et al., 2005:69). The sample size is 13 for Nyanga and 15 for Mitchells Plain, respectively and 6 for the semi-structured interviews. This is the total of CPF members in the respective areas. According to Braman et al. (2021), the sample size must be appropriate for the sampling method. The sample size used in this research is deemed adequate for purposive sampling.

5.7   Data analysis

Data analysis aims to give meaning to the data collected (Grove 2003:46). In this study, data analysis seeks to determine the meaning of that data about the research question. This was done in line with Bogdan and Biklen's (2003:147) view that data analysis is systematic in arranging transcripts, notes, and all material collected. The researcher used quantitative and qualitative approaches to collect and analyse data collected through close-end question-naires and semi-structured interviews. The data collected through the questionnaire survey were coded by a statistician at the Cape Peninsula University of Technology. The data were analysed using SPSS. The data collected using interviews were analysed using qualitative content analysis. According to (Bryman 2021), the qualitative content analysis focuses on the content, underlying themes and meaning of the text.

5.8   Delimitation of the Research

In terms of Section 205(3) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), the objectives of the South African Police Service are the prevention, combatting and investiga-tion of crime. This study focused on the prevention of violent crime. This study was confined to the jurisdiction of the SAPS in the Western Cape. This study further acknowledges that several communities participate in crime prevention through neighbourhood watches, street committees, and other forms. This study focuses on community participation in the preven-tion of violent crime by focusing on the root causes of crime, especially that of violent crime. This study only includes members of CPFs as representatives of the communities and not the communities at large. The study also aims to determine the participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime and does not include an assessment of their efficiency and ef-fectiveness.

5.9 Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct this research was obtained from the respective offices of the Community Police Forums. The respondents in the empirical study were informed that their participation was voluntary, that they could withdraw from the study at any time, and that they were under no obligation to participate. The respondents were informed regarding the anonymity of their participation and will also be informed of the result of the study. Consent for participation in this research was obtained from Nyanga and Mitchells Plain CPF, and copies are attached as Appendices C and D.

5.10 Chapter Summary

The focus of this chapter was the research methodology applied to answer the research questions. An explanation was provided for utilising qualitative and quantitative research approaches. The research question "Are community policing forums participating in the prevention of violent crime in two geographical areas within the Cape Metropole, Western Cape, South Africa?" will be best answered by applying this mix-methodology approach. The content of the next chapter focuses on analysing, organising, and presenting the collected data.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1   Introduction

In the previous chapter, the research methodology was dealt with. In this chapter, the collected data are analysed, interpreted, presented, and discussed. The data collected through questionnaires were analysed using SPSS, and the data collected through interviews was analysed through qualitative content analysis. Copies of the SPSS and content analysis are attached as Appendices E and F. The Likert scale questionnaires are analysed next.

6.2   Analysis of Likert Scale questionnaires

The researcher used Likert scale statements to collect some of the data, with a scale as follows:

> 1 = Strongly agree
>
> 2 = Agree
>
> 3 = Neutral
>
> 4 = Disagree
>
> 5 = Strongly disagree

The analysis of the Likert scale questionnaires is presented in three broad categories: agree (strongly agree+ agree), disagree (disagree+ strongly agree), and neutral. 12 out of 13 and 14 out of 15 members of the Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs completed the questionnaires, which resulted in a 92% and 93% response rate, respectively. After the analysis was presented a detailed discussion with comments of those tables follows. The Likert scale questionnaires are analysed under the following nine tables. In the case of a zero response to a question the category is omitted from the table.

6.2.1 Age of the respondents

For Mitchells Plain, 10 (83%) respondents are 45 years and older whilst 9 (64%) of the respondents from Nyanga 5 (36%) are older than 45 years of age (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Age of respondents

Age: Mitchells Plain		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	26 − 35	1	8.3	8.3	8.3
	36 -45	1	8.3	8.3	16.7
	45 and older	10	83.3	83.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Age: Nyanga		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	18 -25	1	7.1	7.1	7.1
	26 − 35	4	28.6	28.6	35.7
Valid	36 -45	4	28.6	28.6	64.3
	45 and older	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.2 Gender of the respondents

The gender ratio for the respondents from Mitchells Plain is equal to 6 and 6, respectively (50/50%). With regards to Nyanga respondents, males are dominant with 11 (79%), and females are 3 (21%) (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2: Gender of respondents

Gender: Mitchells Plain		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	6	50.0	50.0	50.0
	Male	6	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	12	100.0	100.0	
Gender: Nyanga		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	3	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Male	12	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	15	100.0	100.0	

6.2.3 Experience of respondents in community policing and Community Police Forums (CPFs)

Eight (67%) of the respondents from Mitchells Plain and 8 (60%) from Nyanga had five years and more experience in community policing. In terms of experience with regards to CPFs, 8 (67%) of Mitchells Plain respondents and 5 (36%) of Nyanga's respondents had eight years and more experience (Table 6.3).

Table 6.3: Experience of respondents regards community policing and CPFs

Experience with regards to community participation in policing: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0 - 1 year	2	16.7	16.7	16.7
	1 -3 years	1	8.3	8.3	25
	3 - 5 years	1	8.3	8.3	33.3
	5 years and more	8	66.7	66.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Experience with regards to community participation in policing: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 -3 years	3	20	20	20
	3 - 5 years	3	20	20	40
	5 years and more	8	60	60	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Experience within Community Police Forum (CPF): Mitchell Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 -3 years	1	8.3	8.3	8.3
	3- 5 years	1	8.3	8.3	16.7
	5 - 8 years	2	16.7	16.7	33.3
	8 years and more	8	66.7	66.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Experience within Community Police Forum (CPF): Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 -3 years	4	28.6	28.6	28.6
	3- 5 years	5	35.7	35.7	64.3
	8 years and more	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.4   Responses with regards to training and knowledge

With regards to being trained in the roles and functions of their organisation, 11 (92%) of
Mitchells Plain's respondents agree and 7 (57%) of Nyanga's respondents. Eleven (92%) of
Mitchells Plain respondents agreed that they are familiar with the legislative instructions,
whilst 12 (86%) of Nyanga's respondents agreed. About understanding the directives in their

organisation's constitution, 10 (75%) of Mitchells Plain respondents agreed, and 9 (64%) of Nyanga's respondents agreed.

In terms of training for the implementation of violent crime prevention strategies, 7 (58%) of Mitchell's Plain agreed, and 3 (21%) of Nyanga's respondents agreed; 5 (43%) disagreed in this regard (Table 6.4).

Table 6.4: Responses with regard to training and knowledge

Trained in the role and functions of our organisation: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	7	50	50	50
	Disagree	4	28.6	28.6	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Trained in the role and functions of our organisation: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	11	91.7	91.7	91.7
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Trained in the implementation of our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	7	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Disagree	3	25	25	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Trained in the implementation of our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Per cent	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	3	21.4	21.4	21.4
	Disagree	9	64.3	64.3	85.7
	Neutral	2	14.3	14.3	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Table 6.4 (cont.)

Familiar with the legislative instructions about our organisation: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Agree	11	91.7	91.7	91.7
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Familiar with the legislative instructions about our organisation: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Agree	12	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Disagree	1	7.1	7.1	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Understanding the directives contained in our organisation's constitution: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Agree	10	83.3	83.3	83.3
Valid	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Understanding the directives contained in our organisation's constitution: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Agree	9	64.3	64.3	64.3
Valid	Neutral	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.5   Responses with regard to knowledge of policing functions

In being familiar with crime prevention as an objective of policing, 10 (83%) of Mitchell's Plain respondents agreed, and 10 (71%) of Nyanga's respondents agreed. Familiarity with primary crime prevention got 9 (75%) of Mitchells Plain to agree and 7 (50%) of Nyanga's respondents, with 6 (43%) neutral in this regard. With regards to being familiar with secondary crime prevention strategies, 10 (83%) of Mitchells Plain respondents agreed, whilst 8 (57%) of Nyanga's respondents agreed, and 5 (36%) are neutral in this regard (Table 6.5).

Table 6.5: Responses with regard to knowledge of policing functions

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Familiar with crime prevention as an objective of policing: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	10	83.3	83.3	83.3
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Familiar with crime prevention as an objective of policing: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	10	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Disagree	1	7.1	7.1	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Familiar with primary crime prevention strategies: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Familiar with primary crime prevention strategies: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	7	50	50	50
	Disagree	1	7.1	7.1	57.1
	Neutral	6	42.9	42.9	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Familiar with secondary crime prevention strategies: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	10	83.3	83.3	83.3
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Familiar with secondary crime prevention strategies: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	8	57.1	57.1	57.1
	Disagree	1	7.1	7.1	64.3
	Neutral	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.6   Responses with regard to knowledge of community policing

In terms of understanding the roles and functions of community safety forums, 9 (75%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents agree, and 11 (79%) of Nyanga's respondents agree. Nine (75%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents agree, and 12 (86%) of Nyanga's respondents agree to be familiar with the root cause of crime in the policing area. Eight (67%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 11 (79%) of Nyanga's respondents are familiar with social crime prevention (Table 6.6).

Table 6.6: Responses with regard to community policing

Understanding the role and functions of the community safety forums: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Understanding the role and functions of community safety forums: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	11	78.6	78.6	78.6
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Familiar with the root causes of violent crime in our policing area: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Familiar with the root causes of violent crime in our policing area: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	12	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Disagree	1	7.1	7.1	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Familiar with social crime prevention: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	11	78.6	78.6	78.6
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Familiar with social crime prevention: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Disagree	3	25	25	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

6.2.7   Responses to organisational strategies

In response to the question regarding whether their organisation has violent crime pro-grammes and projects, 6 (50%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents agree, whilst 4 (36%) re-main neutral. Nyanga's respondents indicate that 10 (71%) agree, and 4 (29%) remain neu-tral. Seven (58%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 10 (72%) of Nyanga's respondents agree that their organisation has a marketing strategy. In promoting community participation through their strategies, 10 (83%) of Mitchells Plain's and 13 (93%) Nyanga respondents agree. Nine (75%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 9 (64%) of Nyanga's respondents agree that their organisation's strategies focus on the root cause of violent crime. Only 2 (17%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 8 (57%) of respondents agree that their organi-sations are collecting evidence to inform their strategies, whilst 7 (64%) of Mitchells Plain's and (3) 21% of Nyanga's remain neutral in this regard. With regards to the question of ex-ternal stakeholders assisting their organisation in collecting evidence for their strategies, only 6 (50%) of Mitchells Plain's and 5 (36%) of Nyanga's respondents agree, whilst 5 (42%) of Mitchells Plain's and 6 (43%) of Nyanga's respondents remain neutral. In terms of if their organisations have the necessary resources to implement their strategies, only 5 (42%) of Mitchells Plain's and 2 (14%) of Nyanga's respondents agree, whilst 6 (50%) of Mitchells Plain's and 6 (50%) of Nyanga's respondents disagree (Table 6.7).

Table 6.7: Responses to organisational strategies

Our organisation has violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	6	50	50	50
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	66.7
	Neutral	4	33.3	33.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation has violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Nyanga		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Neutral	4	28.6	28.6	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our organisation has a marketing strategy for the prevention of violent crime: Mitchells Plain		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	7	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Disagree	3	25	25	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation has a marketing strategy for the prevention of violent crime: Nyanga		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	85.7
	Neutral	2	14.3	14.3	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our strategies promote community participation in the prevention of violent crime: Mitchells Plain		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	83.3	83.3	83.3
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our strategies promote community participation in the prevention of violent crime: Nyanga		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	13	92.9	92.9	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Table 6.7 (cont.)

Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	64.3	64.3	64.3
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our organisation collecting evidence to inform our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	2	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Disagree	3	25	25	41.7
	Neutral	7	58.3	58.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation is collecting evidence to inform our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	57.1	57.1	57.1
	Disagree	3	21.4	21.4	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	

External stakeholders assist our organisation in collecting evidence for our programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	6	50	50	50
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	58.3
	Neutral	5	41.7	41.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

External stakeholders assist our organisation in collecting evidence for our programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	5	35.7	35.7	35.7
	Disagree	3	21.4	21.4	57.1
	Neutral	6	42.9	42.9	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Table 6.7 (cont.)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	9	64.3	64.3	64.3
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation collecting evidence to inform our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	2	16.7	16.7	16.7
	Disagree	3	25	25	41.7
	Neutral	7	58.3	58.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our organisation is collecting evidence to inform our violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	8	57.1	57.1	57.1
	Disagree	3	21.4	21.4	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation has the necessary resources to implement our violent crime programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
Valid	Agree	5	41.7	41.7	41.7
	Disagree	6	50	50	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our organisation has the necessary resources to implement our violent crime programmes and projects: Nyanga					
Valid	Agree	2	14.3	14.3	14.3
	Disagree	7	50	50	64.3
	Neutral	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.8   Responses to the organisation's involvement in partnerships

Regarding their organisation's partnerships with local government, 7 (58%) of Mitchells Plain's and 8 (57%) of Nyanga's respondents agree. For partnerships with the provincial government, 6 (50%) of Mitchells Plain's and 8 (59%) of Nyanga's respondents agree. For partnerships with the national government, 5 (42%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 9 (64%) of Nyanga's respondents agree, whilst 5 (42%) of Mitchells Plain and 5 (36%) of Nyanga's respondents remain neutral in this Regarding partnerships with other public organisations, 8 (67%) of Mitchells Plain's and 12 (88%) of Nyanga's respondents agree. For partnerships with the private sector, 8 (67%) of Mitchells Plain and 12 (88%) of Nyanga's respondents agree (Table 6.8).

Table 6.8: Responses to the organisation's involvement in partnerships

Our organisation is in partnership with the provincial government to prevent violent crime: Mitchells plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	6	50	50	50
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	66.7
	Neutral	4	33.3	33.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnership with the provincial government to prevent violent crime: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	57.1	57.1	57.1
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	71.4
	Neutral	4	28.6	28.6	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnership with the local government to prevent violent crime: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	7	58.3	58.3	58.3
	Disagree	3	25	25	83.3
	Neutral	2	16.7	16.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnership with the local government to prevent violent crime: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	57.1	57.1	57.1
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	71.4
	Neutral	4	28.6	28.6	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnership with the national government to prevent violent crime: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	5	41.7	41.7	41.7
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	58.3
	Neutral	5	41.7	41.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnership with the national government to prevent violent crime: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	64.3	64.3	64.3
	Neutral	5	35.7	35.7	100
	Total	14	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnerships with other public organisations to prevent violent crime: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Neutral	4	33.3	33.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	

Our organisation is in partnerships with other public organisations to prevent violent crime: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	12	85.7	85.7	85.7
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	100
	Total	14	100	100	

6.2.9　Responses to the organisation's involvement in the policy process

In terms of their organisation's involvement in the identification stage of the policy process of violent crime strategies, 9 (75%) of Mitchells Plain's respondents and 11 (79%) of Nyanga's respondents agree, with involvement in the planning stage 6 (50%) of Mitchells Plain's and 10 (71%) of Nyanga's respondents agree. Whilst for the involvement in the implementation stage, 8 (67%) of Mitchells Plain's and 10 (77%) of Nyanga's respondents agree, and for the involvement in the monitoring and evaluation stage, 5 (42%) of Mitchells Plain's and 9 (64%) of Nyanga's respondents agree (Table 6.9).

