



MANAGING POLICY NETWORKS

A case study of KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association

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DECLARATION

I, Nokuthula Ellen Zuma, declare that this dissertation is my own independent work. All citations, references and borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Social Science (Policy and Development Studies) in the School of Social Sciences in the College of Humanities, University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg, South Africa. None of the present work has been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

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ABSTRACT

This research focuses on analysing the KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA), using theories on managing policy networks. In particular, the research looks at the KZNCCPA network management styles. KZNCCPA is a crime prevention network aimed at encouraging social networking and community engagement in the fight against crime. While an independent community crime prevention forum, the Association is located under the Provincial Department of Community Safety and Liaison (DCSL), which provides them with support, depending on the availability of material and financial resources. For effectiveness, KZNCCPA has formed alliances with many stakeholders and participant organisations – including the South African Police Services (SAPS) and Community Policing Forums (CPFs) - and formalised these in several memoranda of understanding (MoUs). This study therefore aims at analysing the management of this crime prevention process in KwaZulu-Natal. Using different network management theories to unpack the realities of managing within the KZNCCPA, the study investigated the management style, strategies of collaboration, advantages and challenges endemic at KZNCCPA. Based on the data collected through focus groups observation and document review, the researcher is convinced that different participants who are involved in the KZNCCPA have different views about the challenges of managing policy networks. It also was discovered, in the focus-group interviews, that members of the network do not have sufficient resources to execute their activities and plans. The study also discovered that in addition to many management styles similar to public networks, the KZNCCPA has unique strategies used by the Executive Committee (EC). These included the usage of command and control, instead of consensus, in keeping its member agencies in check. Its closeness to government also ensured that in as much as being part of the association is voluntary; many members were not exactly free to leave the Association for fear of disbandment and *de-legitimisation*. This reluctance to leave was also associated with advantages of being in the Association; resource-sharing, political clout, technical support from government, as well as recognition. The study concluded by acknowledging some challenges faced by KZNCCPA, and advocating for more information dissemination with regards to networks for crime prevention; given the seriousness of crime in South Africa, and KZN in particular.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CBO	-	Community-Based Organisation
CiDP	-	Community-in-Dialogue Programme
CPF	-	Community Policing Forum
CSFs	-	Community Safety Forums
DCSL	-	Department of Community Safety and Liaison
DSD	-	Department Social Development
ISCPS	-	Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy
JCPS	-	Justice, Crime Prevention and Security Cluster
JUG	-	Joint-Up Government
KZNCCPA	-	KwaZulu Natal Community Crime Prevention Association
MEC	-	Member of Executive Council
MoU	-	Memorandum of Understanding
NCPS	-	National Crime Prevention Strategy
NDP	-	National Development Plan 2030
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
PGDS	-	Provincial Development Growth Strategy 2030
PPPs	-	Public Private Participation
SAPS	-	South Africa Police Service
StatsSA	-	Statistics South Africa

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

There has recently been indication of governments from their traditional hierarchical bureaucracies in public administration to governance through networks (Agranoff 1999:34). While classified differently by different authors, policy networks are generally defined as ‘stable patterns of social relations between interdependent actors, which take shape around policy problems and or policy programmes’ (Kickert 1997:6) or ‘societal structures that permit interdependence of multiple organisations or parts thereof, where one unit is not merely the formal subordinate of the other in some larger hierarchical arrangement’ (Agranoff 1999:20). Whichever way they are conceptualised, policy networks are specific structural arrangements that represent new forms of political governance, reflecting a changed relationship between state and society. Moreover, they allow the collective addressing of policy problems, which involve complex political, economic and technical task and resource interdependencies, and therefore presuppose a significant amount of expertise and other specialized and dispersed policy resources (Bernard 1991: 41).

Policy networks consist of governmental and societal actors whose interactions with one another give rise to policies. They are actors linked through informal practices (as well as formal) institutions. The policy networks framework spell out clearly that no one can work in isolation, no single organisation (public or private) can work alone to address a given social problem. The issue of interdependence between organisations appears as a very important notion in the policy networks framework. Typically, most networks operate through interdependent relationships, with a view of trying to secure their individual goals by collaborating with each other (Bevir & Richards 2009:3).

A number of studies have been carried out on policy networks, including the study which was carried out in 2010 by Rigobert Tahboula which focussed on policy networks as a framework to analyse the implementation of the South African Land Reform (Labour Tenant) Act 3 of 1996 (LTA) and the Extension of Security of Tenure Act 62 of 1997 (ESTA), more generally. The research looked at the Association for Rural Advancement’s (AFRA) implementation of the Farm Dwellers’ project, and specifically asked how this organisation has been using the policy networks approach to implement its Farm Dwellers’ project. The research argued that

the seeming failure of the implementation of the South African land reform can be addressed through a more effective utilisation of policy networks. More particularly, the research unpacked how AFRA has been using policy networks to implement its Farm Dwellers project from 1994 until today (Tahboula, 2010).

Networks exist and develop because of mutual dependencies, and these are often tied to actors' core interests. Network research tends to emphasise the involvement of specific actors whose interests are closely tied to the character and nature of the interactions (Klijn 2005: 263). Mutual dependencies are one of the key aspects of inter-organisational theories. These emerge because actors do not, by themselves, possess enough resources for survival or for the achievement of goals. They thus have to interact with other organisations in order to exchange resources. However, the main focus of a policy network perspective is the complex policy processes which result from interdependencies of actors in realising policy initiatives (Klijn 2005: 263). Kickert (1997) indicates that 'in order to achieve goals in situations of mutual dependency, actors need to employ a versatile approach in their attempt to influence policy games; that is to incorporate the effects of their dependence on other actors into their own strategies and make use of opportunities for co-governance' (Kickert, 1997: 44).

Another study conducted by Mpanza (2004) (University of KwaZulu-Natal) looked at the merits of policy networks in policy-decision making, particularly in the Premier's Office, KwaZulu-Natal Province. The study also unpacked some challenges faced by policy networks. The study shows that in theory policy networks allow for participation and coordination between different stakeholders across different levels of government. In practice, however, the time available to members to meet is limited and the absence of key members at meetings (Mpanza, 2004).

The current study is in line with other analyses or surveys on policy network frameworks. However, the study is different to other policy network studies on the fact that it finds its expression in the composition, management and structure of the KZNCCPA network, which consists of different community based organisations in KwaZulu-Natal. The research focuses on analysing the management of KZNCCPA using theories of managing policy networks. In particular the research looks at the KZNCCPA network management styles. The perceived and actual benefits of the KZNCCPA for its members, the strategies employed to encourage member participation and collaboration in the KZNCCPA, are also examined.

The KZNCCPA is a crime prevention association made of 14 community based organisation of crime prevention. Many studies have appreciated community crime prevention in South Africa and elsewhere (Skogan, 1995; Pelser, 1999; Nxumalo, 2005; Nkwenyane, 2011). These have ranged from the evolution of police service delivery (Skogan, 1995), to the needs and nature of community engagement in crime prevention (Pelser, 1999; Nxumalo, 2005; Nkwenyane, 2011). While most studies have appreciated the shortcomings of a police force crime fighting paradigm, they have taken the need for community-policy partnerships is such ventures as a necessary move to crime prevention. In this new paradigm, the community and police force are regarded as two important actors that should participate for co-productivity in the areas of crime prevention and reduction (Nkwenyane 2011:15). The need to motivate and engage different cohorts of community members is highly appreciated in these studies, as well as the shift of organisation and management in crime prevention (Skogan, 1995; Nkwenyane, 2011).

Notwithstanding the importance of these studies in detailing the need and extent of the evolution in the fight against crime, they have a few shortcomings that make the orientation of the current study justified. The major shortcoming in most of the studies that deal with community policing or crime prevention is the assumption of the homogeneity of the community. While it is easy to look at two actors, the community and police interacting, the reality on the ground is different. In fact policy documents (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996; White Paper of Safety and Security, 1998; Integrated Social Prevention Strategy, 2011) refer to an array of non-state actors within the community to which the state (through South African Police Service) can engage with in crime prevention. As such, crime prevention in South Africa is not a partnership but a network of many actors, most of them loosely connected to each other.

Secondly, many studies unpack the dynamics, in management and relationship, between the community and the police for crime prevention purposes, with little focus on how the community actually organises itself to be in a position to partner with the police. As such, while the present study appreciate the interactions (or partnerships) SAPS has with different community crime prevention groups (CPFs and crime prevention associations), its main focus is on understanding how different groups within the community come together to manage their activities for crime prevention. Since these actors, while belonging to some grand coalition, still retain their organisational identity and integrity, hence the focus on network management.

The KZNCCPA typifies this arrangement. Thus the argument in this study is that KZNCCPA can demonstrate the dynamics of network management, while giving a new angle to studies in community policing.

1.2. Aim and objectives of the study

Using a policy network focus, the study will seek to explore, describe and analyse management practices of KZNCCPA.

In this regard, the following questions guide the study:

- i. What network management style/s are evident in the KZNCCPA?
- ii. What are the perceived and actual benefits of the KZNCCPA for its members?
- iii. What are the strategies employed to encourage member participation and collaboration in the KZNCCP?
- iv. What are the advantages of the KZNCCPA network?
- v. What are the disadvantages of the KZNCCPA network?
- vi. What lessons can be learnt from the KZNCCPA?