Table 6.9: Responses to the organisation's involvement in the policy process

Our organisation is involved in the problem identification stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	9	75	75	75
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	91.7
	Neutral	1	8.3	8.3	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the problem identification stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	11	78.6	78.6	78.6
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the planning stage of violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	6	50	50	50
	Disagree	3	25	25	75
	Neutral	3	25	25	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the planning stage of violent crime prevention programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	85.7
	Neutral	2	14.3	14.3	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the implementation stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	8	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Disagree	1	8.3	8.3	75
	Neutral	3	25	25	100
	Total	12	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the implementation stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	10	71.4	71.4	71.4
	Disagree	3	21.4	21.4	92.9
	Neutral	1	7.1	7.1	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the monitoring and evaluation stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Nyanga					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Agree	9	64.3	64.3	64.3
	Disagree	2	14.3	14.3	78.6
	Neutral	3	21.4	21.4	100
	Total	14	100	100	
Our organisation is involved in the monitoring and evaluation stage of violent crime programmes and projects: Mitchells Plain					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	5	41.7	41.7	41.7
	Disagree	2	16.7	16.7	58.3
	Neutral	5	41.7	41.7	100
	Total	12	100	100	

6.3   Discussion of the Tables

The analysed data in the tables will now be discussed to determine the similarities, differences, strengths, and weaknesses of the CPFs of Mitchells Plain and Nyanga. Some areas in the table's charts are provided to highlight the difference, strengths, and weaknesses.

6.3.1   Tables 6.1 and 6.2 Age and Gender of respondents

The first two tables are related to the age and gender of the respondents. In terms of age, 10 (83%) of Mitchells Plain CPFs members are 45 years and older, which could indicate that they are more mature in terms of life experience, whilst Nyanga CPFs members are 9 (64%) under the age of 45, which could indicate less life experience (Figure 6.1). With regards to gender, Mitchells Plain CPF are equally represented with 6 and 6 (50/50%), and Nyanga CPF is more male dominant with 11 (79%) males and 3 (21%) females (figure 6.2). This could create the impression of underrepresentation of females and effects gender-based decisions.

	18 -25	26 - 35	36 -45	45 and older	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	0.00%	8.33%	8.33%	83.33%	100.00%
Nyanga	7.14%	28.57%	28.57%	35.71%	100.00%
Grand Total	3.85%	19.23%	19.23%	57.69%	100.00%

Figure 6.1: Age of respondents

	Mitchells Plain	Nyanga	Grand Total	
■ Female	50.00%	21.43%	34.62%	
■ Male	50.00%	78.57%	65.38%	
■ Grand Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%	
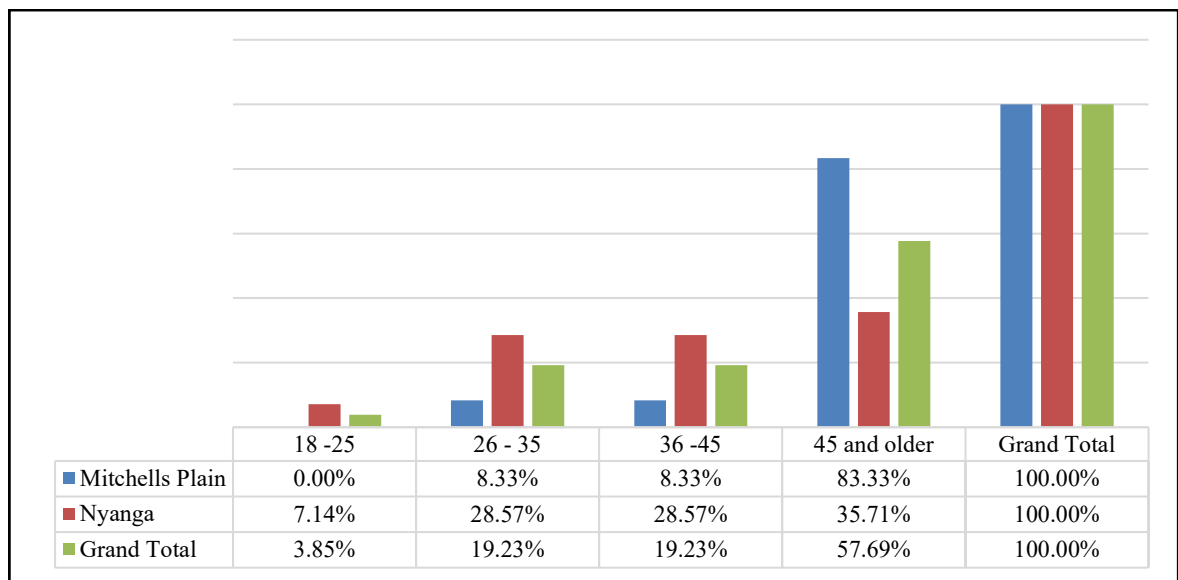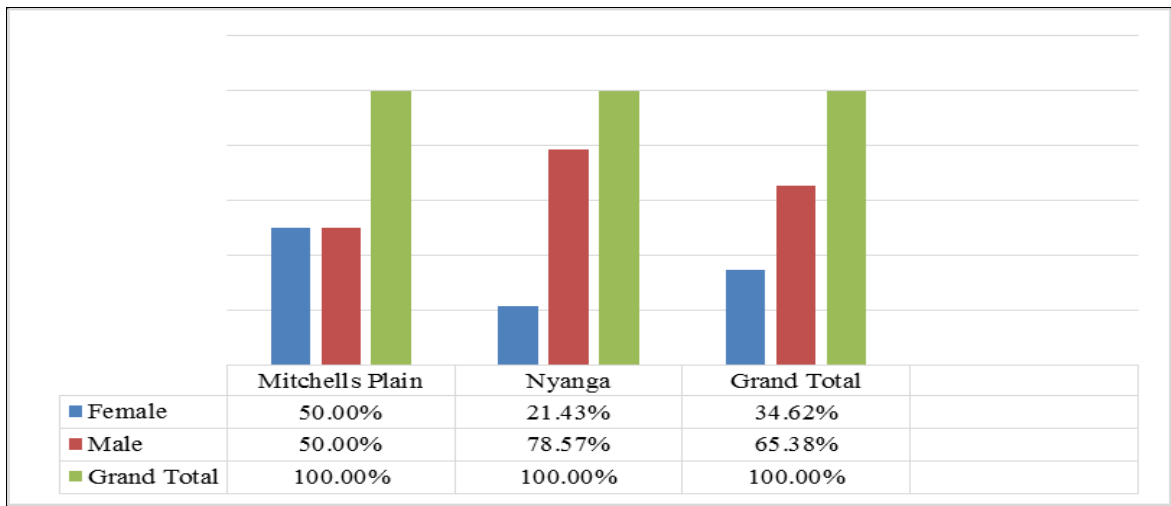
Figure 6.2: Gender of respondents

6.3.2   Table 6.3 Experience with regards to community policing and CPFs

This table firstly focuses on experience regarding community policing where the result shows a similarity with Mitchells Plain CPF members 8 (67%) got five years and more and 8 (57%) Nyanga CPF members. The second focus area is experience within CPFs, where 8 (67 %) of Mitchells Plain CPF members and 5 (36%) of Nyanga CPF have eight years and more experience. Therefore, Mitchells Plain CPF experience could be viewed as a strength, whilst Nyanga CPFs experience could be viewed as a weakness (Figure 6.3).

	1 -3 years	3- 5 years	5 - 8 years	8 years and more	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	8.33%	8.33%	16.67%	66.67%	100.00%
Nyanga	28.57%	35.71%	0.00%	35.71%	100.00%
Grand Total	19.23%	23.08%	7.69%	50.00%	100.00%
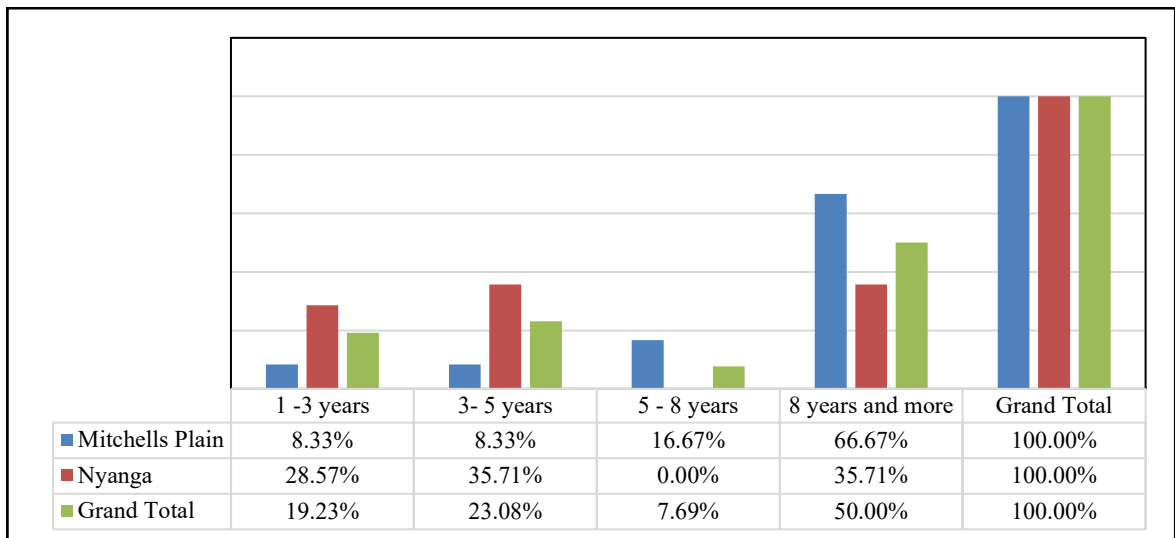
Figure 6.3: Experiences within Community Police Forums

6.3.3 Table 6.4 Training and knowledge of Community Police Forums

This table focuses on the training and knowledge of Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPF members. In most categories under this theme, these CPFs show a high level of similarities, which could be viewed as strengths on their behalf. They show a difference in the category of training in the implementation of violent crime prevention strategies, with Mitchells Plain CPF members 7 (58%) and only 3 (21%) of Nyanga's CPF respondents agree in this regard, 3 (25%) of Mitchells Plain and 9 (64%) of Nyanga disagree (Figure 6.4). These low outputs could be viewed as a weakness in terms of the ability to implement violent crime prevention strategies.

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
■ Mitchells Plain	58.33%	16.67%	25.00%	100.00%
■ Nyanga	21.43%	14.29%	64.29%	100.00%
■ Grand Total	38.46%	15.38%	46.15%	100.00%
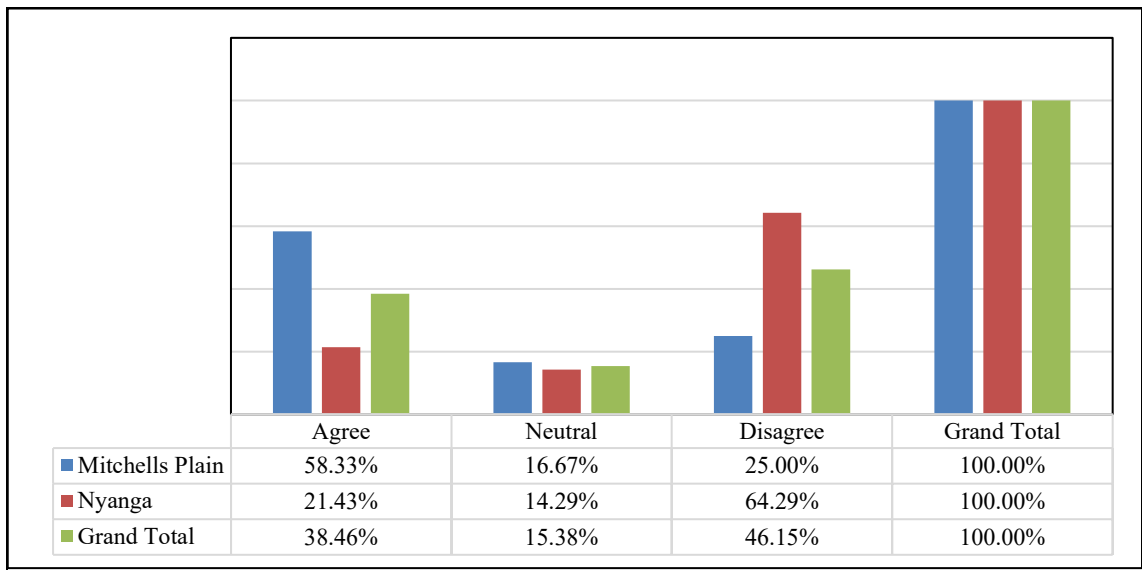
Figure 6.4: Training in the implementation of violent crime prevention strategies

6.3.4   Table 6.5 Knowledge with regards to policing functions

This table focuses on the knowledge of Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs members regarding policing functions. The outputs in the categories indicate that members of both CPFs are reasonably knowledgeable regarding police functions like crime prevention and crime combatting. This could be articulated as a strength in their participation in the prevention of violent crime.

6.3.5   Table 6.6 Knowledge with regards to community policing

This table focuses on the knowledge of community policing amongst Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs members. The outputs in the categories in this table indicate that members of both CPFs are highly knowledgeable in community policing.

6.3.6   Table 6.7 Organisational strategies

This table focuses on the organisational strategies of the Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs to participate in the prevention of violent crime. In most of the categories under this table, both CPFs could be viewed as efficient and effective in terms of their strategies. However,

in the following three categories, the outputs are bothersome, "the collection of evidence to inform our strategies" shows only 2 (17%) of Mitchells Plain CPF members agree, and 7 (58%) remain neutral in this regard, whilst 8 (57%) of Nyanga CPF members agree, and 3 (21%) remain neutral (Figure 6.5). It could be reasoned that not all the data used to inform strategies are based on evidence. The category "external stakeholders assist our organisation in collecting evidence for our strategies" shows that 6 (50%) of the Mitchells Plain CPF respondents agree and 5 (42%) remain neutral, whilst 5 (36%) of Nyanga's respondents agree and 6 (43%) remain neutral (Figure 6.6). It could be concluded that their strategies are primarily based on their evidence collection without any assistance that could enhance their efforts. In conjunction with the low output for "the collection of evidence to inform our strategies", the evidence used in the strategies could be viewed as not responsive to the challenges of violent crime prevention. This could render these strategies ineffective and inefficient. The last of the three perturbing categories is "our organisation has the necessary resources to implement our strategies", which shows that 5 (45%) of Mitchells Plain respondents agree and 6 (50%) disagree. Whilst only 2 (15%) of Nyanga's respondents agree and (50%) disagree (Figure 6.7). This lack of resources could have a detrimental effect on the ability of CPFs to implement strategies. The responses in figures 6.4, 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7 address the objective regarding the institutional capacity of these CPFs whilst figure 6.7 also address the research objective concerning the participation of these CPFs in the prevention of violent crime. Collectively these responses also support a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime.

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	16.67%	58.33%	25.00%	100.00%
Nyanga	57.14%	21.43%	21.43%	100.00%
Grand Total	38.46%	38.46%	23.08%	100.00%
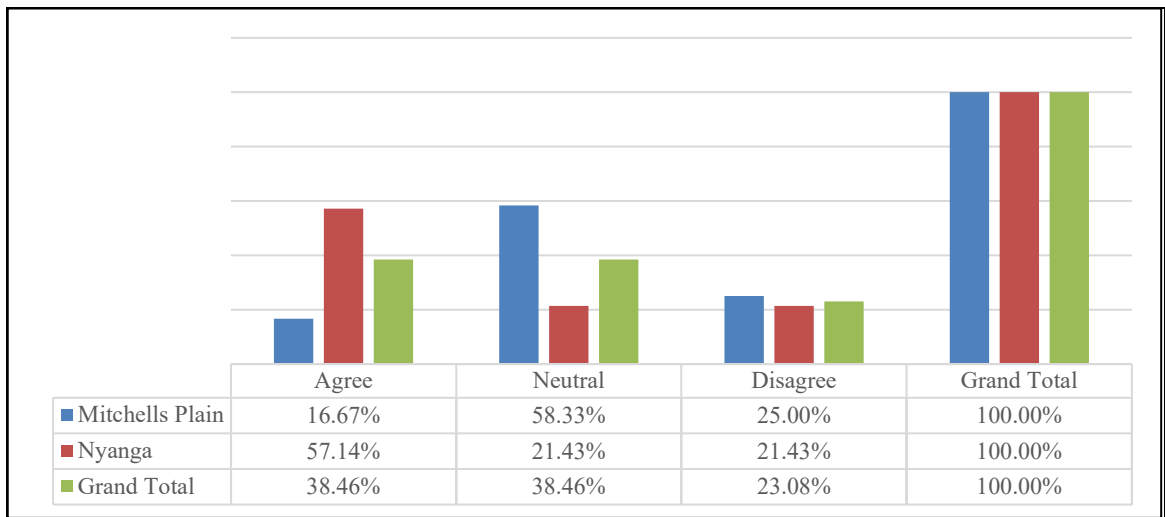
Figure 6.5: The collection of evidence to inform our strategies

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	50.00%	41.67%	8.33%	100.00%
Nyanga	35.71%	42.86%	21.43%	100.00%
Grand Total	42.31%	42.31%	15.38%	100.00%
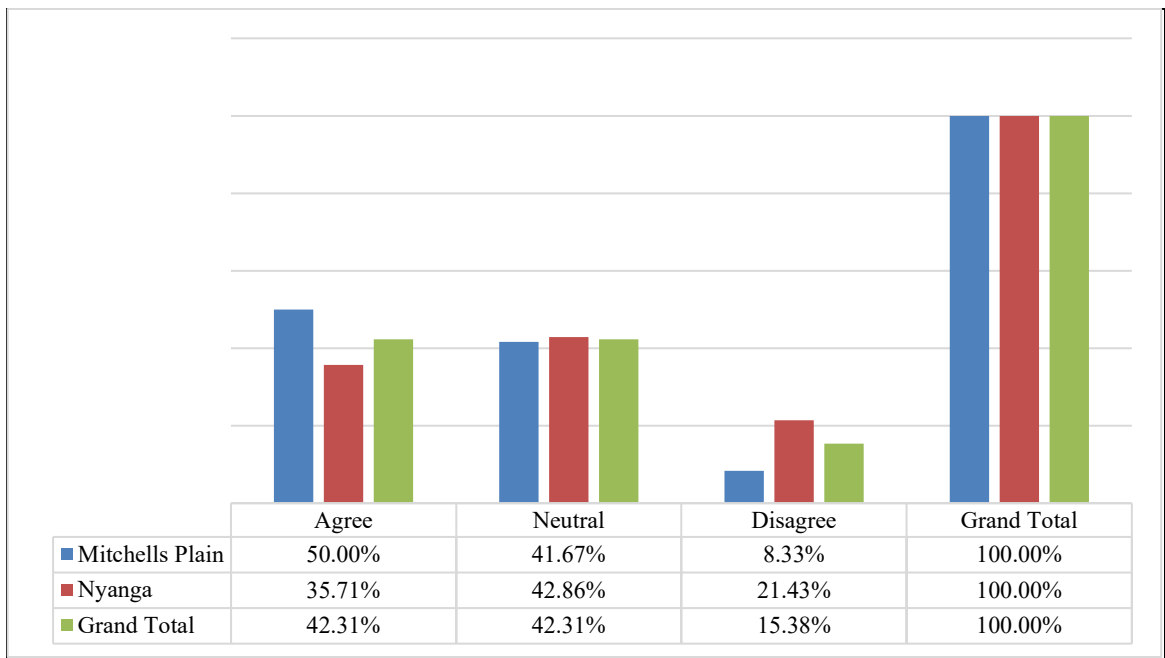
Figure 6.6: External stakeholders assist organisation collecting evidence

	Agree	Disagree	Neutral	Grand Total
■ Mitchells Plain	41.67%	50.00%	8.33%	100.00%
■ Nyanga	14.29%	50.00%	35.71%	100.00%
■ Grand Total	26.92%	50.00%	23.08%	100.00%
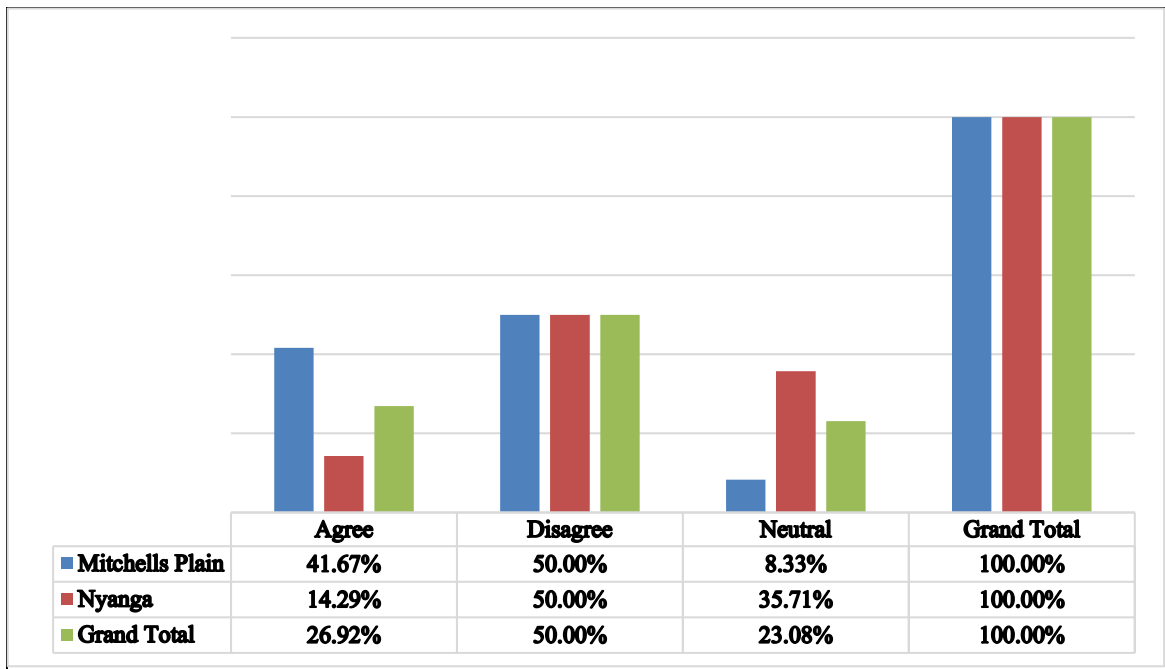
Figure 6.7: Organisation has the necessary resources to implement their strategies

6.3.7   Table 6.8 Partnerships

This table focuses on the partnerships of the Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs with other stakeholders. Notably in this table is that the partnerships with the three spheres of government are significantly lower, cumulatively (local) 58%, (provincial) 54% and (national) 54% than partnerships with the private sector 77% and other public organisations 77%. The expectation is that CPFs should have a high level of partnership with all three spheres of government as they enhance service delivery. It could also be perceived as a lack of political will to support CPFs and could negatively influence the participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime.

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	58.33%	16.67%	25.00%	100.00%
Nyanga	57.14%	28.57%	14.29%	100.00%
Grand Total	57.69%	23.08%	19.23%	100.00%
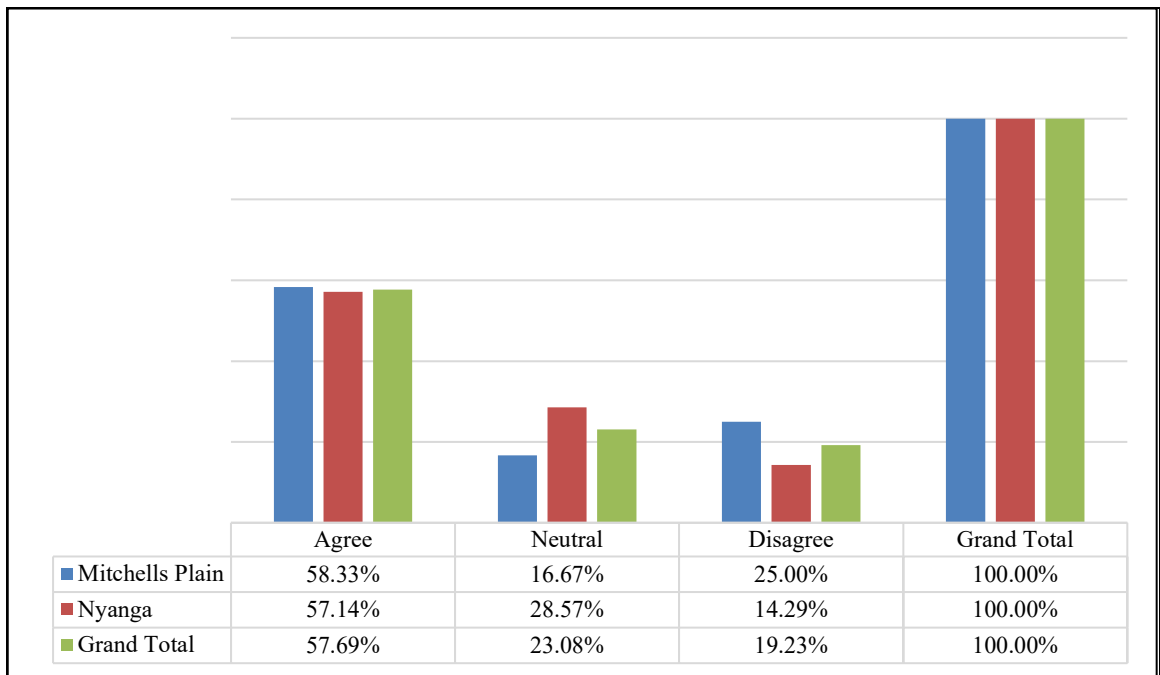
Figure 6.8: Partnerships with Local government

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	50.00%	33.33%	16.67%	100.00%
Nyanga	57.14%	28.57%	14.29%	100.00%
Grand Total	53.85%	30.77%	15.38%	100.00%
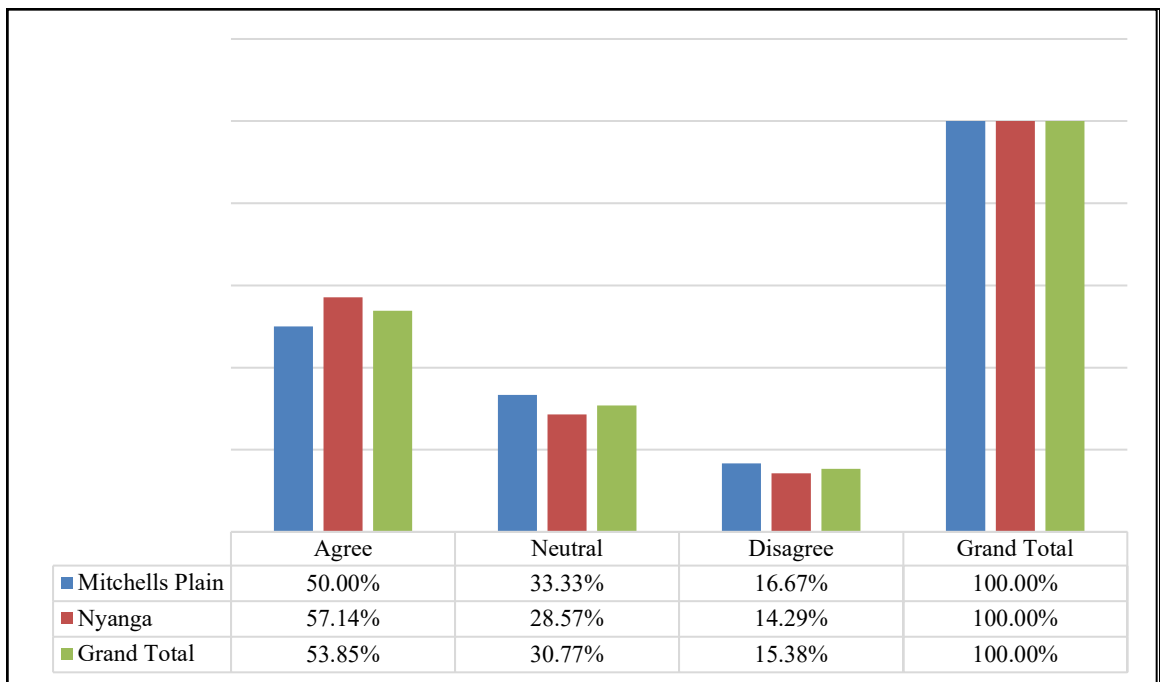
Figure 6.9: Partnerships with Provincial government

	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Grand Total
Mitchells Plain	41.67%	41.67%	16.67%	100.00%
Nyanga	64.29%	35.71%	0.00%	100.00%
Grand Total	53.85%	38.46%	7.69%	100.00%
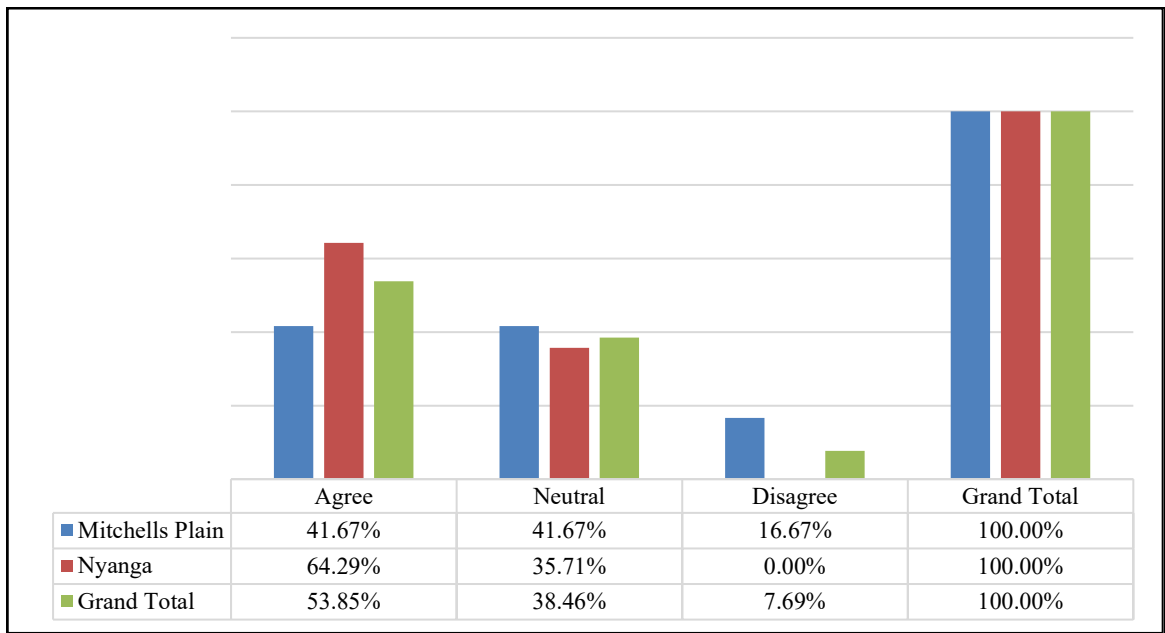
Figure 6.10: Partnerships with the National government

6.3.8   Table 6.9 Involvement in the policy process

This theme focuses on the involvement of the Mitchells Plain and Nyanga CPFs in the policy process for the development of strategies for the prevention of violent crime. The responses indicate that both CPFs are reasonably (average higher than 65%) involved in the problem identification, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation stages of these processes. This could be viewed as a strength of both CPFs. If it is viewed along with training for the implementation of violent crime strategies with 58% and 21 % and the collection of evidence to inform their strategies with 17% and 57%, the assistance of external stakeholders in the collection of evidence with 50% and 36% and the having the resources to implement their resources with 42% and14%% respectively, it could be perceived that they are not efficiently trained, focusing on the wrong issues and are not sufficiently resourced during the policy process. If that is the reality, being involved in the policy process could be a futile exercise. The mixed method of data collection includes semi-structured interviews, and those interviews will be analysed next through the use of content analysis.