1.3. Rationale of the study

The broad research problem of the study takes its root from the growing public concern about crime in the country. KwaZulu-Natal has the second highest level of crime in the country after Gauteng. KwaZulu-Natal is also one of the three provinces that constitute more than 60% of crime in South Africa. The Annual Business Confidence Index report 2012/13, raised the issue of the high rate of crime as a factor that undermines the business and investor confidence in South Africa at large. As such, the government and business have taken measures to cooperate in the fight against crime, as one of the five government priorities highlighted in the National Development Plan 2030 (NDP, 2011).

Personal safety is a human right. It is a necessary condition for human development, improved quality of life and enhanced productivity. When communities do not feel safe and live in fear, the country's economic development and the people's wellbeing are affected; hindering their ability to achieve their potential (NDP 2011: 368). The KwaZulu-Natal Provincial

Development Growth Strategy (PGDS) 2030 states that criminality in all ranks of life is pervasive: household and community safety and security is increasingly occurring, street crime and white-collar crime in commercial and public sector is acknowledged as a problem. Stock theft within the Province, the country and across borders, is placing a potentially vibrant economic sector under threat. KwaZulu-Natal, accounting for 183 of the 1 100 police stations countrywide (second highest allocation after the Eastern Cape with 194), is a safety and security hot spot.

Featuring murder, attempted murder, rape, burglary, abductions and farm murders, KwaZulu-Natal records the second highest farm attacks after Gauteng (StatSA, 2010). While the national average of farm attacks involving murder is 10.5%, in KwaZulu-Natal it is 14.4% and 33.9% of such attacks include serious injury (PGDS 2012: 52).

Broadly, the investor and the business communities are increasingly participating in crime prevention policy networks in KwaZulu-Natal; such as Justice Crime and Security Prevention Cluster and the business initiatives such as Business Against Crime. If these and similar networks are to contribute to the solution it is important to examine their functioning as a network. This will allow a better insight into networks and network management generally, and in crime-prevention networks specifically.

Since 1994, the rate of crime in South Africa has been concern of all administrations – from Mandela to Zuma. However, dealing with crime has since moved from the security sector (Department of Justice; Department of Safety and Security (now Ministry of Police), to social and economic development sectors (Rauch, 1999). This is because the understanding of crime has shifted from being an intentional security breach to being the side-effects of defective socio-economic development. As such, the rhetoric of fighting crime was substituted by socio-economic strategies of crime prevention (Rauch 1999: 1); hence the institution of the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS). The latter was tasked with addressing the social and developmental factors thought to facilitate crime, while the former would deliver a more high profile and effective police response to increasing levels of public fear of crime (NCPS, 1996).

The NCPS represented a new paradigm for dealing with crime in South Africa, which emphasised on participatory hinged on co-operative governance and several private-public partnerships (PPPs). This was in cognition of the limitations of law enforcement and criminal

justice alone (NCPS 1996:9). This study is therefore in line with this comprehensive conceptualisation of crime, and hence assessing the effectiveness of crime prevention partnerships in the form of KZNCCPA.

1.4. Research methodology

This research used both secondary and primary data sources. The study broadly followed a qualitative methodology, in sampling, data collection, data analysis and presentation of the results.

1.4.1 Sampling strategy and Sample Size

Of the three methods detailed above, focus groups require a formal sampling plan. Membership of the KZNCCPA (N=42) includes eleven non-governmental and community organisations. At least one focus group was held with participation limited to 15. Purposive sampling was used to draw representatives from as many of the organisations as possible.

1.4.2 Data Collection

Data collection for this study involved document review, focus groups and observation. Important and relevant government and non-government documents were also reviewed. Literature review of academic books on policy networks and crime prevention were also conducted to provide the context of the study, and to inform the design of the data collection research instruments and analysis. The advantage of document review is that it provides the building blocks for the theoretical framework, while indicating the areas of shortcomings in the literature; it also provides detailed organisational accounts (in the case of reports or documents).

One focus group was conducted with the members of the Crime Prevention Policy Networks in KwaZulu-Natal. Focus groups help to source expert and participant information and knowledge on the subject matter under study. They allow for the mediated collective construction of knowledge, and thus are congruent with the type of questions the study is attempting to resolve.

The KZNCCPA meetings were attended by the researcher to get first-hand exposure to the management of networks and procedures. These observations enabled the researcher to provide first-hand accounts of often unrecorded proceedings of policy networks.

1.5. Structure of the dissertation

This dissertation is organised in the following manner:

Chapter 1, as an introduction, gives a background to the study, literature review, and details the research questions. This chapter aims to give direction and focus to the study, by anchoring the research within particular specified objectives and trajectory.

Chapter 2 - the analytical framework - presents the theory behind policy networks in general, and policy networks management in particular. This is done through a review of literature on the origins and nature of policy networks, characteristics of policy networks, as well as the management dynamics of policy networks.

Chapter 3 discusses the research methods used in this study. This discussion comprises the research design, research methodology and ethical considerations.

Chapter 4 discusses the context, history and operations of KZNCCPA. A brief history on the development of crime prevention in South Africa and KwaZulu-Natal, specifically, is discussed; leading to the conceptualisation of KZNCCPA. This section looks at the origins of KZNCCPA, its membership, and its particular relationship with Department of Community Safety and Liaison. Lastly, the benefits and challenges of the KZNCCPA Network are also discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents a coherent analysis of the findings to resolve the research questions, and conclude the study. The analysis is focused on answering the research questions on the management dynamics of KZNCCPA.

Chapter 6 presents concluding remarks and recommendations, in which major findings of this study are sifted out and foregrounded alongside the recommendations.

CHAPTER 2: ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

This chapter seeks to identify and examine theories of policy networks management, as a framework for the analysis of the dynamics of the KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA). Since theories of policy networks are a subset of the broader field of public management, this section will therefore locate policy networks within relevant theories of public policy and management. However, the emphasis and bias will still be put on the dynamics of managing policy networks. While public policies have been subject of multifarious studies, the strategies of managing policy networks, especially in African countries remain understudied. This chapter will therefore locate the analysis of policy networks, and their management strategies, within the broader public policy analysis context.

2.2. Public policy

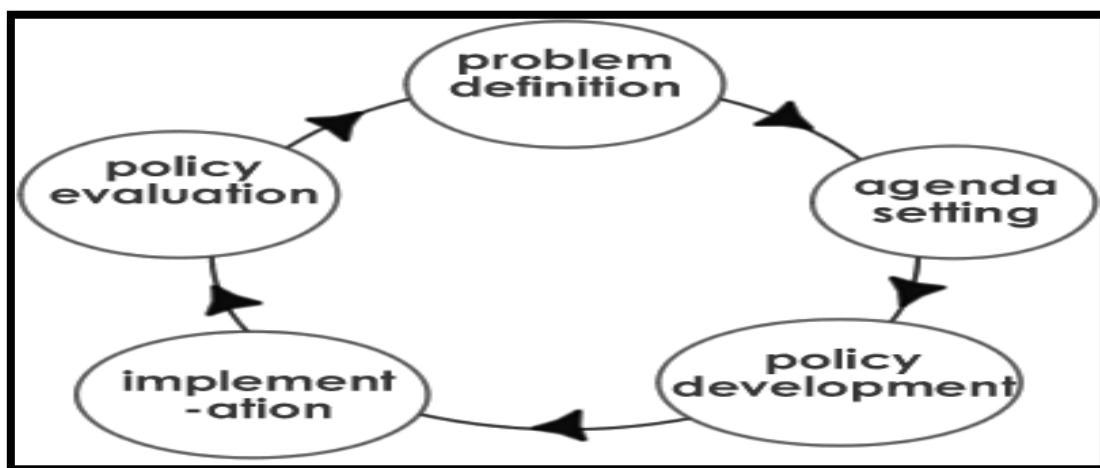
According to Colebatch (2002: 49), policy is the “pursuit of goals”. It is a formal statement by decision makers, often political and in leadership, to solve a specific problem (Colebatch, 2002: 110). In government the commonly used term is public policy. As such, public policy indicates a cause of action adopted and pursued by government. It serves as a guide or principles to guide decision and accomplish outcomes. They guide and spell out how service delivery should be implemented as a procedure. Hence regarded as ‘authoritative statements on what government chooses to do or not to do ... in the authoritative allocation of values for a given society’ (Anderson, 1997:15). In government, this development is commonly motivated by legislative prescripts, such as the constitution and other Acts of Parliament, which compel an organisation to act in a particular manner. Public policies articulate the intentions of government with a purpose of achieving a specific goal (Government-Wide Monitoring and Evaluation System, 2007: 28).

According to Colebatch (2002), public policy can be broken down into six important policy stages namely; policy problem identification; setting agenda; policy alternative and solutions; decision making on most feasible alternative; implementing that alternative and evaluating the policy (Colebatch, 2002: 50). The following section looks at these stages in some detail.

2.2.1 The policy cycle

Public policy is manifested as a ‘cycle’ or stage of policy process, which ‘is represented by a sequence of stagesbeginning with thought, moving through action and ending with the solution’ (Colebatch 2002:49). The first step is identifying a policy issue, or problem, as such. Then, through different levels of engagement, the issue is identified as a policy demand and then inserted in the agenda of the government decision making body. The policy community then ‘determines the goals’ they wish to achieve by solving the problem. After choosing a course of action the decision is couched in different statutes in the policy statement, and gets approved into policy. The approved policy awaits implementation at different levels by administrators and organisations. The evaluation and possible amendment of the policy, completes the cycle (Colebatch 2002:49-51 & Lindblom 1980:3). A simplified diagram of this is shown in figure 2.1 below.