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6.4 Responses to Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with four knowledgeable persons that could be regarded as experts in the field of policing. These experts have a rich source of information, advice and insight into the rolls of CPFs. The reason for the interviews is to cross-check the reliability of the data obtained from the current research population. It would also ensure that support is garnered for the validity of the findings, thereby ensuring triangulation, as discussed in Chapter 5. The same questions were posed to the respondents, but in terms of Respondent 4, the questions were directed at the Anti-Gang strategy as he was an advisor to the Minister of Police during the development and implementation of the strategy. Therefore, his responses were captured separately but will be included in the discussion of the interviews.

6.4.1 Respondent 1

He retired from the SAPS in September 2021 after completing 39 years of service. He retired with the rank of major-general, the second-highest rank in SAPS. He served as station commissioner at various police stations, including Soweto, Diepkloof and Hillbrow and retired as cluster commander of the George cluster in the Western Cape. He was one of the members that piloted CPFs in 1994 whilst he was the station commissioner at Soweto SAPS. He was also a part of a study tour to the Netherlands to study community policing. His implementation of community policing earned him a Rotary International award and a Harvard scholarship. He holds a National Diploma in Police Administration, a Diploma in Business Management, a B. Juris, and a Master of Public Administration from Harvard University. He is currently the Western Cape Police Ombudsman. He participated in this interview in his personal capacity.

6.4.2 Respondent 2

He served in the SAPS between 1986 and 2018, was promoted to various ranks and resigned as a major-general. His career started as a patrol officer, and he soon became a detective. He excelled as a detective and was appointed as head of detectives in the Western Cape.

In 2010 he was appointed station commissioner at Mitchells Plain SAPS, and in 2014 he was appointed as the Cluster commander at Khayelitsha SAPS. He resigned from the SAPS in 2018 to take up the post of the SAPS Ombudsman for the Western Cape. Since 2020 he has been a member of the Economic Development Partnership, an organisation that assists the WCG with the implementation of the deliverables of the Western Cape safety plan. He completed the National Diploma in Policing, an Honours and a Master's in Public Administration. He responded to the questions in his personal capacity.

6.4.3   Respondent 3

He served in the SAPS between 1984 and 2019, was promoted to various ranks and resigned as a brigadier. He served as station commissioner at various police stations in the Western Province, including Kraaifontein, Elsiesrivier, and Delft. He also served as the deputy cluster commander for the Delft cluster. He obtained a National Diploma and a BTech in Policing.

6.4.4   Respondent 4

He served in various divisions of the SAPS and was appointed as the Western Cape Provincial Commissioner between December 1999 and May 2003. He also served as a Member of the Western Cape Legislature between April 2004 and September 2010 and was responsible for Community Safety from May 2009 to September 2010. In 2019 he was appointed as special advisor for the Minister of Police, responsible for developing and implementing the Anti-Gang strategy. He holds a National Diploma in Policing, B. Proc, LLB and LLM degrees.

The respondents support the responses from the questionnaires in the following categories: training in the implementation of violent crime strategies, with Respondent 3 stating, "No, they are not adequately trained, a half-day workshop is sometimes done with the CPFs, and recently no training is provided ". In terms of having the necessary resources to implement their strategies, the respondents also agreed in responses to the questionnaires that CPFs do not have enough resources to implement their strategies, with Respondent 1 replying as follows:

"No, the CPFs are left on their own to raise funds without proper support from the government, especially the SAPS. Simple issues like office accommodation, telephones, petrol for travel, transport, allowance for official engagement are a challenge".

With regards to partnerships with the different spheres of government, the respondents alluded to the creation of parallel structures by the different spheres and Respondent 2 remarks as follows "The challenge is that there are too many parallel forums, like the Mayoral Urban Regeneration Programme (MURPS) of the City of Cape Town and the Ward Forums also duplicate the work of CPFs. Neighbourhood Watches also play a role in crime prevention. It is not under the control of the CPF". Whilst Respondent 1 added, "In the Western Cape, the creation of Neighbourhood Watch structures, Area Based Teams, and the Law Enforcement deployment to crime areas have separated from any direct control/ relationship of the CPF".

According to Respondent 4, CPFs are not involved in the planning and implementing the Anti-Gang strategy as the Anti-Gang Unit is a specialised unit with no accountability to local communities. These respondents concur that the lack of clear policies and guidelines and support for CPFs partly contributes to the lack of participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime.

Respondent 4 articulates it as follows "The lack of clear guidelines lacking in all regard to assisting CPFs to participate in the prevention of violence, in general, is a critical inhibiting factor in the prevention of violent crime".

Respondent 1 mentioned, "Thirdly, the regulations for the CPFs are still in draft form and interim almost 27 years after democracy. This important policy document needs the Minister of Police to finalise without further delay". These responses in the semi-structured interviews corroborate and validate the information gather through the questionnaires.

6.5   Findings

Through the analysis of the close-end questionnaires by using SPSS and content analysis of the semi-structured interviews, the following scientific findings are made.

A concerning feature of the data collected through the close-end questionnaires is the large number of neutral responses given in some of the tables. It could be that the participants were sceptical about the research or were hesitant to speak out despite the assurance of anonymity. The research findings are discussed in the next paragraph.

6.5.1 It was found in this study that the CPFs of Nyanga and Mitchells Plain are involved in projects and programmes in the prevention of violent crime.

6.5.2 The current institutional capacity of both CPFs is insufficient to support their participation in the prevention of violent crime in their specific areas.

6.5.3 There is enough legislation and policies in place that allows for community participation in the prevention of violent crime.

6.5.4 The elements of the community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime, namely community policing, social crime prevention, the social-ecological model, evidence-based policing, and a theory of change, are overall supported by the literature and some of the responses and could enhance the institutional capacity of the CPFs.

6.6   Discussion of Findings

6.6.1   Involvement in the prevention of violent crime

In Chapter 2, it was explained that the SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001) formalise the elements of community policing into policy and deal with the establishment of CPFs at the station, area (now cluster) and provincial levels. It also contains the principles relating to the functioning of CPFs and Boards. Section 8 (1) of these regulations, CPFs, must consult with the station management to develop an annual community safety plan for their respective areas and submit it to the Cluster Board. These obligations imply that CPFs must be involved in projects and programmes for implementation to achieve the objectives of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act as was deliberated in Chapter 2.

This study argues that social crime prevention should be implemented to assist with the law enforcement approach to deal with the prevention of violent crime. Social crime prevention activities should focus on the root causes of violent crime. The root cause of crime may vary

from community to community; therefore, it would be difficult to generalise in identifying these root causes. Grant (2015:2) identifies social factors, employment and skills opportunities for youth, poor parental supervision, and many others as dominant causes of crime (White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998, Cristova, 2011, Palmary 2001). Social crime prevention aims to solve a specific problem (social and environmental) that contributes to the commitment of certain crimes. The focus is thus on problem-solving and early intervention. According to Palmary (2001), not a single social or environmental problem leads to the commitment of a crime, but rather the complex interaction between some of these causes contributes to an increase in crime. Hence, a diverse approach must be applied to address as many as possible of the identified issues. It was found that both these CPFs are familiar with social crime prevention and that they direct their strategies on the root causes of violent crime in their policing precincts.

These findings made, are the response to the first research question "Do Community Policing Forums (CPFs) fulfil their mandate to participate in the prevention of violent crime in the geographical areas (Nyanga and Mitchells Plain) within the Cape Town Metropole, Western Cape, South Africa?"

6.6.2 Institutional capacity

The obligation that CPFs must be involved in projects and programmes for implementation to achieve the objectives of Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act requires institutional capacity such as skills and resources. These obligations imply that CPF members must be trained in or at least familiar with projects and programmes for successful implementation as expected in the last obligation. Section 8 (3) requires that CPF Cluster Boards compile an area safety plan with action plans, projects, and programmes after receiving their respective police stations' CPFs' safety plan. The sections further determine that Area Boards must coordinate and support the goals of CPFs. This section is unclear on the nature of the support the Cluster CPF boards must give. In terms of Section 8 (4) of the regulations, Provincial Boards must coordinate and support the Cluster safety plans. In this case, the support of the Provincial Boards to Cluster Boards is also unclear. Regarding logistical support, section 11 (1) declares that SAPS is under no obligation to provide office accommodation to CPFs or any boards, whilst subsection (2) allows the station commissioner with discretion to

accommodate CPFs with office accommodation temporarily. This is only allowed if that specific space is not needed for policing or where the CPF have no options available for their functions.

Several institutional capacity challenges influence this CPFs participation in the prevention of violent crime and will be discussed next:

- The low levels of training of members in the implementation of violent crime prevention strategies;
- The low levels of collection of evidence to inform violent crime prevention strategies could result in the strategies being informed by the wrong information;
- The low level of assistance by external stakeholders to collect information to inform the strategies;
- The lack of resources to implement violent crime prevention strategies;
- The low level of partnerships with the three spheres of government;
- The existence of parallel structures in government duplicating the role and functions of CPFs;
- The lack of clear policies and guidelines to promote the participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime.

These challenges could have a direct effect on the effectiveness and efficiency of CPFs in participating in the prevention of violent crime. It answers the second research question: "What is the current institutional capacity of Nyanga and Mitchells Plains CPFs to fulfil their mandate?"

6.6.3   Legislative framework for community participation

The South African Interim Constitution (Act 200 of 1993) was the first document that referred to community policing in community policing forums. CPFs are regulated by the South African Interim Constitution and the South African Police Act. Chapter 14 of the Interim Constitution creates the foundation of policing in the country, whilst Section 221 provides for community forums. In response to provisions in Section 221 of the Interim Constitution, the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act, through Chapter 7, regulates CPFs (This section has

been carried over into Schedule 6: Traditional arrangements at item 24 of the Constitution, Act 108 of 1996). Section 18 (1) of the SAPS Act dictates that it shall liaise with community forums to achieve its constitutional mandate in Section 215 of the Constitution. In terms of the Act, CPFs will function at three levels: station, area, and provincial.

The Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines identifies five core functions of community policing:

1. Service orientation – the creation of professional police service to respond to the community's needs and be accountable to the community.
2. Partnerships – an approach of facilitation and cooperation towards problem-solving.
3. Problem-solving – to be jointly responsible for identifying and analysing the cause of crime and the co-production of solutions to these identified causes.
4. Empowerment – to create the capacity for addressing crime.
5. Accountability – comprehends the need for a culture of responsibility when dealing with the needs and concerns of communities (South Africa, 1997).

These objectives were set against the transformation of SAPS and the amalgamation of the previous eleven policing agencies. It, therefore, partly aims to turn SAPS into an effective organisation that is accountable at all levels and responsive to the needs of the communities it serves (Pelser, 1999).

This legislation and policies are supported by various others, such as the NDP, ISCPS and the WPSS, to adequately provide for community participation in the prevention of violent crime. This finding is in response to the third research question, "How does the existing legislative framework provide for community participation in the prevention of violent crime?"

6.6.4 Elements of the community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime

The elements of a community participation approach are thus:

Community policing - Community policing allows that the policing agencies and the community are jointly responsible for reducing crime and, therefore, should be equal partners.

Friedman (2000:3) defines community policing as a philosophy and an approach that requires extreme and principal changes to organisations to enable local communities to participate in policing. For Hill and Hupe (2002:294), community policing is a philosophy that focuses on the management styles and operational strategies of the police in dealing with community-police partnerships and problem-solving approaches.

Social crime prevention - Social crime prevention includes integrated crime prevention by individuals, communities and businesses, non-government organisations, and all levels of government aiming at social and environmental factors that could increase crime risk (Van Dijk and De Waard 1991). The primary focus of social crime prevention is to enable participants (individuals, communities, and government at all levels) to deal with social and environmental factors (root causes) conducive to crime commitment

Social-Ecological Model - The Social-Ecological Model (SEM) emphasises the interaction between individuals, relationships, community, and societal influences that put people at risk of becoming victims or transgressors of violent crime. The SEM encourages intervention over multiple levels simultaneously to effect meaningful prevention.

Evidence-based policing - The Institute for Security Studies (ISS) (22 May 2019) defines evidence-based policing (EBP) as the generation and testing of hypotheses to produce social evidence to best deal with crime. In contrast to making decisions based on theory, assumptions, tradition or convention, an evidence-based approach continuously test hypotheses with empirical research findings" (Sherman:2013,1).

This emphasised that decisions about policing must be based upon scientifically generated facts and not merely beliefs. This evidence could direct the theory of change.

Theory of Change - A theory of change is linked to explaining the reasons why a particular intervention in a community is needed as well as why it should be successful (Cloete et al.,2018:61). The theory of change must be directed by prior basic research evidence coupled with knowledge of the good practice. It is thus critical that basic, fundamental theoretical, and practical appreciation of the focus area is available (Cloete et al., 2018:62). The elements of community policing, social crime prevention, the social-ecological model and the theory of change must be determent by evidence. The combination of these elements,

as depicted in Figure 6.11, should result in effective Evidence-based social crime prevention (EBSCP) approach.
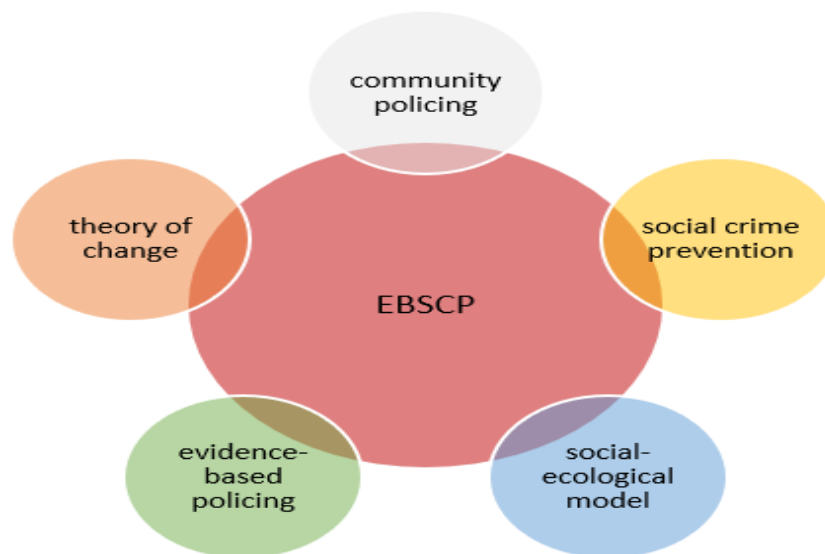
Figure 6.11: Elements of evidence-based social crime prevention approach

Source: Researcher

This approach address some of the areas in the finding of inadequate institutional capacity of CPF members to adhere to their mandate. It also supports the argument for greater support for community participation in the prevention of violent crime and is also aligned with the legislation and policy framework concepts discussed in Chapter 3 and the policy process discussed in Chapter 4. This approach is in response to the last research question, "What are the elements of a community participation approach that could prevent violent crime in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain within the City of Cape Town, Western Cape?"

6.7   Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the author analysed, presented, and discussed the data collected through close-ended questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The data collected through the close-ended Likert scale interviews were analysed using SPSS, and the semi-structured interviews were analysed through qualitative content analysis. The two sets of data were compared for triangulation purposes, upon which several findings were made. Several findings were made, and these findings responded to the research questions. In the next chapter, the research finding in proposing an EBSCP approach to deal with violent crime challenges in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain within the CoCT, Western Cape, is discussed.

CHAPTER 7

AN EVIDENCE-BASED SOCIAL CRIME PREVENTION APPROACH

7.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the collected data was analysed, presented, and discussed. This chapter augments the research findings in proposing an EBSCP approach to deal with violent crime challenges in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain within the CoCT, Western Cape. This approach is within the philosophy of community policing, focusing on alternative crime prevention to law enforcement. During law enforcement, the policing agencies are the primary stakeholders, and communities are secondary in following their strategies, guideline, and actions. It is evident that law enforcement alone failed to adequately address the current levels of violent crime and thus needs support in the form of community participation through community policing. An EBSCP approach may contribute to solving the low collection rate of evidence and assist in collecting evidence for violent crime prevention strategies, as identified in the findings. It could also address the low level of partnership with the three levels of government, as it would create an opportunity for collaboration.

The EBSCP approach is partly based on the Evidence-Based policing EBP approach of Sherman 1998 combined with social crime prevention and the Social-Ecological Model used by the CDC of violence. The EBSCP approach complements the aim of the ISCPS, as was discussed in Chapter 3:

> [T]o reduce the crime rate through empowering young people, victims, women, and all vulnerable groups to address the root causes of crime, to mobilise dynamic forces in communities by taking a long-term approach, to work towards the sustainability and mainstreaming of responses and results emanating from social crime prevention efforts in communities and at the local level (DSD, 2011).

These objectives of the ICSPS emphasised that localised experience is pivotal to unearthing the causes and the systematic dysfunctions that contribute to the high levels of crime and violence. Furthermore, these objectives affirm that local solutions should be explored as a point of departure for intervention strategies.

The EBSCP approach also affects the directions of the WPSS (2016), which declares that "Strategies and interventions must be evidence-based and informed by a multidisciplinary foundation of knowledge about crime problems, their multiple causes and promising and proven practices". The WPSS (2016) further states that evidence must be provided regarding social crime prevention in dealing with the underlying causes of crime and violence. This approach could be applied in other policing precincts with similar violent crime challenges elsewhere in Western Cape, the country as a whole and globally. The EBSCP approach will be discussed in the following paragraph.

7.2   A Proposed Evidence-based social crime prevention Approach (EBSCP)

The root causes identified in the developmental approach for the prevention of violent crime could be grounded in the SEM and form the foundation for an EBSCP approach. Although communities could practice EBSCP without partnering with the police, it could also be applied by CPFs as the mandated organ to perform community policing. EBSCP can be an effort of communities, through CPFs and other organisations, to generate and test social and environmental hypotheses to produce the best solutions to these social and environmental issues. The social crime prevention activities constituting EBSCP will be those depicted in the Figures below. The various phases constituting the EBSCP approach will now be explained. These phases are designed by following the policy process.

7.2.1   Phases of an EBSCP approach

7.2.1.1   *Phase 1 – Focus areas through problem identification*

The focus areas of the EBSCP approach could be informed by the SEM used by the CDC for violence prevention. The focus will be on the individual, relationship, community or societal level or a combined number of levels. Through these focus areas, the root cause of violent crime in the specific community could be established. This could inform the research of the low level of evidence collection to inform violent crime prevention strategies identified in the findings. This could also enhance social crime prevention as it focuses on the social environment and influences.
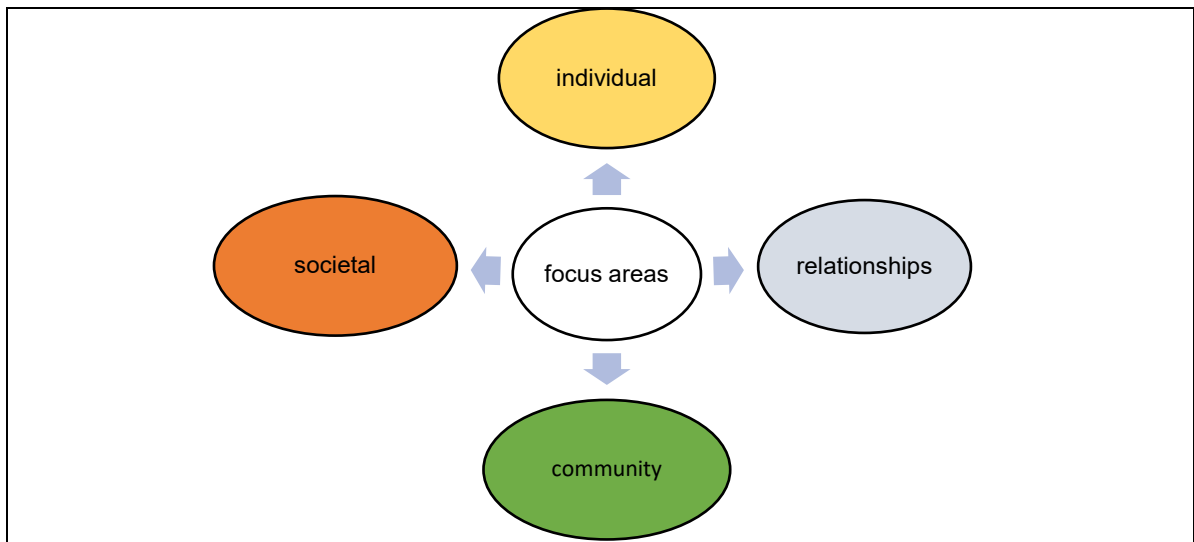
Figure 7.1: Phase 1 - Focus areas

Source: Researcher

7.2.1.2   *Phase 2 – Diagnosing and analysis*

The diagnosing and analysis phase of the EBSCP approach will, firstly, allow the discussion of the problem. The problem-identification remains the function of the community, police, and other stakeholders (Brown, 2018). This could result (in no specific order and not limited to) in identifying the root causes, focusing on previous interventions, the existing knowledge of the problem, the desired change, and the extent of the problem. This phase must be supported by research, evidence, and analytics (Lum and Kope, 2015:6). Secondly, the community or CPF s could obtain the best information amongst themselves, especially as the community are the one that experiences these problems. Thirdly, it will allow the community or CPFs to critically weigh the evidence against the identified problem in the focus area (Figure 7.1). This phase could create the opportunity for the training of members in the policy process and allow for assistance by external stakeholders with research, evidence collection and analytics as were identified in the research findings.
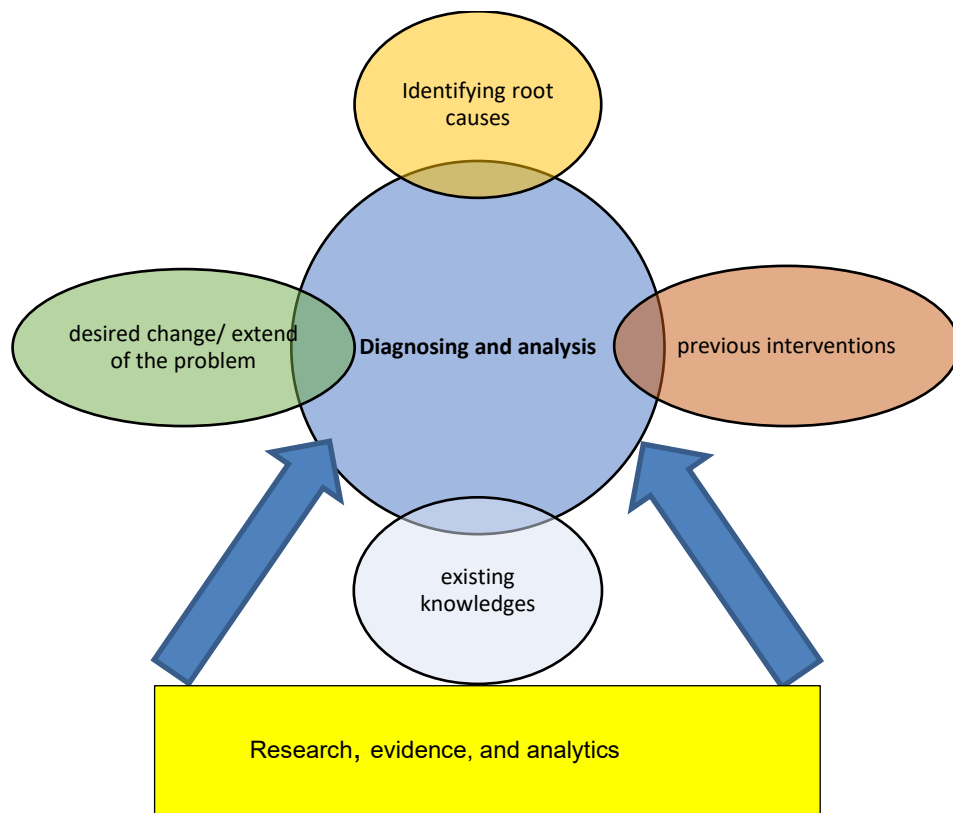
Figure 7.2: Phase 2 – Diagnosing and analysis

Source: Researcher

7.2.1.3   *Phase 3 Option-generation and planning*

During the option-generation and planning phase, CPFs can formulate some theory of change, design an action plan, and lobby for resources and stakeholders. A theory of change is linked to explaining why a particular intervention in a community is needed and why it should be successful (Cloete et al., 2018:61). The theory of change must be directed by prior basic research evidence coupled with knowledge of good practice. It is thus critical that basic, fundamental theoretical and practical appreciation of the focus area (phase 1) is available (Cloete et al., 2018:62). The involvement of experts and researchers is therefore pivotal to the success of developing a theory of change.

This phase also contributes to the level of assistance by external stakeholders that was identified as a research finding and could enhance the institutional capacity of CPFs by providing resources and skills (Figure 7.3).
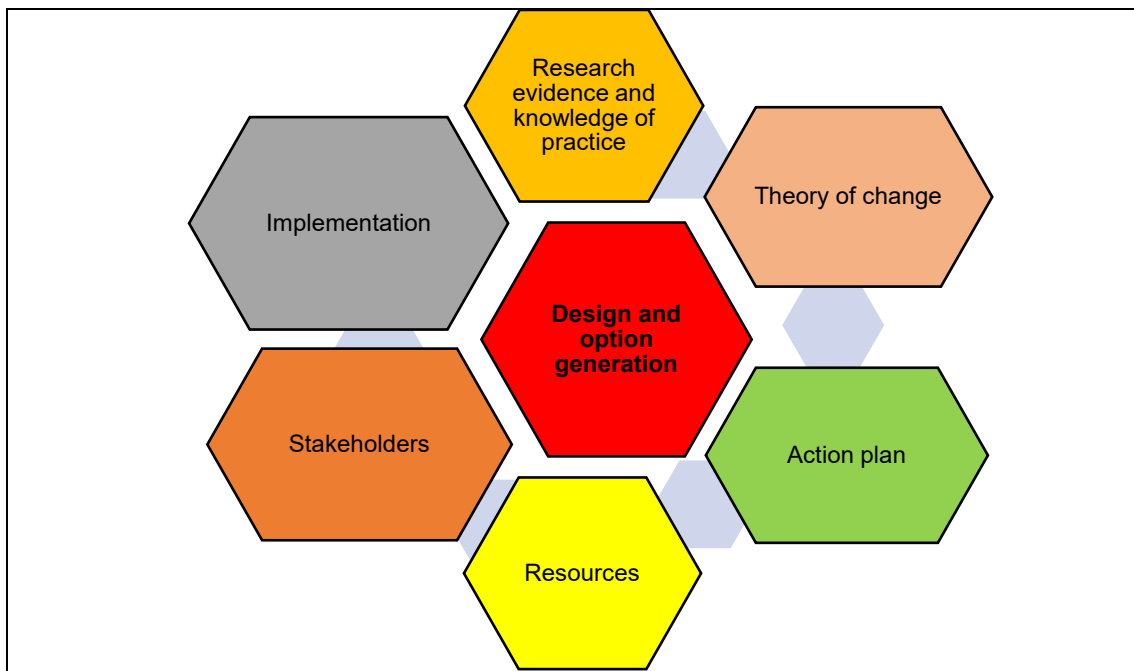
Figure 7.3: Phase 3 Option-generation and planning

Source: Researcher

7.2.1.4   *Phase 4 - Implementation*

Next, the community or CPFs can implement the action plan through programmes and projects. The identified stakeholders like the CPFs and boards, relevant spheres of government, community organisations, private sector, academic institutions, and organised labour could assist with the implementation (Figure 7.4). Training in implementing violent crime prevention strategies was identified as one of the challenges for the CPFs to fulfil their mandate.

This could create the opportunity to address this challenge. It would also speak to the low levels of assistance by external stakeholders.