Figure 2.1: Policy Cycle model



Source: W. Jann and K. Wegrich (2007: 43)

I. Problem definition

For public officials to direct their efforts towards a situation through public policy, that situation must be recognised as a problem (Colebatch, 2002). However, it seems not every troublesome social situation is appreciated as a problem worth of government action. Therefore, the first stage in the policy cycle deals with problem definition (or identification) – the dynamics surrounding the interpretation of a particular social condition as deserving of government attention – as a social problem (Harris, 2013:3). Many scholars argue that this process is hardly objective; it is highly political (Scheider & Ingram, 2005; Jann & Wegrich,

2007; Harris, 2013). Harris (2013:3) contends that for social conditions to be recognised as public policy problems it takes the interpretation of them as problems; otherwise ‘social problems are mere ambiguous situations that can be viewed in different ways by different people’.

This social constructed-ness of social problems is reiterated by Jann and Wegrich (2007:45) who argue that, ‘problem recognition itself requires that a social problem be defined as such’ by different influential actors. These influential actors include the media, experts and politically significant local and international groups. Scheider and Ingram (2005) views problem definition stage of the policy cycle as the public determination of ‘deservedness’ of attention of particular social conditions. It is, therefore, after the determination that a particular social condition deserves government attention that it is placed in the official list to be dealt with.

II. Agenda setting

After the policy problem has been given official acknowledgment, agenda setting is the following process. Numerous potential policy issues occur in a society, but not all make it on the policy-making agenda. Agenda setting is the process of narrowing problems with the intention of becoming the focus of attention (Kingdon 1995: 3). This means that some issues are deliberated by the government as more crucial than others (Kingdon, 1995). In this regard, Kingdon (1995:3) defines policy agenda as ‘the list of subjects to which government officials, and those associated with them, pay some serious attention at any given time’. Within the government there are two distinguishable agendas; the government agenda and the decision agenda. The former contains all the subjects brought to the government’s attention, while the latter deals only with the subjects the government is currently working on (Kingdon 1995:4). A problem reaches the attention of public officials through various indicators, focusing events, crises, disasters, symbols, feedback and personal experiences (Kingdon, 1995: 4).

III. Policy development

After the problem has been identified, the policy agenda has been set, a decision made, policies must be formulated to address the problems. This takes the involvement of various relevant department or institutions, which are required to tailor the policy towards realistic contexts. This is referred to as policy adoption. According to (Weimer & Vining 2005:261);

'the adoption phase begins with the formulation of a policy proposal and ends, if ever, with its formal acceptance as a law, regulation, administrative directive, or other decision made according to the rules of the relevant political arena. The implementation phase begins with the adoption of the policy and continues as long as the policy remains in effect.'

The adoption phase precedes the implementation in the sense that policy statutes are approved during the adoption phase, these however, still have to be effected during the implementation stage, in which different set of actors 'move the adopted policy from a general statement of intent to a specific set of desired impacts' (Weimer & Vining 2005:262).

In the adoption phase therefore, there are different strategies and factors that the actors take into account to determine the success of a certain policy. The whole area of concern, deals with the determination of political feasibility; 'whether citizens, or more pertinently, voters, will accept the policy once it has been adopted' (2005:263). Basing their discussions from the work of Arnold Meltsner, Weimer and Vining (2005), provide a checklist to help analysts predict the political feasibility of a certain policy adoption and to find ways in which they can influence this factor for the purposes of adoption.

IV. Implementation

Once a decision has been expressed in statutory or other official form, the next stage is policy implementation (Anderson, 1997: 214). Different national and provincial government departments (the bureaucracy) carry out, or implement, policy. Implementation includes adopting rules and regulations, providing services and products, creation of blueprints (Anderson, 1997). According to Weimer and Vining (2005:275) the failure or success of implementation can be affected by; the logic of the policy, the nature of co-operation it requires and the availability of skilful and committed people to manage its implementation' (2005:275). These factors usually work within two broad models of policy implementation: top-down and the bottom-up model.

Dealing with the implementation phase, Parsons (1995:465) warns against the separation of policy formulation and implementation as counter-productive since the separation of the two ignores the 'interplay and interaction between politicians, administrators and service providers' (Parsons 1995:462). This type of analysis also tended to consign power and control to the

decision-makers at the public arena, and look at implementers as an apolitical bureaucracy, religiously fulfilling the objectives of their employers. In as much as this was the traditional point of view in policy analysis, its critique formed a different model and together these have been standing traditions in the analysis of implementation.

According to Parsons (1995:463) ‘this model was the first in the [implementation] scene’, incepted by the research done by Martha Derthick (1972) and Pressman and Wildavsky (1973). According to these scholars, implementation is and ought to move from the decision-makers, those who make the policy statements, as a direct command to the implementers at different levels of administrative positions. In this sense implementation ‘is the process of interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieve them.....an ability to “forge links” in a causal chain so as to put policy into effect’ (Parsons 1995:464). Therefore, in essence implementation is about;

‘getting people to do what they are told and keeping control over a sequence of stages in a system ; and about the development of a program of control which minimises conflict and deviation from the goals set by the initial policy hypothesis’(Parsons 1995:466).

However, those who dispute the top-down model, argue that this is not descriptive of the implementation reality, and it is impracticable as a normative approach. Matland (1995) argues that the top-down model fails to capture the whole reality because unlike their assumption, the local actors in the implementation processes are not just impediments to be manipulated, directed and controlled. These are politically viable and administrative experts who are involved as much in the problem definition of a policy as in the implementation or non-implementation of it. So to consider the statute framers as the exclusive actors in the process is not accurate (Matland 1995:148). Again to predicate the success of implementation phase on the clarity of objectives, goals and means, is utopian, since ‘passage of legislation of requires ambiguous language and contradictory goals to hold together a passing coalition’ (Matland 1995:147-148).

Many other studies have also realised the folly of the top-down implementation approach, due to their studies of street-level bureaucracy. Lipsky (1980:3) defines street-level bureaucrats as ‘front-desk’ public servants with direct contact with the people who are to be served while wielding ‘substantial discretion in the execution of their work.’ These include the police,

teachers, social workers, and other such front-line public servants. Accordingly these public servants are an essential asset to society. Lipsky (1980) contends that, it is through these workers that the public gets in touch with the government and public policy. As such, street-level bureaucrats account for a large position of public spending, in the course of dispatching public services.

Street-level bureaucrats, in need of clear implementation guidelines, will implement the policy as they interpret it. Lipsky (1980:15) has argued that because public servants deal with human beings flexibility and sensitivity is necessary in determining the form and extent of service needed. As professionals in their own right, many street-level bureaucrats have relative autonomy from their organisations, and have incentive to be, given the fact that they deal with the 'clients' and have firsthand experience. As such, 'the routines they establish, and the devices they invent to cope with uncertainties and work pressures, effectively *become* the public policy they carry out' (Lipsky 1980:xiii).

Discussing the implementation theory, Hill and Hupe (2002) contended that the time was up for the traditional dialectics between top-down/bottom-up arguments, as they explored the possibility of synthesising both into a comprehensive implementation description. As part of that synthesis they quote Fritz Scharpf in his pioneering network analysis work, in an essay on inter-organisational policy studies. Scharpf (1978) cited in Hill and Hupe (2002:59), contend that;

'it is unlikely, if not impossible, that public policy of any significance could result from the choice process of any single unified actor. Policy formulation and policy implementation are inevitably the result of interactions among a plurality of separate actors with separate interests, goals and strategies.'

This has been viewed as a paradigm-shift statement, on which many theoretical, methodological and normative studies on public administration and management have been predicated.

Karmarck (2007) also indicated that each mode of government implementation that has appeared in the past two decades has been an attempt to correct the problems and dilemmas associated with traditional bureaucracy, poor performance, deficit of flexibility, and paucity of innovation. Frequently, these new forms of implementation have been applied to policy problems without fully thinking through the forms strengths and weaknesses and whether or

not they are right to the policy problem at hand. Kamarck in his book titled *Making Public Policy Work* mentioned three new implementation tools in government namely: Reinvented Government, Government by Network and Government by Market.

The range of organisations that can constitute government by network is huge, including churches, universities and non-profit organisations, all of which are called upon to perform the work traditionally reserved for the government. When a state chooses to create a network it is because its leaders want things to happen that would not occur to the same extent without the resources and directions of the state. Networks can be composed of other government organisations such as local governments and states or they can be made of non-governmental organisations (Kamarck, 2007: 16-17).

V. Policy Evaluation

The last stage is policy evaluation. In most public policies, evaluation assessment are done at different stages of the policy cycle with intentions of either measuring the rate at which outcomes are reached from specified objectives or to determine the feasibility of instituting a particular policy (Cloete 2000:212). Parsons (1995) and Cloete (2000) call these two aspects of evaluation; formative and summative evaluations.