These stakeholders can contribute to the lack of resources for the implementation of violent crime prevention strategies, which was also identified in the findings.
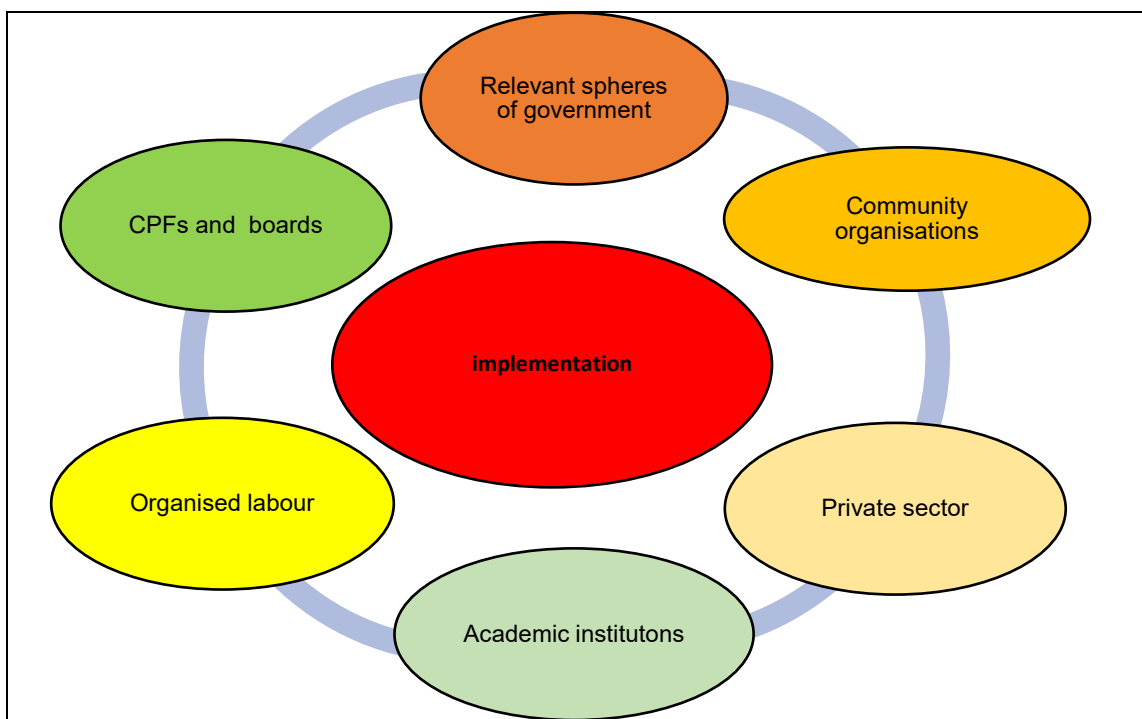
Figure 7.4: Phases 4 – Implementation

Source: Researcher

7.2.1.5   *Phase 5 - Evaluation*

Evaluation of the outcomes and determine the levels of success or failure. This will allow for redefining of objectives and the identification of follow-up areas. The support and guidance of experts through all these phases are critical for the approach's success. Preferably this

needs to be done by the same stakeholders involved in the implementation. Part of this phase will be redefined and identify follow-up areas (Figure 7.5).
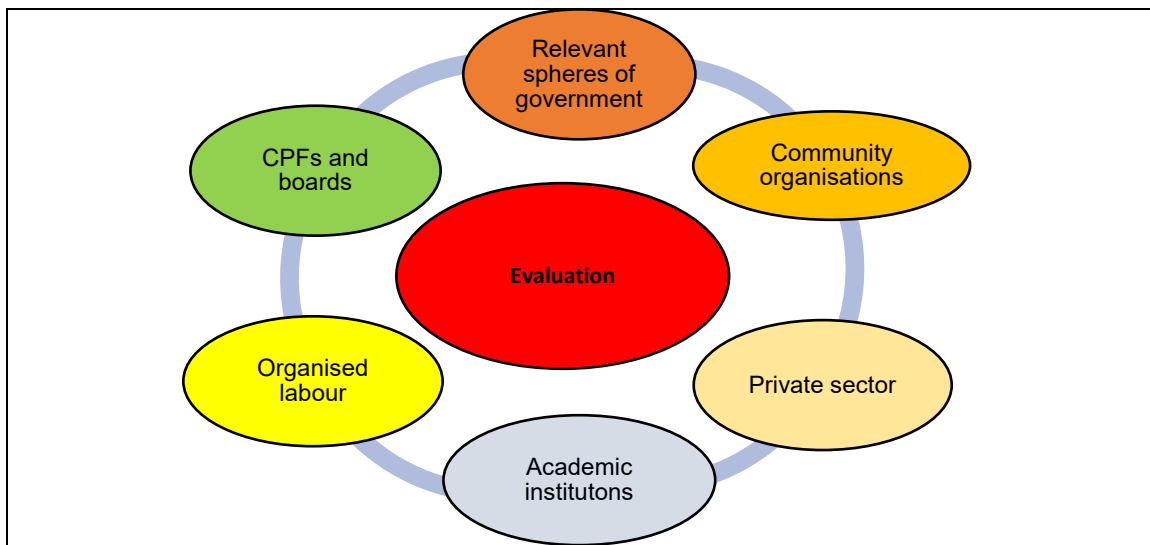
Figure 7.5: Phase 5 - Evaluation

Source: Researcher

The recommended social crime prevention activities resulting from this EBSCP approach will be scientific. This could improve the effectiveness of policing in the prevention of violent crime in the CoCT, Western Cape.
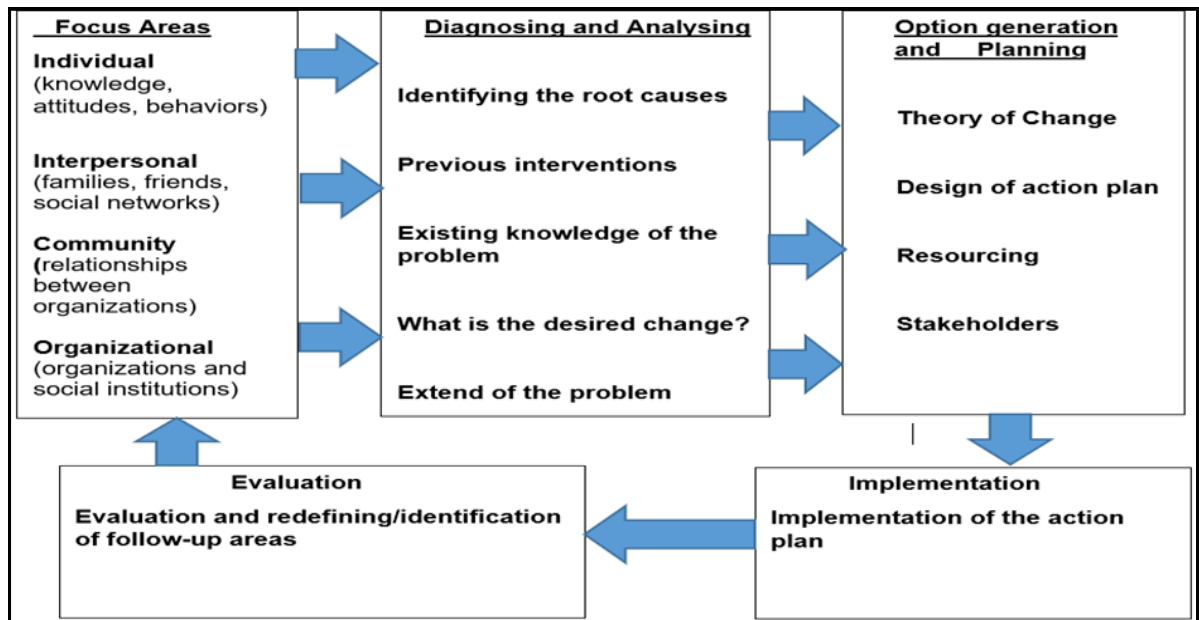
Figure 7.6: A Proposed Evidence-based social crime prevention approach

Source: Researcher

Sherman (1998) pronounces that community policing in its current form is not conducive to EBP due to the lack of accountability of the police in the process. He acknowledges, though, that community participation in the form of partnership and communication and respect for communities are essential for the success of evidence-based policing. He thereby supports the idea that the concept could be applied to community policing through EBSCP. An EB-SCP approach could be adopted by CPFs and other interested groups in the prevention of violent crime in the CoCT, Western Cape. This approach allows these groupings to be assisted by experts and researchers in problem-identification and informing the diagnosing and analysis phase.

The EBSCP approach could be supported by the DAPVC, as discussed in Chapter 2. The public participation planning partnership (P4) method states that the community (beneficiaries) must be the most important participant in the process (De Beer & Swanepoel, 1998) in Theron & Mchunu, (2016: 17). It could also result in authentic participation, where the

beneficiaries influence the direction and execution of interventions. The public participation planning partnership development building blocks (P4), namely, participation, social learning, capacity-building, empowerment, and sustainable development, as promoted by (Theron, 2008:14 -17; Theron and Mchunu, 2016:17 – 19), could be key elements of the success of the EBSCP approach. Theron and Mchunu (2016) note that the P4 is a development process based on a partnership between the change- agent and the beneficiaries of the development.

7.3   Chapter Summary

This chapter started with relevant theoretical points, including the EBP and the SEM and demonstrated how the concepts influence the development of EBSCP. These influences then informed the phases of an EBSCP approach: focus areas, diagnosing and analysing, option generation and planning, implementation, and evaluation. The elements, namely social learning, capacity building, empowerment and sustainability, informed community participation in a DAPVC that could be used to enhance and support the EBCSP approach. These two approaches of EBSCP and DAPVC created by the author are aimed at scientifically contributing to the body of knowledge in community policing, social crime prevention and evidence-based policing. It could be beneficial for the CoCT, other cities and towns in the Western Cape and South Africa and even globally that experience the same root causes of violent crime. The final chapter of this research project includes the recommendations and conclusion.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This research project is premised on the objective that the prevention of violent crime is ineffective because the focus is on the policing agencies to achieve it through law enforcement. It was argued that law enforcement needs to be supported by community policing and efforts by communities to focus on the root causes of violent crime. The study acknowledges that CPFs are constitutionally mandated to perform community policing and thus investigated the participation of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime through a case study in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain policing precincts. The ultimate aim of the study was to present a community participation approach to the prevention of violent crime.

8.2 Summary

Chapter 1 includes the background, introduction and problem statement and covers the primary and secondary research questions. The chapter emphasises that crime prevention is the core function of policing agencies and needs to be enhanced by community policing. It also confirms that the study is limited to Nyanga and Mitchells Plain policing precincts and acknowledges that other role-players are participating in community policing through various actions.

Chapter 2 focuses on crime, its impact, and the root cause of crime, participation in crime prevention includes a discussion on community policing and the CPFs. The chapter further defines crime as well as violent crime and discusses the root cause of crime. The chapter further discusses a development approach to deal with the root causes of crime, prevention approaches, social crime prevention and the root causes of violent crimes.

Chapter 3 covers the two central concepts of this study, namely crime prevention and community participation, and includes a discussion of the legislative framework for crime prevention and community participation. The focus is on the different crime prevention approaches, including POP, CPOS and the Broken Window theory.

In dealing with the community participation concept, the focus was on the role of CPFs. The chapter further interrogates the legislative regime for community participation in the prevention of violent crime, focusing on the three spheres of government. It could be concluded that there is enough legislative and policy provision for community participation in the prevention of violent crime on each of these levels

Chapter 4. The chapter also explores the policy process as a theoretical departure point in the design and implementation of a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime. The policy process includes agenda-setting, policy design, decision-making, implementation, and evaluation. The implementation phase includes a top-down and a bottom-up discussion and a combination of the two approaches. Programme and project management are two ways to articulate policies into service delivery.

Chapter 5 discusses the research design and methodology and highlights that this research project will follow a mixed approach between quantitative and qualitative. Both these forms were discussed, and reasons provided why it was used, the quantitative approach was in the form of a close-end questionnaire, whilst the qualitative was through semi-structured interviews. A purposive sampling method was used because the respondents are viewed as knowledgeable in CPFs and policing. The research population was identified as community members of Nyanga and Mitchell's Plain policing precincts, with the target population being the CPFs in these respective areas.

Chapter 6 includes the data collected, the close-end Likert scale questionnaires were analysed using SPSS, and the semi-structured interviews were through content analysis. The information obtained from the questionnaires was validated through triangulation with an extract from the semi-structured interviews, at which point specific findings were made.

Chapter 7 presents an EBSCP approach to the prevention of violent crime. This approach is influenced by the evidence-based policing philosophy and the social-ecological model. The EBSCP consists of the following phases: focus areas, diagnosing and analysing, option generation and planning, implementation, and evaluation. The EBSCP approach could be supported by a DAPVC, which will allow for social learning, capacity building, empowerment, and sustainability in the community participation approach.

These two approaches of EBSCP and DAPVC created by the author in this chapter aim to contribute scientifically to the body of knowledge in the fields of community policing and social crime prevention. It could benefit cities and towns in the Western Cape and South Africa and even globally that experience the same root causes of violent crime. In completing this research project, some recommendations will be made next.

8.3   Summary of the Research Findings

The research findings relating to the research objectives are summarised next.

The objectives of this study are to:

- determine to what extent Nyanga and Mitchells Plain CPFs fulfil their mandate to prevent violent crime in their respective geographical area;
- investigate the current institutional capacity of CPFs to fulfil their mandate;
- determine how the existing legislative framework provides for community partici-pation in the prevention of violent crime; and
- propose a community participation approach based on evidence-based social crime prevention and a developmental approach to prevent violent crime in the CoCT effectively.

The research findings show that both Nyanga and Mitchells Plain CPFs fulfil their mandate to participate in the prevention of violent crime in their respective geographical areas. It was further found that the following factors negatively influence the institutional capacity of both CPFs:

- the low levels of training of members in the implementation of violent crime pre-vention strategies;
- the low levels of collection of evidence to inform violent crime prevention strategies could result in the strategies being informed by the wrong information;
- the low level of assistance by external stakeholders to collect information to inform the strategies;
- the lack of resources to implement violent crime prevention strategies;

- the low level of partnerships with the three spheres of government;
- the existence of parallel structures in government is duplicating the role and functions of CPFs (see 6.2.7 for the results and 6.3.8 for the discussion of the results);

In terms of research objective three, it was found through the literature review that adequate legislation and policies exist for community participation in the prevention of violent crime. In response to the last objective, the research proposed an EBSCP for the prevention of violent crime in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain policing precincts.

8.4   Recommendations

Based on the literature and the research findings, the following recommendations are proposed:

8.4.1   Training for participation in the implementation of the prevention of violent crime strategies

It is recommended that the training of these CPF members should include the broader field of the policy process with a specific focus on violent crime prevention, thus holistically empowering these members. This study only investigated the training of CPF members in implementing violent crime strategies, which shows a low output.

8.4.2   Assistance with the collection of evidence

The research findings reflect a low level of collecting evidence by CPFs to determine their violent crime prevention strategies. It furthermore shows that there is also a low level of assistance for the CPFs in collecting this evidence. It is recommended that academic institutions assist CPFs with scientific evidence collection. This assistance of academic institutions could result in supporting the DAPVC by ensuring social learning, capacity building, empowerment, and sustainability in community participation in the prevention of violent crime.

8.4.3 Responsibility for CPFs

It is recommended that clarity needs to be given with regard to the responsibility of the CPFs, as the Constitution and the SAPS Act could be interpreted to allow for a dual function between the SAPS nationally and the provinces through departments responsible for policing. This confuses and could result in neither taking responsibility nor leaving it to the other and under-resourcing, as indicated in one of the findings of this study.

8.4.4 Partnership with the three spheres of government

It is recommended that CPFs should be entrusted with the responsibilities for community policing or be included as major stakeholders in these processes and not be excluded or undermined. The low levels of participation between the CPFs and all levels of government could be due to the parallel structures formed at these levels. It should be the responsibility of all levels of government to participate with CPFs regarding crime prevention issues in their respective areas.

8.4.5 Finalisation of the CPF regulations

It is recommended that the interim regulations for CPFs must be updated and finalised. The CPFs are still guided by the SAPS Interim Regulations for Community Forums and Boards (2001). Not only are the regulations temporary arrangements, but they are also outdated. They do not make provisions for a policy or guidelines for CPFs to participate in the prevention of violent crime. This could result in that CPFs who acted in goodwill to participate in the prevention of violent crime doing so blindly and without any policy certainty.

8.4.6 Adoption of the EBSCP approach for community participation

It is recommended that an EBSC approach is accepted as a community participation approach for the prevention of violent crime. It could be applied by CPFs as the mandated organ to perform community policing.

An EBSCP approach can be an effort of communities, through CPFs and other organisations, to generate and test social and environmental hypotheses to produce the best solutions to deal with these social and environmental issues in their precincts. The EBSCP

approach could be supported by the DAPVC, which consists of participation, social learning, capacity-building, empowerment, and sustainable development. An EBSCP could also enhance the institutional capacity of CPFs.