Despite many and varied definitions and descriptions of policy evaluation and assessment (concepts which are usually used interchangeably), Cloete (2000:211) conceptualises this as ‘a judging process to compare explicit and implicit policy objectives with real or projected outcomes or results or impacts.’ Such a process tends towards establishing a quantifiable link between policy outcomes and policy objectives and to assess the policy outcomes in terms of the impact created on the affected environment. Parsons gives the definition of evaluation that Dye proffers. In this, policy evaluation “is learning about the consequences of public policy (Parsons 1995:545). However, for Parsons, in order to learn sufficiently about the consequences of any policy, the evaluation research is paramount to the process of evaluations, and quoting Dye, he contends that;

Policy evaluation research is the objective, systematic, empirical examination of the effects ongoing policies and public programmes have on their targets in terms of the goals they are meant to achieve (Parsons 1995:545).

Policy evaluation research therefore situates evaluation within the policy cycle and also distinguishes it from other processes in the cycle. For one, 'it is judgemental in character' (Parsons 1995:545). However, since this study is about policy networks management, the evaluation phase will not be extensively dealt with.

2.3. Understanding policy networks

2.3.1 Historical emergence of policy networks

Discussing the implementation theory, Hill and Hupe (2002) contended that the time was up for the traditional dialectics between top-down/bottom-up arguments, as they explored the possibility of synthesising both into a comprehensive implementation description. As part of that synthesis they quote Fritz Scharpf in his pioneering network analysis work, in an essay on inter-organisational policy studies. Scharpf (1978) cited in Hill and Hupe (2002:59), contend that:

'It is unlikely, if not impossible, that public policy of any significance could result from the choice process of any single unified actor. Policy formulation and policy implementation are inevitably the result of interactions among a plurality of separate actors with separate interests, goals and strategies.'

This has been viewed as a paradigm-shift statement, on which many theoretical, methodological and normative studies on public administration and management have been predicated.

Most authors on the concept of 'policy networks', 'networks' 'network management' or 'network analysis' offer disparate accounts on the origins of networks in public administration and management. Some argue from a descriptive angle; that public administration has always been done in collaboration, with regards to either policy formulation or implementation, albeit being taken for granted in practice and theory (Klijn, 2005). They argue that the public sector has always had a group of privileged non-state actors connected to the government and influential in the policy processes (Rhodes 2006:427). Agranoff and McGuire (1999:21) observe that the rise of information technology has inevitably created this inter-organisational dependency which broke down the walls surrounding traditional hierarchies. This fragmentation of knowledge and technology creates networks as 'a signature form of organising in the information age' (ibid).

On the other hand, some argue that the interest and focus on networks has been a prescriptive part of public sector reform (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2001). They contend that the anti-government sentiments have advocated for other non-state actors to participate in public service, in collaboration with the public sector. Those who argue from the prescriptive side argue that multi-actor or cross-sectoral activities are consistent with democratic and good governance; as such they create responsive, accountable and efficient governance (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff 2001:171). From this perspective, and in line with the developments that create complexity, it seems plausible to supplant the traditional hierarchical organisational structures in favour of fluid networks.

However, regardless of whether they subscribe to the descriptive or the normative aspect, or both, most authors acknowledge that the prevalence of networks was witnessed between the 1980s and 1990s. There are some who argue that the concept of networks predates this period and that it can be traced in the 1960s literature (Klijn, 2005), but agree that its prominence in social sciences in general and in public administration literature note recently. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:167) argue that it was during this period (1980 -1990) that this public management revolution was witnessed; 'redirecting the role of the state away from rowing' - to 'steering', which combines policy guidance, regulation and contracting for services.' As such, the state's role was transmogrified into collaboration and co-ordination; working in cooperation with other non-state actors in public administration and service provision.

In addition to the prominence put on governance, Klijn (2005) adds the rise of a network society, characterised by specialisation, information technology and individualism, as societal changes that gave rise to the network concept in the 1980s. As such, he argues that the resultant complexity creates situations that can only be resolved through horizontal alliances: networks. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:168) assert that, ultimately, the rationale behind network is the synergistic effects generated by the collaborative efforts, leading to better aggregated outcome as compared to those possible were each network participant to work independently. Networks, therefore, have the advantage of pooling efforts and resources in service of common objectives. As a result, government is shifting from the operation of hierarchical bureaucracies to governance through networks of public and non-public organisations (Agranoff, 1999:34).

Many scholars have argued that there has been a historical evolution of the role of government in planning and implementing policies to resolve social problems through policy networking or policy networks. Many public policy analysts such as Agranoff and McGuire (1999: 34) have argued that the desire to resolve societal problems is one major aspect that has attracted a shift in government from operating in hierarchical bureaucracies to governance through policy networks and non-public organisations. Furthermore, Agranoff (1997) believes that a network perspective differs in a number of ways from conventional views on governance and public management. He describes governance as directed influence of social processes.

The idea of policy networks is the result of an on-going debate on governance and reaction to other approaches (Kickert, 1997: 3). Networks have emerged because of the interdependent orientation in public and private organisations. “An increasing number of organisations can no longer be structured like medieval kingdoms; walled off and protected from hostile forces” (Agranoff 1999: 20). Kickert (1997) further argues that understanding the operation of policy networking entails clarifying the meaning of governance on the one hand and public management on the other (Kickert, 1997: 2). Acknowledging interdependencies opens doors for understanding forces that would affect policy making and management. Incorporating the actors that constitute these interdependences into the policy process constitutes networking, especially noting that their interests are sometimes contradictory. In this regard, policy networks seem to bring them together for the purpose of reaching policy success through mutual agreements and understanding through managing their complex interactions (Kickert, 1997: 6).

Networks exist and develop because of mutual dependencies and these are often tied to actors’ core interests. Network research tends to emphasise the involvement of specific actors whose interests are closely tied to the character and nature of their interactions (Klijn, 2005: 263). In this regard, mutual dependencies are one of the key aspects of inter-organisational theories. They emerge because actors do not, by themselves, possess enough resources for survival or for the achievement of goals. Organisations thus have to interact with other organisations in order to exchange resources. However, the main focus of a policy network perspective is the complex policy processes which result from interdependencies of actors in realising policy initiatives (Klijn, 2005: 263). In order to achieve goals in situations of mutual dependency, “actors need to employ a versatile approach in their attempt to influence policy games; that is

to incorporate the effects of their dependence on other actors into their own strategies and make use of opportunities for co-governance” (Kickert, 1997: 44).

2.3.2 Conceptualising networks

Rhodes (2006:) observes that in as much as many authors in social sciences and public administration acknowledge the salience of networks, there is no consensus as to what networks in general or policy networks in particular, are. However, for the sake of deliberations most authors come up with stipulative definitions and descriptions to serve their epistemic tasks. Rhodes (2006) contends that most of these descriptions focus on the link and dependence that the public sector has with and on other social actors. Following the rationale behind the emergence of networks above, it is often argued that either due to lack of state capacity or the complexity of social problems, it has become unfeasible for the state alone to deliberate on, and administer public services. As such, the state creates these links with other actors to enhance its capacity in the performance of public service.

Rhodes (2001:426) observes that there are many such links forged by the state, but he prefers to call them policy networks:

Sets of formal institutional and informal linkages between the governmental and other actors structured around shared, if not endlessly negotiated, beliefs and interests in public policy making and implementation.

This reveals the contingency (ad hoc), informal and formal characterisations of networks, as acknowledged by many scholars. The other aspect revealed is the interest in a part of the policy process. Different networks are forged for different reasons in the public sector. Some are contingently created for policy advocacy, some formally instituted for policy formulation, while others informally organised for policy implementation and service delivery. As such, the constitution of networks differs with each policy sector. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:168) describes policy networks as state-civil-society networks –

The cross-sectoral collaborations whose purpose is to achieve convergent objectives through the combined efforts of both sets of actors, but where the respective roles and responsibilities of the actors involved remain distinct.

On the other hand, Kickert (1997:30) defines policy networks in terms of resource dependencies and actor interdependency. Agronoff (1999) on the other hand, while acknowledging

interdependence as a defining quality of policy networks, also acknowledge the need for actor independency. As such, networks are a collation of equals not an aggregate of subordinates.

From the above definitions, one notes that policy networks mean a lot of different things to different people, yet there are some commonalities in these definitions. Firstly, all networks seem to be conceived as *specific structural arrangements* in policy-making and represent new forms of political governance, reflecting a changed relationship between state and society. Secondly, all networks allow the *collective addressing of policy problems which involve complex political, economic and technical task and resource interdependencies*, and therefore presuppose a significant amount of expertise and other specialized and dispersed policy resources (Bernard 1991: 41). This study will use Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff's (2001) conception of policy networks, since they offer a fuller understanding of networks as cross-sectorial and formed for the purposes of solving complex convergent objectives.

Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001) argue that networks become a sort of 'marriage of convenience', with the partners retaining their distinctiveness. What brings the network participant together is the common objective or interest which is a *raison d'être* of their formation. O'Toole (1997 cited in Agranoff & McGuire 1999:20), contends that networks should ultimately be seen as;

Social structures of interdependence involving multiple organisations or parts thereof, where one unit is not merely the formal subordinate of the others in a large hierarchical arrangement...

This brings the issue of power and control in a network: If there is no hierarchy that implies that there is no-one in charge in a traditional sense. Agranoff and McGuire (1999) actually contend that to have each manager exerting overarching control is not possible in a network, each organisation maintains its authority and identity; management is a collaborated activity. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:170) assert that 'in principle, networks are about non-hierarchical use of power and knowledge.'

Complex though they seem, the success of networks rests on what authors call enabling variables in each situation or policy sector. Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001) identify four variables that influence the success of networks: the regime type, levels of trust, legislative framework and, the nature of the policy in question. A democratic regime is generally acknowledged as enabling for network formation and success than a nondemocratic regime.

However, Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff (2001:178) contends that this does not entail that chances of network success in other regimes are non-existent or that 'networking' has to be preceded by democratisation. They argue that, in fact successful networking can be an impetus for democratisation, by demonstrating the possibility and advantages of collaborative processes. On the other hand, authoritarianism seems to negatively impact on networks by arresting other variables (trust, legislative frameworks and policies).

Trust is recognised as a powerful intervening variable in network success (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2001). Because top-down management through coercion, is eliminated, trust comes in to ensure that each participant does their part in a network. A culture of suspicion impedes network success. In most contexts, there seem to be animosity between the state and civil society, and this impedes network development or success. The laws, policies and rules in a certain context will either enable or constrain network success. This point can relate to the regime type above. Lastly, the policy in question determines who is attracted or repelled to the network. In most developing or transitioning countries, redistributive policies tend to be highly political hence network success can be constrained (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2001).

2.3.3 Classification of policy networks

Through the cross-analysis and categorisation of data, Agranoff (2007) was able to come up with a framework that led to the identification of four policy network types: informational, developmental, outreach and action. This typology is mainly based on the main activity and decision-making framework of each network, without assuming that the network is not engaged in other activities as well. As such, informational networks share policy, programme and any other information relevant to the cause of partner agencies. Developmental networks, in addition to sharing information, help member agencies build their capacities of knowledge management and action. Out-reach networks take yet another step further by building blueprint inter-agency strategies. Action networks can be viewed as the most comprehensive, since in addition to activities performed by the three network types, they make policy/program adjustments in member agencies, and get involved in a number of other joint activities (Agranoff 2007:44).

Informational networks have the main activity of pooling together information from member agencies and research, in a bid to learn more about the problems and objectives of each agency

and the best practices in solving their problems and attaining their objectives. They neither are involved in policy or program adjustments, nor are they in any way engaged with issues of public policy and service delivery in any direct way (Agranoff 2007:51).

Developmental networks, on the other hand use the collaboratively gathered information, to build capabilities of member agencies, in terms of their knowledge management, implementation, management capacities (Agranoff 2007:63). They still do not engage in the action jointly and directly, but give necessary information to each member agencies to engage in agency empowerment and reform, individually. These are either done through workshops, roundtable discussions, conferences and seminars, to try and equip component agencies with the potential of solving home problems (Agranoff 2007:64).

Outreach networks, armed with relevant information, jointly pool different resources and assist member agencies with blueprint strategies to reform their organisations and follow new programmes and policies in achieving their objectives. ‘They do not make collective decisions, but collectively point to potential courses of action’ (Agranoff 2007:81). As such Agranoff argues that they fall short of fulfilling the traditional literature mandate of networks.

The fourth and final identified type is action network. These networks adjust strategies, policies and programmes of member agencies and collaboratively engage in funding and provision of public services and related actions. These, just like the outreach networks, cross agency lines in their decisions and activities (Agranoff 2007:81).

However, whether this typology forms an exhaustive list of public management networks or is just a figment of the research methodology utilised is a debatable issue, and definitely an objective for further research in the area. What is certain though is the clarity with which it orders the world of networks and their activities: hence a great heuristic in public management and network analysis.

2.3.4 Characteristics of policy networks

According to (Klijn, 2005: 262) networks are characterized by stability of relationships, continuity of highly restrictive membership, vertical interdependence based on shared service delivery, responsibility and insulation from other networks and invariability from the general

public. They also have a high degree of vertical interdependence and limited horizontal articulation.

Kickert (1997) discussed three main characteristics of the policy networks namely: dependency, variety of actors and goals, and relations. Firstly networks develop and exist because of the interdependency between actors. Inter-organisation theory stresses the fact that actors are dependent on each other because they need each other's resources to realize their goals. Interdependencies cause interactions between actors, which create and sustain relational patterns. In addition he points out that the term interdependency implies that there is something to be gained by the actors involved (Kickert, 1997: 31). Secondly, policy networks consist of a wide variety of actors, who, while having individual goals and strategies, they rely on each other for resource and capacity to achieve them. This is due to the fact that there is no single actor who has enough power to determine the strategic actions of the other actors. There is no central actor and there are no prior given goals of one central actor which can be used as a method of measuring effective policy. In inter-organisational studies this characteristic of a network is seen as important.

The third characteristic of policy networks according to Kickert (1997:32) is actor interdependencies. The interactions of different agency actors within a network create a form institutionalization - rules which regulate their behaviour and resource divisions that influence their strategic options. Policy networks stress the fact that more or less lasting relation patterns between actors develop which influence the interaction patterns taking place within networks (Kickert, 1997).

From the inductive research done, Agranoff (2007) argues that he discovered characteristics within networks that are either confirmed by deductive assumptions and traditional literature on networks, or those characteristics normally overlooked or normally associated with bureaucracies. However, networks are seen to be having distinctive characteristics that sets them apart from other organisational structures.

Firstly, networks are based on *collaborative* deliberations of participant agencies. Agranoff (2007:84) contends that even though collaboration is a characteristic that has been adopted by many organisational structures, including Weberian bureaucracies, it still remains a key

characteristic of networks because of the procedural difference. As much as these conductive, bureaucratic, organisations have reformed their organisational cultures, straddled divisional lines and organisational boundaries, the clearly defined lines of authority still stops them short from networks. Networks on the other hand, have collaboration as their *sine qua non* –operative signature. They cannot do other way, but collaborate, negotiate and rely on consensus, for making their decisions.

Secondly, issues of power and authority. In as much as other networks have some sort of legally based operating authority, some do not have the same statutory enablement, but rely on inter-organisational agreement as their operating authority. On the aspect of power, networks have been characterised as *politically neutral* establishments in which “co-equal, interdependent and patterned relationship” is the order of the day. Agranoff (2007:92), like many others who have done empirical study on networks, acknowledge the existence of power differentials and dynamics within network activities. These revolve around the network champion, staff, experts and political officials. The champion is a dedicated person who assumes the leadership role with a network. In addition the network power relies on a person of political influence or position. The role of expertise as a power base needs no explanation, even in networks. Agranoff (2007:95) contends that depending on cases, a particular staff can also be agents on network power.

Thirdly, there is the aspect of *communication* and promotion. Agranoff (2007:101) argues that because networks have no hierarchical channels and official structures, their communication and promotional activities tend to rely on electronic and print media. Some have websites that help promote them and form a public opinion of their activities. Networks, rarely communicate on face-face basis, but in few occasions that they do, they rely on conferences, workshops and network meetings, otherwise email messaging is the prime means of interaction.

Lastly, Agranoff (2007:119) reiterates the importance of *trust* as the aspect that holds the network together in the absence of traditional methods of coordination and control. Trust in a network is developed through the familiarity of the participants; those who have worked together for a long period tend to trust each other’s capabilities and dependability. As such, this familiarity engenders respect and reliability among participants, which facilitates cohesion in a network.

2.3.5 Inter-organisational networks

Networks exist and develop because of mutual dependencies and these are often tied to actors' core interest (Klijin, 2005:263). According to Scharpf (1978), public governance research should, therefore, be directed towards interactions between organisations and the strategic interactions that form policy and implementation strategies. In governments, intensive interactions can be found at a national level, where actors are strongly focused on policy making process and local level where implementation of sector policy is also at stake (Klijin , 2005:262- 263).

Chisholm (1998) indicates that inter-organisational networks have four key features. Firstly, inter-organisational networks operate largely as abstract conceptual systems that enable members to perceive and understand large scale problems in new ways. Developing shared understanding makes it possible for members to create ways of organising to deal with these complex problems. Secondly, networks differ from mere inter-organisational relationships. Networks improve the ability of organisations to deal with ill-defined, complex problems or issues that individual members cannot handle alone. Furthermore, network activity is oriented in the shared vision, purpose, and goals that bind members together. Thirdly, loose-coupling of members is another feature of these systems. Members of the network represent diverse organisations that are physically dispersed and voluntarily meet from time to time to conduct activities required to carry out higher level system purpose (Chisholm, 1998). Network also rest on a horizontal rather than hierarchical organising principle, meaning that one organisation or member does not have a superior-subordinate relationship with another. Lastly, network organisations are self-regulating. Members are not a centralised source of power, are responsible for developing a vision, mission, and goals and for initiating and managing work activities. Members share their understanding of issues and devise ways to relate to each other in carrying out the work necessary to bring about a shared vision of the future (Chisholm, 1998: 6).

Nevertheless, network and inter-organisational perspective have generated several criticisms; such as lack of theoretical foundation and clear concepts, "lack of clear evaluation criteria, neglect of the role of power, lack of explanatory power and normative objections against networks and the role of public actors in the theory" (Klijin, 2005:275).