8.5   General Recommendation

The previous recommendations are based on the literature consulted and the results of the empirical study. The following general recommendation is made to deal holistically with the prevention of violent crime through community participation. It is recommended that research must be commissioned into the highly violent crime areas in South Africa, focusing on the root causes of such violent crime. Specific programmes and projects should be initiated to address this violent crime through CPFs. It is recommended that a pilot study should be done on the impact of these projects and programmes to determine their effectiveness in ensuring a sustainable reduction in violent crime. These projects and programmes, if effective, can then be rolled out throughout South Africa and internationally. The EBSCP approach proposed in this study could be used to implement this recommendation.

8.6   Consideration for Further Research

Based on the literature review in Chapter 3 on the existing legislation for community participation in the prevention of violent crime, it was determined that adequate legislation and policies exist. It is recommended that future studies must focus on the impediments that hinder the implementation of this legislation and policies. These studies could also focus on the role academic institutions could play in supporting the implementation of that legislation and policies.

8.7   Limitations and Constraints

It was intended to include four of the top ten stations for the most reported violent crimes in the country during 2017/18, namely Nyanga (2), Mitchells Plain (3), Khayelitsha (6) and Delft (10). Letters to participate and request consent were sent to all the CPFs; all the CPFs accepted the invitation. Khayelitsha responded and accepted the invitation and provided letters of consent. Several follow-ups were made with Khayelitsha CPF without any response, after which Kraaifontien CPF was approached for participation and consent. This

CPF was approached because they recorded the seventh highest number of murders nationally in 20171/8. No response was received from them either. During the empirical research, the chairperson of Delft CPF informed the researcher that the CPF is dysfunctional and thus not able to participate in completing the questionnaires.

Furthermore, two more individuals regarded as experts concerning CPFs and policing were invited to participate in the semi-structured interviews. Both agreed but never honoured the appointments for unknown reasons. Therefore, the findings of this study are limited to areas that were researched and should not be perceived as a blueprint for areas with similar circumstances. Some of the recommendations could be applied elsewhere, with considering the unique root cause of each policing precinct

8.8   Conclusion

Along with poverty, unemployment, inequality, endemic corruption and the ongoing Covid-19 virus, the high levels of violent crime pose a serious risk to the democratic order in the country. These other issues, like poverty and unemployment, compound the challenge for previously disadvantaged communities to deal with these levels of violent crime, where the majority of these crimes are committed. The right to a safe environment is enshrined in the South African constitution for all citizens to enjoy. However, it is evident that the policing agencies are unable to deal with the prevention of violent crime through law enforcement alone, and their efforts need to be supplemented.

The inability of the South African Police Services (SAPS) to effectively prevent violent crime could have a ripple effect in that the reporting of more violent crimes results in more case dockets for investigation, which, if effectively performed, will lead to an increase in court roles which can lead to pressure on the already overcrowded prison community. Community policing performed by CPFs, and other community organisations could enhance the crime prevention strategies of the policing agencies. Therefore, these structures need to be encouraged and supported to participate in the prevention of violent crime. CPFs are constitutionally mandated to participate in community policing and thus need to be at the forefront in the prevention of violent crime.

The primary research question in this project was to determine if CPFs in Nyanga and Mitchells Plain are involved in the prevention of violent crime. The research findings are that these CPFs are involved in strategies to prevent violent crime in their policing precincts. There are, however, various impediments that influence the ability of these CPFs to participate in the prevention of violent crime. These obstacles include the absence of clear guidelines and directives to regulate and promote CPFs' participation, low level of training, the lack of resources to implement strategies to prevent violent crime and all the other findings. To improve the participation of CPFs and the community in general, an EBSCP approach and DAPVC were developed and proposed. Several recommendations were made, including recommendations for further research into the prevention of violent crime and community participation.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Consent form

INFORMED CONSENT TO CONDUCT AN EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

Dear Participant

The attached questionnaire/interview represents a survey amongst members of Community Police Forums (CPFs), Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and individuals involved in crime prevention within identified areas in the Western Cape. The study aims to present a community participation approach to preventing violent crime.

The survey is expected to produce information that the SAPS and the municipal police could use to improve the prevention of violent crime. Your cooperation is crucial to the success of the survey. The survey is part of a research project toward completing a doctoral study, which will be submitted to the Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

Your agreement to participate in the questionnaire is voluntary. You are assured that all information will be treated confidentially, and participation involves no risk. Should you wish to withdraw for any reason during the study, you are welcome to do so without objection to your decision. All findings will be dealt with anonymously, and you will be informed of the results.

Instructions are provided on each page of the questionnaire and should take between 10 and 15 minutes to complete.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Yours faithfully

Leslie Siegelaar

Researcher

021- 4603867/ 083 285 3536

lesliesiege@gmail.com

siegelaarl@cput.ac.za

Participant Name/Signature: _____ Date: ____/_____/_____

QUESTIONNAIRE
Instructions
Indicate with the mark "X" what applies to you

Independent variables

A 1: Age

18 – 25	1	
26 – 35	2	
36 – 45	3	
45 and older	4	

A 2: Gender

Male	1	
Female	2	

A3: Experience with regard to community participation in policing

0 -1 year	1	
1- 3 years	2	
3-5 years	3	
5years and more	4	

A4: Experience within Community Police Forum (CPF)/
Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO)

1-3 years	1	
3-5 years	2	
5 -8 years	3	
Eight years and more	4	

Instructions: Please indicate with a cross (X) in the accompanying column on the right
the response that resembles your opinion on the statement to the left.

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE 1	AGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	DISAGREE 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE 5
1	I am familiar with the legislative instructions about our organisation.					
2	I am formally trained in the role and functions of our organisation.					
3	I understand the directives contained in our organisation's constitution.					
4	I am familiar with the following key objectives of policing.					
(i)	Crime prevention					
(ii)	Crime combatting					
(iii)	Crime investigation					
5	I am familiar with the following crime prevention strategies.					
(i)	Primary crime prevention					
(ii)	Secondary crime prevention					

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE 1	AGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	DISAGREE 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE 5
6	I understand the role and functions of the following role-player in preventing violent crimes.					
(i)	Street committees					
(ii)	Neighbourhood watches					
(iii)	Community safety forums (CSFs)					
7	I am familiar w h the root causes of violent crime in our policing area.					
8	I am aware of the role of community participation in the prevention of violent crime.					
9	I am familiar with the social crime prevention concept to prevent violent crime.					

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE 1	AGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	DISAGREE 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE 5
10	Our organisation has straightforward violent crime prevention programmes and projects.					
11	Our programmes and policies regarding preventing violent crimes are communicated to all stakeholders.					
12	Our organisation forms partnerships with the private sector in violent crime prevention programmes and projects					
13	Our organisation forms partnerships with other public organisations in violent crime prevention programmes and projects					
14	Our organisation has a marketing strategy for the prevention of violent crime.					
15	Our strategies promote community participation in the prevention of violent crime.					

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE 1	AGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	DISAGREE 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE 5
16	Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime.					
17	Our organisation is in partnership with the following levels of government to prevent violent crime.					
(i)	Local government (City of Cape Town)					
(ii)	Provincial government (Western Cape Government)					
(iii)	National government					
18	Our organisation is involved in the following phases of violent crime prevention programmes and projects.					
(i)	Problem identification					
(ii)	Planning					
(iii)	implementation					
(iv)	Monitoring and evaluation					
19	We are collecting evidence to inform our violent crime prevention programmes and objectives.					

	STATEMENT	STRONGLY AGREE 1	AGREE 2	NEUTRAL 3	DISAGREE 4	STRONGLY DISAGREE 5
20	External stakeholders assist our organisation in collecting evidence for our violent crime prevention programmes and projects.					
21	Our organisation has the necessary resources to implement our violent crime prevention programmes and projects.					
22	I am trained in the implementation of our violent crime prevention programmes.					
23	Our organisation's violent prevention programmes and projects align with local government legislation.					
24	Our organisation's violent crime prevention programmes and projects align with provincial government legislation.					
+	Our organisation's violent crime prevention programmes and projects align with national government legislation.					
26	Our organisation form part of the Area Based Team Approach for crime prevention					

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1.   Are CPFs adequately empowered to address the root causes of violent crime?

2.   If yes, what challenges do CPFs face in that regard?

3.   If not, how can CPFs participate in preventing violent crime?

4.   Are CPFs adequately trained to implement the programmes and projects to prevent violent crime?

5.   Are there enough stakeholders involved in supporting CPFs to participate in preventing violent crime?

6.   How do other policing functions like crime combatting and crime investigation
get influenced by CPFs? The involvement of CPFs

7.   What constraints do CPFs have to implement violent prevention programmes and policies?

8.   Are CPFs involved in identifying, planning, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating these violent prevention programmes and projects?

9.   Do the CPFs have the resources to perform the prevention of violent crime programmes and projects successfully?

10.   Do CPFs receive any support from the government at the different levels to perform violent prevention programmes and projects?

11.   What suggestions for improving the involvement of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime would you make?

12.   Any other comments on the topic?

Appendix D: Consent letter from Nyanga

NYANGA CPF

CHAIRPERSON: MR MAKASI

CONTACT NO: 021 380 3336/0677140031

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

CAPE PENINSULA

UNIVERSITY of TECHNOLOGY

ATT: Leslie Siegelaar

RE: Letter of consent to conduct research: Mr. Leslie Siegelaar

Sir

On behalf of Nyanga Community Policing Forum leadership it is our great pleasure to submit this letter of consent for Mr Leslie Siegelaar to embark on his research study in out police precinct. The leadership of the Nyanga Community Policing Forum has also informed the station commander of Nyanga Police Station about the research to be conducted by the above-mentioned student under the auspices of Cape Peninsula University of Technology. As the forum we commit ourselves in providing all the necessary support that Mr L Siegelaar will require during the course of his research, and we wish him all the best of luck with the study.

For more information, please feel free to contact Nyanga CPF through its Chairperson Martin Makasi @ 067 714 0031 / makasimartin@gmail.com

Yours in community safety

…………emailed…………………

Martin Makasi

Nyanga CPF Chairperson

Date: 04th March 2021

Appendix E: Consent letter from Mitchells Plain

Mitchells Plain Community Police Forum

Secretary: valderina.charles@gmail.com /0663448207

Postal Address
FIRST Avenue
Eastridge
Mitchells Plain
7798
Date 15 December 2021

THE CAPE PENINSULA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCE

Name of Candidate: **Leslie Siegelaar**

Re: Letter of consent to conduct research for Leslie Siegelaar

Dear Sir/Madam

On behalf of Mitchells Plain Community Police Forum leadership, it is immense pleasure to submit this letter of consent for Mr Leslie Siegelaar to embark on his research study in the Mitchell's Plain Police Precinct. The leadership of Mitchells Plain Community Police Forum has also informed the station Commander of Mitchells Plain Police Station about the research to be conducted by the above-mentioned student under the auspices of Cape Peninsula University of Technology.

As the Cpf we commit ourselves in providing all the necessary support that Mr: **Leslie Siegelaar** will require during his research, we wish him all the best with his study.

For more information, please feel free to contact Mitchells Plain CPF through its Chairperson Norman Jantjes on 0836284421 email address - normanj.jantjes@gmail.com

Yours in Community Safety
Norman Jantjes
Mitchells Plain CPF Chairperson

Cpf Executives
Chairman Norman Jantjies 0836284421
Secretary: Valderina Charles 0663448207
Treasurer: Jasmine Harris 0607390761
P.R.O: Shireen Rolland 076 2198199

Deputy Chair: Colin De Hart 0843171358
Deputy Secretary: Naiema Isaacs 0739013735
Project Co-ordinator: Joseph Williams 0671852896
Additional Member: Denzel Sampson 0835090311

Appendix F: Original statistics

Table 7.1 Age of respondents

Age	18 -25 years	26 – 35 years	36 -45 years	45 years and older	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	8,33%	8,33%	83,33%	100,00%
Nyanga	7,14%	28,57%	28,57%	35,71%	100,00%
Total	3,85%	19,23%	19,23%	57,69%	100,00%

Table 7.2 Gender of respondents

Gender	Female	Male	Total
Mitchells Plain	50,00%	50,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	21,43%	78,57%	100,00%
Total	34,62%	65,38%	100,00%

Table 7.3 Experience of respondents with regards to community policing and Community Police Forum's

Experience with regards to community policing	0 - 1 year		3 - 5 years	5 years and more	Total
Mitchells Plain	16,67%	8,33%	8,33%	66,67%	100,00%
Nyanga	0,00%	21,43%	21,43%	57,14%	100,00%
Total	7,69%	15,38%	15,38%	61,54%	100,00%
Experience within Community Police Forum (CPF)	1 -3 years	3- 5 years	5 - 8 years	8 years and more	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	8,33%	16,67%	66,67%	100,00%
Nyanga	28,57%	35,71%	0,00%	35,71%	100,00%
Total	19,23%	23,08%	7,69%	50,00%	100,00%

Table 7.4 Responses with regards to training and knowledge

Trained in the roles and functions of our organisation	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	25,00%	66,67%	0,00%	8,33%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	35,71%	21,43%	21,43%	14,29%	7,14%	100%
Total	30,77%	42,31%	11,54%	11,54%	3,85%	100%
Familiar with the legislative instructions for our organisation	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	41,67%	50,00%	0,00%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	35,71%	50,00%	7,14%	0,00%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	38,46%	50,00%	3,85%	3,85%	3,85%	100,00%
Understanding the directives contained in our organisation's constitution	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	58,33%	16,67%	25,00%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	50,00%	35,71%	14,29%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	53,85%	26,92%	19,23%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Trained in the implementation of our violent crime prevention strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	58,33%	16,67%	25,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	14,29%	7,14%	14,29%	42,86%	21,43%	100,00%
Total	7,69%	30,77%	15,38%	34,62%	11,54%	100,00%

Table 7.5 Responses with regards to knowledge of policing functions

Familiar with crime prevention as policing function	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	33,33%	50,00%	0,00%	16,67%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	21,43%	50,00%	21,43%	7,14%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	26,92%	50,00%	11,54%	11,54%	0,00%	100,00%
Familiar with crime combatting as policing function	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	41,67%	50,00%	0,00%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	14,29%	50,00%	21,43%	7,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	26,92%	50,00%	11,54%	7,69%	3,85%	100,00%
Familiar with crime investigation as policing function	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	16,67%	75,00%	0,00%	8,33%	0,000%	100,00%
Nyanga	7,14%	50,00%	28,57%	14,29%	0,000%	100,00%
Total	11,54%	61,54%	15,38%	11,54%	0,000%	100,00%
Familiar with primary crime prevention strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	33,33%	41,67%	16,67%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	7,14%	42,86%	42,86%	0,00%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	19,23%	42,31%	30,77%	3,85%	3,85%	100,00%
Familiar with secondary crime prevention strategies.	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	25,00%	58,33%	0,00%	16,67%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	14,29%	42,86%	35,71%	0,00%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	19,23%	50,00%	19,23%	7,69%	3,85%	100,00%

Table 7.6 Responses with regards to community policing

I understand the roles and functions of street committees	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	25,00%	58,33%	0,00%	8,33%	8,33%	100,00%
Nyanga	42,86%	42,86%	7,14%	0,00%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	34,62%	50,00%	3,85%	3,85%	7,69%	100,00%
I understand the roles and functions of the community safety forums	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	25,00%	50,00%	16,67%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	64,29%	14,29%	7,14%	7,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	46,15%	30,77%	11,54%	7,69%	3,85%	100,00%
I am familiar with the root causes of violent crime in our policing area.	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	33,33%	41,67%	16,67%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	42,86%	42,86%	7,14%	7,14%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	38,46%	42,31%	11,54%	7,69%	0,00%	100,00%
I am familiar with social crime prevention	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	41,67%	8,33%	16,67	8,33%	100,00%
Nyanga	7,14%	42,86%	7,14%	7,,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	30,77	42,31%	7,69%	11,54%	7,69%	100,00%

Table 7.7 Responses to organisational strategies

Our organisation has violent crime prevention programmes and projects (strategies)	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	27,27%	27,27%	36,36%	9,09%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	50,00%	21,43%	28,57%	0,00%	0,00%	100%
Total	40,00%	24,00%	32,00%	4,00%	0,00%	100%
Our organisation has a marketing strategy for the prevention of violent crime	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	27,27%	36,36%	18,18%	18,18%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	35,71%	35,71%	14,29%	14,29%	0,00%	100%
Total	32,00%	36,00%	16,00%	16,00%	0,00%	100%
Our strategies are communicated to all stakeholders	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	16,67%	50,00%	25,00%	8,33%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	50,00%	21,43%	21,43%	7,14%	0,00%	100%
Total	34,62%	34,62%	23,08%	7,69%	0,00%	100%
Our strategies promote community participation	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	25,00%	58,33%	8,33%	0,00%	8,33%	100%
Nyanga	35,71%	57,14%	7,14%	0,00%	0,00%	100%
Total	30,77%	57,69%	7,69%	0,00%	3,85%	100%
Our strategies focus on the root causes of violent crime	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	66,67%	8,33%	16,67%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	35,71%	28,57%	21,43%	0,00%	14,29%	100%
Total	23,08%	46,15%	15,38%	7,69%	7,69%	100%

Table 7.7 cont.