2.4. Management of policy networks

Network management aims at initiating and facilitating interaction process between actors, creating and changing network arrangement for better coordination. It is a form of steering aimed at promoting joint problem solving or policy development. It should be distinguished from usual strategies which actors, including public organisations, implement within policy games. In order to achieve goals in situations of mutual dependency, actors need to employ a versatile approach in their attempts to influence policy games, that is, to incorporate the effects of their dependencies on other actors into their own strategies and to see and make use of opportunities of co-governance (Kickert et al, 1997: 11, 32).

As discussed above, policy networks are inter-organisational or cross-sectoral linkages created in view of achieving a common objective. As such, policy networks bring together distinct organisations and marshal their resources and energy towards that common goal. Through this synergistic effort results, that could otherwise never have been possible to individual organisations, are achieved. However, as can be imagined, the achievement of this common objective requires effective management of these disparate resources and efforts. In line with this, some authors argue that managing policy networks is distinct from the traditional command and control management of hierarchies (Agranoff, 2007:26).

Kettl (1996) cited in Agranoff and McGuire (1999:19) contends that, actually, managing networks is not an 'add-on' to the daily routine of public managers, rather it is an essential part of public management. He argues that 'the core task is to build critical linkages while simultaneously managing the internal functions of their agencies.' By this, Kettl alludes to the ubiquity of networks in public service. He contends that because networks are a part of public or private sector, therefore their management is as integral to it as the so-called traditional public management. However, if it is acknowledged that networks are a pool of distinct agencies with distinct objectives and disparate resources, then their management cannot be sufficiently based on the classical management approach of planning, organising and leading. According to Agranoff and McGuire (1999:21), while the network has to be coordinated and facilitated, command and control is not appropriate, since 'rarely is authority granted to a manager across the network': each organisation keeps its authority and management is a collaborative effort.

However, a public manager has the duty to develop and maintain a network. In other words the manager has to be on the lookout for potential network participants and create a conducive environment in which the existing networks can be retained. The public manager therefore has to be aware of the political and legal framework within which the network operates. The effective public manager has to have the ability of ‘engendering a purposeful interaction with other organisations or agencies’ by effectively marketing his/her objectives and goals (Agranoff & McGuire 1999:29). Network management may also involve transdisciplinary practice, in which public managers familiarises themselves with the activities of other network participants, or prospective participants, so as to strategically forge a collaboration.

Agranoff and McGuire (2001) argue that, in as much as public management has always included managing the external activities of the organisation; network management is a distinct form of management that can be analysed in comparison with the traditional organisational management. They contend that it includes, activation, framing, mobilizing and synthesising. Activation is done at the nascent stages of the network in which managers lobby prospective participants, create conducive environments for the network sustainability. Framing is remodelling the perception of the organisation, changing rules, norms and behaviours to blend in with the new network objectives. Mobilising therefore involves a marketing strategy, in which potential participants are lured into a network. After the identification of participants, public managers have the task of ensuring productive engagement among the participants – this is referred to as synthesising (Agranoff & McGuire 2001:15).

With these distinctive management activities peculiar to networks, Klijn (2005) argues that the role of a public manager is distinct from standard public management. One such difference is the issue of power in network management. In as much as a network can be regarded ‘non-hierarchical use of power and knowledge’ (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff 2001:170), it can be seen that in practice, power differentials exist in networks. It is the duty of the network manager to manage these power differentials, by making sure that the less powerful are not trampled over by the resourceful, hence powerful individuals do not always get their way, at the detriment of the network objective (Agranoff 1999:23).

Network management is an activity which takes place at the meta-level; it involves steering efforts aimed at promoting these cooperatives strategies within policy games in networks. It may also be seen as promoting the mutual adjustment of the behaviour of actors with diverse

objectives and ambitions with regard to tackling problems within a given framework of inter-organisational relationships (Kickert et al, 1997: 44). Network management is aimed at stimulating coordination. It should be distinguished from central coordination which is associated with *polyarchy* and hierarchy; on the other hand, it also differs from mutual adjustment, in so far as that concerns adjustment without interaction (Kickert et al, 1997: 44).

Cooperation is a central concept in network management. It denotes the idea of joint action, doing things together instead of doing them alone. Cooperation among actors in networks calls on them “to exchange their go-alone strategies for contingent or cooperative strategies”. In essence, actors in a network recognise that cooperation is to their advantage (Kickert and Koppenjan 1997:41).

Agranoff, (1999) indicate that there are four dimensions to be considered if policy networks are to be properly managed. These dimensions include technical dimension, legal dimension, political dimension and cost dimension.

- *Technical dimension*: principles or methods employed in strategic planning which include sub-tasks such as needs assessments, financing a building or industrial site, determining the work training components of a few business, meeting constructed standards and dealing with the water treatment requirement become a technical basis of inter-organisational exchange (Agranoff , 1999: 26).
- *Political dimension*: Policy-making in a local economic development is based heavily in the political dimension of networking and often emerges from interdependence of governmental and nongovernmental forces (Stoker and Mossberger, 1994 cited in Agranoff, 1999:27). In addition, Agranoff (1999) argues that public managers not only engage in politics within their own organisations, but also strike political bargains with network members.
- *Legal dimensions*: Agranoff (1999) argues that there are respective laws governing each entity that affect the ability of any single organisation acts. Therefore, control of network operations may be achieved through the use of government regulations that constrain actions of member units (Thompson, 1967 cited in Agranoff and McGuire, 1999:27).
- *Cost dimension*: Through Agronaff’s research he observes that cost is a very important dimension of networking, and states that operating in networks demands considerable time and effort (Agranoff, 1999: 26-28).

In addition, network management provides a way for actors to cooperate, without solutions being forcibly imposed or cooperation becoming redundant as a result of decentralization or privatization. It is a form of steering aimed at promoting joint problem-solving or policy development (Kickert, 1997:43). Effective networking involves a jurisdiction, time and a commitment to networking, with key officials understanding that external contracts, commitments and resources are important for the governance of a network and managing flexible structures towards collective efficiency (Agranoff, 1999:24-26).

Managing governance through networks leads to an expanded set of linkages that connect government to other public agencies, private firms, NGOs, community associations and so on. Effective network management is the result of harmonizing and integrating the actions of the network partners so as to achieve the network's shared objectives (Mandell, 2001: 168 - 169).

Another important factor is the management of perceptions in policy networks. It is often stated that conflicts of interest between interdependent actors is the main reason why policy processes can give rise to chaotic and lengthy debates and bottlenecks with the result that urgent societal problems remain unsolved (Kickert, 1997: 79). Actors have their own definition of the world that surrounds them, which consists of their definition of the problem, their image of other actors in the network, the nature of their dependency upon others and vice versa, and the advantages or disadvantages emanating from working together (Kickert, 1997: 80). Kickert further indicates that, in order to solve social problems in policy networks, joint effort is needed shared perception of the problem and the strategies to resolve it must be developed (Kickert, 1997: 79-80). The management of perceptions is about creating a minimum consensus in order to facilitate collective decision making and joint action. Managing perceptions is aimed at discovering win-win situations (Kickert, 1997:86).

Agranoff (2007:83) asserts that public networks are 'organised to facilitate collaborative decisions needed from knowledge-era workers.' As such, he terms them 'collaborarchies'. In general management in networks tend to rely on collaboration, consensus-building and trust, at the absence of command and control. Even though Agranoff (2007:85) makes the observation that recently, most organisations tend to be collaborative and cross organisational boundaries in search for information and other resources, he still contends that networks have collaboration as their main management style. He argues that even though there is no different POSDCORB peculiar to networks; the planning, coordination and budgeting done within

networks is done collaboratively. Even though voting happens, consensus undercuts every decision-making action in networks (Agranoff 2007).

In essence, an argument is made that collaboration undercuts network management activity be it knowledge management, of blueprinting strategies. However, Agranoff (2007:235) contends that network managers work within a complex situation of overlapping network connections, they do not just work within a single network, but a web of networks. As such, the management and activities become more complicated, and cannot be helped by simplistic academic typologies. Each network may have its own management dynamics.

2.4.1. Strategies for network management

In order for a network to be successful, attempts to initiate and support the game or interaction process should take institutional factors into account, which is the independencies between actors, their relationships, the rules that guide their interactions. Kickert (1997) identified two forms of network management namely: game management, which is managing interactions within networks, and; network structuring, which is building or changing institutional arrangements that made up the network (Kickert, 1997: 47).

Network structuring is very critical in the policy networks in the sense that if it proves impossible to solve problems within the existing network, one might consider modifying the network. However, Scharpf (1978) argues that reorganisations are expensive and time-consuming, whereas Ostrom (1990) argues that within existing networks there are forms of self-regulation which are based, among other things, on knowledge of local circumstances and shared rules and perceptions. Attempts to alter arrangements or introduce new ones may result in the destruction of the network (Ostrom, 1990:18). In the formal policy network, an actor may be designated as lead organisation that is network manager, not only relations but also rules may be influenced via the formal policy, the guidelines which regulate among other things, interaction and participation (Kickert, 1997: 53).

Network management rarely directs itself to organisations as a whole. Interactions take place between representatives of cooperate organisations, whose representatives and commitment power is not always guaranteed (Kickert, 1997: 58). Kicket (1997) indicates that in network management it is important not only to create consensus between the representatives of

organisations regarding a joint course of action, but also to establish support for these ideas within the organisation. Representatives in the network must be willing to take risks during negotiations by accepting new ideas and being prepared to speak out for them to their organisations. In this regard success of the network management largely depends on the quality of the leadership and the commitments power possessed by the representatives of the organisations (Kickert, 1997: 58).