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	66,67%	8,33%	16,67%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	35,71%	28,57%	21,43%	0,00%	14,29%	100%
Total	23,08%	46,15%	15,38%	7,69%	7,69%	100%
Our organisation is collecting evidence to inform our strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	9,09%	7,58%	58,33%	25,00%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	28,57%	28,57%	21,43%	7,14%	14,29%	100%
Total	20,00%	20,00%	40,00%	12,00%	8,00%	100%
External stakeholders assist our organisation in collecting evidence for our strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	16,67%	33,33%	41,67%	8,33%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	14,29%	21,43%	42,86%	14,29%	7,14%	100%
Total	15,38%	26,92%	42,31%	11,54%	3,85%	100%
Our organisation has the necessary resources to implement our strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	5,31%	36,36%	8,33%	50,00%	0,00%	100%
Nyanga	7,58%	6,61%	35,71	50,00%	0,00%	100%
Total	6,57%	21,05%	23,08%	50,00%	0,00%	100%

Table 7.8 Responses to involvement in partnerships

Partnerships with the local government	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	50,00%	16,67%	16,67%	8,33%	100,00%
Nyanga	21,43%	35,71%	28,57%	7,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	15,38%	42,31%	23,08%	11,54%	7,69%	100,00%
Partnerships with the provincial government	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	50,00%	33,33%	16,67%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	28,57%	28,57%	28,57%	14,29%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	15,38%	38,46%	30,77%	15,38%	0,00%	100,00%
Partnerships with the national government	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	41,67%	41,67%	16,67%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	21,43%	42,86%	35,71%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	11,54%	42,31%	38,46%	7,69%	0,00%	100,00%
Partnerships with other public organisations	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	66,67%	33,33%	0,00%	0 0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	35,71%	50,00%	0,00%	14,29%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	19,23%	57,69%	15,38%	7,69%	0,00%	100,00%
Partnerships with the private sector	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	72,73%	27,27%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	53,85%	38,46%	0,00%	7,69%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	29,17%	54,17%	12,50%	4,17%	0,00%	100,00%

Table 7.9 Responses to the organisation's involvement in the policy process

Involvement in the problem identification stage of strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	16,67%	58,33%	8,33%	16,67%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	35,71%	42,86%	7,14%	7,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	26,92%	50,00%	7,69%	11,54%	3,85%	100,00%
Involvement in the planning stage of strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	50,00%	25,00%	16,67%	8,33%	100,00%
Nyanga	21,43%	50,00%	14,29%	7,14%	7,14%	100,00%
Total	11,54%	50,00%	19,23%	11,54%	7,69%	100,00%
Involvement in the implementation stage of strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	8,33%	58,33%	25,00%	8,33%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	15,38%	61,54%	7,69%	15,38%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	12,00%	60,00%	16,00%	12,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Involvement in the monitoring and evaluation of strategies	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
Mitchells Plain	0,00%	50,00%	50,00%	0,00%	0,00%	100,00%
Nyanga	23,08%	38,46%	23,08%	15,38%	0,00%	100,00%
Total	13,04%	43,48%	34,78%	8,70%	0,00%	100,00%

Appendix G: Transcripts of semi-structured interviews

Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3
Question 1 Are CPFs adequately empowered to address the root causes of violent crime?		
No.	*No, because it is not the responsibility of CPFs to perform crime prevention, there is no explicit mandate for CPFs to be involved in crime prevention. The only explicit function for CPFs in the Police Act is to promote problem identification and problem-solving for the SAPs and the community. That will allow them a facilitative role in the process. Their role is to compile safety plans based on public needs and public processes which must lead to certain interventions.*	*No, CPFs are not adequately empowered to deal with the root cause of violent crime. Their mandate in terms of the SAPS Act is limited to advise and monitoring. They have no decision-making power.*
Question 2 - If the answer to the abovementioned question is no, how can CPFs participate in the prevention of violent crime?		
The current situation is that CPFs are largely reactive and deal with the symptoms of crime. They need to understand what the root causes of violent crime in their respective areas are, to initiate actions, projects,	*Their role should be to draft strategic and safety plans, but they must be empowered to do that. Currently, there is no clear legislation or policy to guide with regards to who is supposed to empower and support CPFs. that responsibility is between SAPS*	*Their biggest contribution should be on social crime prevention initiatives based on crime trends and patterns in their communities.*

and programmes to ad-dress them	*and the DOCS with no clear role clarification.*	
Respondent 1	**Respondent 2**	**Respondent 3**
Question 3 - Are CPFs adequately trained to implement the projects and programmes for the prevention of violent crime?		
No, the majority of CPF members are ordinary members of their community who volunteer to serve in the CPF. Many of them have no formal training in project and programme management.	*No, they are not, because of the uncertainty with regards to their roles and the fact that there is no clarity with regards to who is responsible for CPFs.*	*No, they are not adequately trained, a half-day workshop is sometimes done with the CPFs and recently no training is provided.*
Question 4 - Are there enough stakeholders involved in supporting CPFs to participate in the prevention of violent crime?		
No, many of the CPFs complain of a lack of support and cooperation from their local SAPS management and personnel. In the Western Cape, the creation of Neighbourhood Watch structures, Area Based Teams, and the Law Enforcement deployment to crime areas have separated from any direct control/ relationship of the CPF through legislation such as the Western Cape Community Safety Act, 2013.	*There are supposed to be enough stakeholders as it is a requirement of the CPF constitution, they even got the power to co-opt stakeholders to assist them. The challenge is that there are too many parallel forums, like the Mayoral Urban Regeneration Programme (MURPS) of the City of Cape Town and the Ward Forums also duplicate the work of CPFs. Neighbourhood Watches also play a role in crime prevention and is not under the control of the CPF.*	*No there are not enough supporting stakeholders involved. CPFs are mostly reliant on their own members.*

Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3
Question 5 - How do the other policing functions like crime combatting and investigation get influenced by CPFs?		
The CPFs as a legal entity representing the community with the police and have a vital role to play in the fight against crime. They are from the community and are aware of what is going on in their communities. They must be engaged as partners in the fight against crime and can assist in building community trust and confidence in their local police.	*CPFs could influence these functions by including it in their safety plan, there is a misunderstanding of the role of CPFs.*	*CPFs could influence these functions by providing information of patterns of crime and crime activities in their areas*
Question 6 - What are the constraints for CPFs to implement violent prevention programmes and policies?		
There is firstly a lack of research and scientific data in communities regarding the root cause of violent crime in their specific areas. There must be tailor-made proactive and preventative programmes initiated at the local level with all the key role-players/stakeholders being involved. Secondly, there are no clear policies indicating the role and responsibilities	*There is a structural and a design problem with regards to how CPFs must operate, because of the ambiguity of policies and directives. There is no support in place for CPFs, and not only financial support but also support in terms of capacity to draft their safety plans, managerial skills to manage CPFs. Adding to the constraints is that CPFs are*	*The biggest constrain is the lack of support by SAPS management. In order to implement violent crime prevention CPFs need the buy-in and physical support from SAPS, which is very often lacking.*

of the CPFs in address-ing violent crime. Thirdly, the regulations for the CPFs are still in draft form and interim almost 27 years after democ-racy.	*perceived as politically aligned.*	
Respondent 1	**Respondent 2**	**Respondent 3**
Question 7 - Are CPFs involved in the identification, planning, implementation and mon-itoring and evaluation of these violent crime prevention programmes and projects?		
No, there are no policy directives relating to this matter. There are some best practices in the country which are initi-ated by individual CPFs. However, the effective-ness of such initiatives in relation to addressing and reducing violent crime has not been de-termined.	*Some CPFs are involved and need to credit for that, but the majority are not, once again there is no guidance for CPFs on how to perform the func-tions*	*No CPFs are seldom part of the planning and even execu-tion phase of crime preven-tion programmes.*
Question 8 - Do the CPFs got the resources to successfully perform violent prevention programmes and projects?		
No, the CPFs are left on their own to raise funds without proper support from the govern-ment, especially the SAPS. Issues like office accom-modation, tele-phones, petrol for	*No, they don't. Most of CPF members are volun-teers and don't have re-sources of their own. There is no clear policy on who is responsible for providing the CPFs with the necessary resources*	*No, CPFs are very poorly re-sourced, DOCS annually support CPFs for administra-tion purposes. SAPS have no funding or budget to assist CPFs. they don't even have office space to conduct their duties.*

	travel, transport, and allowance for official engagement are a challenge.		

Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3
Question 9 - Do CPFs receive any support from the different levels of government to perform violent prevention programmes and projects?		
No, there is no formal national programme or project that guides and directs The CPFs involvement, therefore there is no support.	*No, again because of the lack of a clear policy and directives in this regard*	*No, as explained in the previous question.*
Question 10 - What suggestion would you make to improve the involvement of CPFs in the prevention of violent crime?		
There should be a national formal induction, education, and training programme for all CPFs. There should be research commissioned in the highest violent crime areas in South Africa focusing on the root causes of such violent crime. There should be specific programmes and projects initiated thereafter, to address this violent crime through CPFs. There should be a	*Proper structuring of CPFs, the enhancement of their managerial abilities, providing them with the necessary resources, like competencies and skills.*	*when CPFs are elected, a full week training programme must be done with them by a credible service provider like a university. SAPS must take full responsibility for CPFs, and they must be provided with a budget* *CPFs must at least have two offices at every police station to work from where community members could engage them* *SAPS must resource the CPFs with stationery, transport, computers, printers, and telephones*

pilot study done on the impact of these projects and programmes to determine their effectiveness to ensure a sustainable reduction in violent crime, if effective, can then be rolled out throughout South Africa and internationally.		
Respondent 1	**Respondent 2**	**Respondent 3**
Question 11 - Any other comments on the topic?		
In order to achieve the objectives of the NDP 2030, and ensure professional policing, community policing must be adopted the philosophy of policing in South Africa. All police officers including management and key stakeholders in the fight against crime must be educated and trained formally on community policing. The CPF regulations must be finalised as soon as possible. The Civilian Secretariat in the Department of Police should take full responsibility for CPFs in South Africa to deal with the uncertainty of who is responsible for CPFs.	*It is important that CPFs are at the forefront to gather information and evidence to address violent crime and they needed to be supported in that. It is supposed to be a bottom-up approach in communities through CPFs leading the process and not be as it currently is a top-down approach by other stakeholders identifying their problems and issues for them. The CPFs need to be the leading agent in this regard. Their focus must be on the*	*Nothing.*

	root causes of violent crime.	

Respondent 4

1.   Does the Anti-gang strategy address the root causes of violent gang crime? **2.** *No, the root causes of gang violent crime are much deeper than the focus of the Anti-gang strategy, they are only dealing with the symptoms of the root causes of violent crime. Many of these crimes emanated from socio-economic circumstances and the gangs move into these poorer communities and form an alternative government and provide for that communities and make them dependent on the gangs and in the process got caught up in the web of gang leaders. As a result, the sons of those families join these gangs as payback and those families are expected to hide contraband and weapons for gangs. The anti-gang unit only focuses on crimes committed by these gangs and is reactive in that regard. The root causes of gang-related violent crime are not in the scope of the anti-gang. The root causes are societal problems and need societal solutions. The government at all levels must step in and not only the police as the root causes of violent crime are not in their scope.*
3.   Were the CPFs involved in identifying the priorities of the Anti-gang strategy?   *Not at all as indicated earlier on there is no indication whilst I was there. The policy that was finalised by the National Commissioner without CPFs be involved in identifying the priorities of the anti-gang strategy. The co-operation of the CPFs in this regard is lacking. Because specialised units were dissolved by the then national commissioner Jacky Selebi there*

was no provision made for CPFs to engage with specialised units.   There need to be education and re-direction of the role of CPFs with regard to specialised units. It could be a function of the provincial CPF board to engage with specialised units on a monthly basis.
4.   Are CPFs involved in any programmes and projects addressing gang violence? *No, not, as far as I know, they are not involved in any programmes and projects that are addressing gang violence.*
5.   Are CPFs empowered to participate in preventing violent gang crime?   *Once you talk about empowerment it is not only financial support but other resources such as the necessary education with regards to their responsibilities, how they formulate their plan as well as the execution of that plan in conjunction with the police. They should also direct the police in other words they should be critical of police action or the lack thereof. There is no clear guideline to what they are supposed to perform.*
6.   What constraints exist for CPFs to participate in preventing violent crime? *The lack of clear guidelines lacking in all regard to assisting CPFs to participate in the prevention of violence, in general, is a critical inhibiting factor in the prevention of violent crime.*
7.   Do the CPFs have the resources to prevent violent gang crime?   *No, they need to be resourced properly and mandated.*
8.   How can CPFs participate in projects and programmes to prevent gang violent crime?

There should be initiatives and there are some CPFs with best practices here and there, but there is no general policy to ensure their effectiveness. Coupled this with all the other recommendations already made. The police need also be sensitised about the role that CPFs could play in the prevention of violent crime. So that there is a clear understanding of the role and responsibilities.

9.   Is there any support from stakeholders for CPFs to prevent gang violent crime?

There is a policy in the council that councillors should get involved in CPFs. I am not in favour of that because CPFs would get politically infected, and one group would put forward a certain ideology. In terms of the Act, the CPFs should be represented by different organisations, so I assume that there is compliance with these provisions. Stakeholder involvement opens CPFs up to bullying from police management and also politicking by individuals.

10.   **What suggestions would you make to improve the involvement of CPFs in the prevention of violent gang crime?**

11.

The CPFs should get the necessary acknowledgement and the imbizos held by the minister is all about political speeches and people complaining and then going home and the situation still exists. They must be properly resourced; they must be a-political and are not bullied by the police and properly educated and have clear policies. The plans that are implemented should be regulated on a regular basis to ensure value for money and if the objectives were achieved.

12.   Any other comments on the topic of CPFs involvement in preventing violent crime?

I don't have any comment as to just see that communities through CPFs are involved in the prevention of violent crime and that is not even

debatable, it is critical and there cannot be police without a community and vice versa.

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