In addition to the leadership and commitment of power in policy networks, attention should also be drawn to the quality of network management as a precondition. Skill is also an important factor, the ability to correctly assess who should be involved in interaction process and which information should be given to them. Therefore, a network manager must be able to operate in a complex domain and needs to be able to distinguish between diverse targets groups and to make use of various methods of approach at the same time (Kickert, 1997: 58). Leadership of government by network requires the leader to understand causality and constantly evaluate the parts of the network to see how they are contributing to the goal of the network as a whole, and why. Kamarck (2007) indicated that one of the chief advantages of government by network is that it allows for enormous innovations in a way even reinvented government could never do. Therefore the public manager in government by network needs to be skilled in the evaluation of many different kinds of programmes, in this regard the manager in government by network must be able to set performance goals for the overall undertaking (Kamark, 2007: 35).

Agranoff (1999) indicates that the ability to tap into the skills, knowledge and resources of others is a critical strategy of network management. The public manager needs to identify and include in the network needed expertise and resources to move a project forward. Public managers need to know who has resources, money, technology, information, expertise, time and necessary commodities (Agranoff, 1999:28). It would be hardly possible for a network manager to be an expert in every issue that happens to require their attention, a certain amount of expertise is nevertheless indispensable, they will need to possess the necessary tactical and strategic knowledge about the actors involved and their habits and the shared perceptions and game rules which affects the behaviour of actors within the network (Kickert, 1997: 57).

2.4.2. Constraints in managing networks

There are constraints in managing policy networks. According to Hajer (2003, cited in Rhodes 2005: 175), the existence of polycentric network of governance indicates that the task facing actors such as politicians, managers and citizens, is to manage the institutional void or to make and implement policy when there are not generally accepted rules and norms for conducting policy making. Rhodes (2005) asserts that managing policy networks come with four major challenges namely: managing the fix, diffuse accountability, enhancing coordination, and devising new tools.

One major challenge of policy networking is managing its complexities. Rhodes (2005) asserts that in policy networks, where every service is a mixture of bureaucracy and markets, networks managers need to understand when and how these governing structures for allocating resources work. They also need to understand the meaning of effective service delivery, because the criteria for effectiveness vary. The point is that analysts or managers face the challenge of knowing how to manage each governing structure and the relationship between them. Therefore, trust should become an important aspect in networking. Kickert (1997) also indicated that complexity of policy networks finds expression in among other things, the multiformity of the actors who are part of them. Whereas central government implies a generic approach to target groups, network management signifies a more differentiated approach to actors within the network. Attempts to influence the behaviour of actors are tailored to the specific features of actors' fine tuning (Kickert et al, 1997:55).

Another challenge in managing policy networks is the conventional notion of accountability that does not fit in when the authority service delivery is dispersed among various agencies. Some policy analysts refer to this complex notion of responsibility as a problem of "many hands" (Boven, 1998 cited in Rhodes, 2005:229). Rhodes (2005) indicates that although a constituent organisation in a network may hold relevant officials and politicians to account, it is not clear to whom the set of organisations is accountable.

Apart from weakened accountability, the spread of policy networks also undermines coordination. Although strong vertical linkages between social groups and public organisations makes effective coordination, horizontal linkages within government are made more complicated because once the agreement is reached in policy networks the latitude of

negotiations by public organisations at the top of the policy networks is limited (Chrisholm, 1989 cited in Rhodes, 2005:195).

Moreover, Kickert (1997) also raised numerous challenges that face policy networks. Firstly, the more actors involved in the interaction process, the more difficult it becomes to reach agreement (Kickert et al. 1997:53). Kickert et al. (1997) also indicated that in circumstances in which interests are different or even clash, reaching agreement may be rendered impossible by a lack of alternatives and by conflict. Such a statement is however based on a structuralism orientation. It assumes that interests are fixed, where in reality some actors may be willing to negotiate and reconsider their particular interest (Kickert et al. 1997:56). However, Ostrom cited in Kickert et al. concludes that even in situations involving many actors, they are nevertheless able to achieve cooperation if they regard reaching an agreement or decision of utmost importance (Kickert et al. 1997:54).

Another problem that is experienced by networks is that of leadership. If all actors are truly equal, it becomes difficult to have one particular leader to coordinate the workings of the network. The results of network management are determined by the capacity of actors to demonstrate leadership in their interactions with others while representing their own organization or constituency and in addition by succeeding in getting their organization to keep to the agreed decision reached in the network. The success of network management largely depends on the quality of the leadership and the commitment influenced by the representative of the organizations involved (Kickert et al. 1997:56).

Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001) argue that networks in developing countries have various additional challenging factors: lack of state capacity; failure of government-led development (communism/socialism); democratisation. These factors made it inevitable for these countries to adopt networks. The composition of network in these parts of the world is marred with a lot of NGOs, international agencies, and civil society organisations. This constitution creates several challenges of network development and success. Firstly, these different groups have different agendas and seem to have irreconcilable perceptions of the problem and goals and objectives. Secondly, the power differentials between the international agencies and national government agencies create a constraining environment to network development. Thirdly, lack of the culture and tradition of trust between the NGOs and government creates an impediment to networks.

It is noted that the development of networks in developing and transitioning countries is rarely a government initiative (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff, 2001). As such, many externally initiated networks are resisted by public institutions that are too protective of their power bases and suspicious of the international agencies and civil-society organisations. This situation makes it hard for enhancing participation, decentralisation and incentives; factors deemed to be integral in the management of interdependencies (Brinkerhoff & Brinkerhoff 2001: 170).

In developing and transition countries, the tradition of participation, from both the supply and demand sides, is weak leading to difficulties in activation of actors and resources for networks Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001). These countries have a tradition of centralisation and authoritarianism, hence a power-neutral or non-hierarchical arrangement is somewhat foreign, a thing yet to be institutionalised. This attitude creates serious impediments to network development and success; and even those networks that are created through external intervention face serious institutional challenges. In addition, Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:172) contend that the characteristics of network managers are usually not found in these contexts due to the incapacity of the state and civil-society.

It can be argued from the above discussion that for networks to bring that synergy envisaged in public service there is need for these challenges to be addressed in the developing and transitioning countries. One key aspect of addressing these challenges is through capacity-building in both the state and society. An attitudinal shift is also envisaged, in that the government has to initiate and own the networks, and shun from viewing non-state actors as competition for meagre international donations. In the same vein, the success of networks in these countries is contingent on the strategic disengagement of international organisation in a bid to empower the local actors.

2.5. Conclusion

Management in many networks is still defined by the terms of the old tradition bureaucracy, that is, audit contracts periodically and making sure that no one is spending money on things it should not be spent on, however due to the voluntary nature of networks, one would expect that in most of the management processes collaboration and trust takes precedence.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the analytical framework underwriting the study- network management. This chapter deliberates on the research methods used to gather and analyse the data of this study. The deliberation will include looking at the appropriateness of the research design, sampling, data collection, method of analysis, as well as the ethical considerations encountered in the course of the research.

3.2. Research design

Notwithstanding the semblance of triangulation, this study was qualitative in nature, governed by an interpretive paradigm. The interpretive paradigm assumes that reality and meaning is constructed through inter-subjective social interactions (Angen 2000:378). As such, it presupposes a research methodology that allows for adequate interactions between the researcher and the participants, preferably in their natural context (Angen 2000:380). Of the two methods – quantitative and qualitative – the latter meets the requirements of an interpretive paradigm, as it is flexible enough to allow an intensive interaction between researcher and participants. According to Polit and Beck (2012:487), the qualitative design merges together various data collection strategies and is capable of adjusting to information during data collection. The other strength of qualitative research is its ability to unpack intangible aspects of a research phenomenon in order to provide complex descriptions of people's experiences and perceptions (Bernard & Ryan, 2010).

Despite the fact that the researcher found KZNCCPA interesting as an example of public service network, the dynamics of crime prevention and partnerships in South Africa includes various factors. One of the strengths of a qualitative research is that it allows flexibility in its approach. However, it incurs the weakness of biasness due to its subjectivity (Anderson, 2003). A qualitative approach to research was also employed because of its ability to facilitate in-depth interpretation and understanding of the perceptions of the research participants regarding their role in the network, and its management strategies.

The current study – an exploratory – requires a methodology that allows the exploration of a wide range of variables within the subject focus. The interpretive paradigm and its qualitative

method offer that. This design will enable the researcher gain access into the internal dynamics of network management at KZNCCPA, without objectifying both the association and its members. At the same time, in case the participants have little concept of network theories, the approach allows the researcher to unpack them without the fear of loss of objectivism. The researcher hoped to tap into this merit through focus groups, observation and document review, when investigating the management dynamics of KZNCCPA.

This is an intrinsic case study design, which enabled the researcher to merge empirical data with records in order to gain insight into the management dynamics of KZNCCPA. According to Fidel (1984:274), case study as a research method brings together many data collection methods (triangulation), in a bid to capture the complexity of a single case.

As a research method, case study seem appropriate for investigating phenomena when (1) a large variety of factors and relationships are included, (2) no basic laws exist to determine which factors and relationships are important, and (3) when the factors and relationships can be directly observed (ibid).

Give the stated strengths of case study approach; the present study aims to benefit from its emphasis on in-depth investigation of a particular case – in this case, KZNCCPA – through triangulation of methods. Using an interpretive paradigm, qualitative design and case study strategy, this study aims to sufficiently explore, describe and analyse the management practices of KZNCCPA.

3.4.1 Sampling strategy and Sample Size

Sampling is a process by which a portion of the participants are selected from the population (Polit and Beck 2012: 742) to form the sample of the study. Purposive sampling was used to draw representatives from as many of the organisations as possible. Purposive sampling is selecting a sample ‘on the basis of your own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of your research aims’ (Babbie & Mouton 2001:97). This was coupled with intensity sampling to include information rich informants. This sampling was suited for the case study as the researcher wanted a variety of informants to enrich the study and to capture core experiences such as those of people with different view-points on the studied topic. Of the three methods of data collection used, focus groups require a formal sampling plan. Membership of the KZNCCPA (N=42) includes 14 non-governmental and community organisations.

Only one focus group was held with participation limited to 15 people, from various member organisations of KZNCCPA. The focus group took two hours and gave the research most of the materials the participants knew about the functioning of their network. It also gave the researcher time to explain network theory and approach to the participants. After the focus group, with 15 participants from 14 member agencies of KZNCCPA, the researcher concluded that the information was sufficient to answer the research objectives; given the fact that observation and document review would complement the findings.

3.4.2 Inclusion Criteria

The participants who were included in the study were those who agreed to sign informed consent forms (see Appendix A). All the subjects who had consented to participate in the study were assessed prior to entry into the study to determine the base line data of their duration with KZNCCPA and of their knowledge of the network.

3.4.3 Exclusion Criteria

Members of other crime prevention organisations like the Community Police Forum and Community Safety Forums were not included.

3.5 Data collection

The study collected both primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected through focus group interviews and observations, while secondary data was collected through document review. According to Bond et al. (1995:35) the focus group interview is ‘a technique involving the use of in-depth group interviews in which participants are selected because they are a purposive, although not necessarily representative, sampling of a specific population, this group being ‘focused’ on a given topic’. A tape recorder was used to record focus group discussions to ensure that the exact responses given by the study participants are captured. The researcher, however, also took notes of the proceedings.

3.5.1 Focus group schedule

One focus group was conducted and recorded with the 15 members of the KZNCCPA (these are coded as P1 – P15 in the analysis section). Focus groups help to source expert and participant information and knowledge on the subject matter under study. For the focus group discussions the researcher was guided by a set of predetermined questions in a semi-structured schedule (refer to Appendix B). Bell (1997) recommends the use of interview schedules

because as much as participants should be allowed to talk freely about issues, there is need for some structure in the discussions so as to ensure that all relevant topics are covered and this also reduces problems of bias. The researcher developed the interview schedule after an extensive review of the literature and was also helped by the expertise of her supervisor.

The discussion took place at the Durban City Hall. This setting was comfortable, however, and participants were comfortable that their views would not be heard by people who would take what they said out of context. The seating arrangements allowed the researcher to have eye contact with all the participants. The discussion lasted for about 1 hour 30 minutes. The first 30 minutes constituted of introductions, brief background of the study, and formulation of ground rules of the focus group, how the discussion was going to unfold. The researcher then explained that the discussions were going to be recorded, the participants were also told that the study was voluntary and they could stop participating at any stage that they felt they did not want to be part of the study.

3.5.2 Document Review

Document review was also used to gather relevant information about the network. Documents produced by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison (DCSL) gave an overview of the KwaZulu-Natal Community Prevention Network, as well as other crime prevention strategies in KwaZulu Natal. These included the KZNCCPA Constitution (2012) and the Memorandum of Understanding between DCSL and KZNCCPA (2012). Important and relevant government and non-government documents were also reviewed. These included the National Crime Prevention Strategy of South Africa (NCPS) of 1996, White Paper on Security and Safety (1998), as well as the Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (ISCPS) (2011) from the Department of Social Development (DSD). Several National Crime Statistics Reports and Analysis from the South African Police Services (SAPS) from 2010 to 2014 were also reviewed. Literature review of academic books on policy networks and crime prevention was also conducted to provide the context of the study, and to inform the design of the data collection instruments and analysis.

3.5.3 Observation

Furthermore, several network meetings of KZNCCPA were attended by the researcher to get first-hand exposure to the management of networks and procedures. These observations allowed the researcher to immerse herself in the context and provide first-hand accounts of

often unrecorded proceedings. The observation was based on an observation guide, constructed through review of literature and assessing the research objective, and in recognition of what had already been collected through the former two methods.

3.6 Data Analysis

A thematic analysis was used in analysing data for this study. According to Bischof et al. (2011:88), thematic analysis ‘provides a flexible and useful tool to identify and organize key themes from qualitative data’. This analytical framework enabled perceptions of the participants to be grouped into themes. Data sets from both focus groups and observations were analysed using this format. The focus group interviews were be transcribed and coded into themes. This was done as several readings of the transcripts, in which the researcher immersed herself into the responses, until patterns in data were noted, coded and sorted into themes, with which the researcher used to answer the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

3.7 Academic Rigour

The key value of qualitative research rests in the authenticity and trustworthiness of its findings (Lincoln and Gaba, as cited in Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Trustworthiness depends on how a researcher is able to persuade him/herself and the readers of the worthiness of his/her study findings. Several steps were taken to ensure trustworthiness in this study.

3.7.1 Credibility and Dependability

Credibility and dependability were achieved by remaining in the field until data saturation was achieved (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). The researcher reached data saturation after the first 40 minutes of the focus group discussion, in which participants were no longer bringing any new information to the discussion. Credibility questions if there is a link between constructed realities of the participants and those that are attributed to them (Creswell, 1997). Different techniques were used to be able to elaborate, justify and account for the conclusions in the study. Firstly, there was persistent observation, whereby the researcher constantly pursued interpretations in different ways. Credibility and dependability were also achieved by persistent observation of the data – that is, interpretation of the transcripts in different ways – and by confirming interpretation of responses given during the interviews (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). Secondly, by triangulation - this is when the researcher used data collected through the three methods to see whether there was any agreement. Lastly, by peer debriefing - whereby

the researcher reviewed the data with a colleague, who had sufficient knowledge on the network and its functions, but is not a member of KZNCCPA.

3.7.2 Confirmability

Confirmability is the extent to which study findings are not a result of the researcher's biases (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). This was achieved by reviewing the recorded focus groups transcripts consistently and making sure that transcript recorded what participants intended to say, and that quotations in the report are as they appear in the transcript. Furthermore, field notes and personal expectations were compared to the final themes and findings. Credibility was also achieved as a colleague reviewed the raw data in comparison to the final findings.

3.8 Ethical considerations

Willing (2008) notes that in qualitative research ethical issues come into play from the beginning of the research, throughout interaction with the participants and continue until the dissemination of the findings. There are many ethical issues in qualitative research because "the human interaction in qualitative inquiries affects researcher and participants, and the knowledge produced through qualitative research affects our understanding of human condition." (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2005:263). Permission to conduct the study was gained from the KZNCCPA Executive Committee, while the research proposal was also accessed and judged as ethical by the University of KwaZulu-Natal Research Ethics Committee before data collection commenced (refer to Appendix C and D).

3.8.1 Autonomy and Informed Consent

The principle of autonomy requires participants to have autonomy of thought, intention and action when making decisions regarding research. In this study the decision-making process was free from coercion. To ensure this, the researcher explained the purpose and nature of the research to prospective participants before asking them to sign the informed consent form, which also guaranteed the voluntariness of their participation. As further protection, participants were asked to provide minimal personal demographic information. All information collected will remain confidential and identification protected during and after the study.

3.8.2. Justice

The principle of justice requires participants to be treated fairly and equally in all stages of the research. Fair selection was acquired through the use of asking people who met the inclusion criteria of the study. Since the study is mainly focused on a particular crime prevention network, the KZNCCPA, relevant members of the network were selected and other's contributions were also included from observation notes. Even though, participants held different positions in KZNCCPA, with some coming from the Executive Committee while others were mere members of participant organisations, during the course of the study all participants were treated equally. The researcher did not use any deception in recruiting and even in the course of the study.

3.9 Conclusion

The methodology is one of the aspects distinguishing one study from another, and it may as well be the difference between one study's findings and the next. This chapter presented the research methodology used in this study. The chapter covered the research design, sampling, data collection, data analysis, research rigour and ethical issues considered during the process of this study.

CHAPTER 4: KWAZULU NATAL COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION ASSOCIATION

4.1. Introduction

Crime prevention has been a major priority in post-apartheid South Africa. Unfortunately, notwithstanding many strategies of crime prevention, the numbers of crime victims keep increasing. The chapter looks at the management strategies of crime prevention networks in KwaZulu-Natal. In order to set the KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA) in context, the chapter will commence with an overview of crime prevention in South Africa, in order to understand the advocacy of partnerships and collaboration in crime prevention, which gave birth to KZNCCPA. This overview will also help one appreciate the need and relevance of crime prevention partnerships/networks like KZNCCPA. However, since the success of any strategy depends of its implementation, the final section will look at how KZNCCPA operates. The previous chapter focused on understanding management in policy networks. The present chapter seeks to apply the understanding of the above theoretical framework within the KZNCCPA.

4.2 Crime Prevention in South Africa

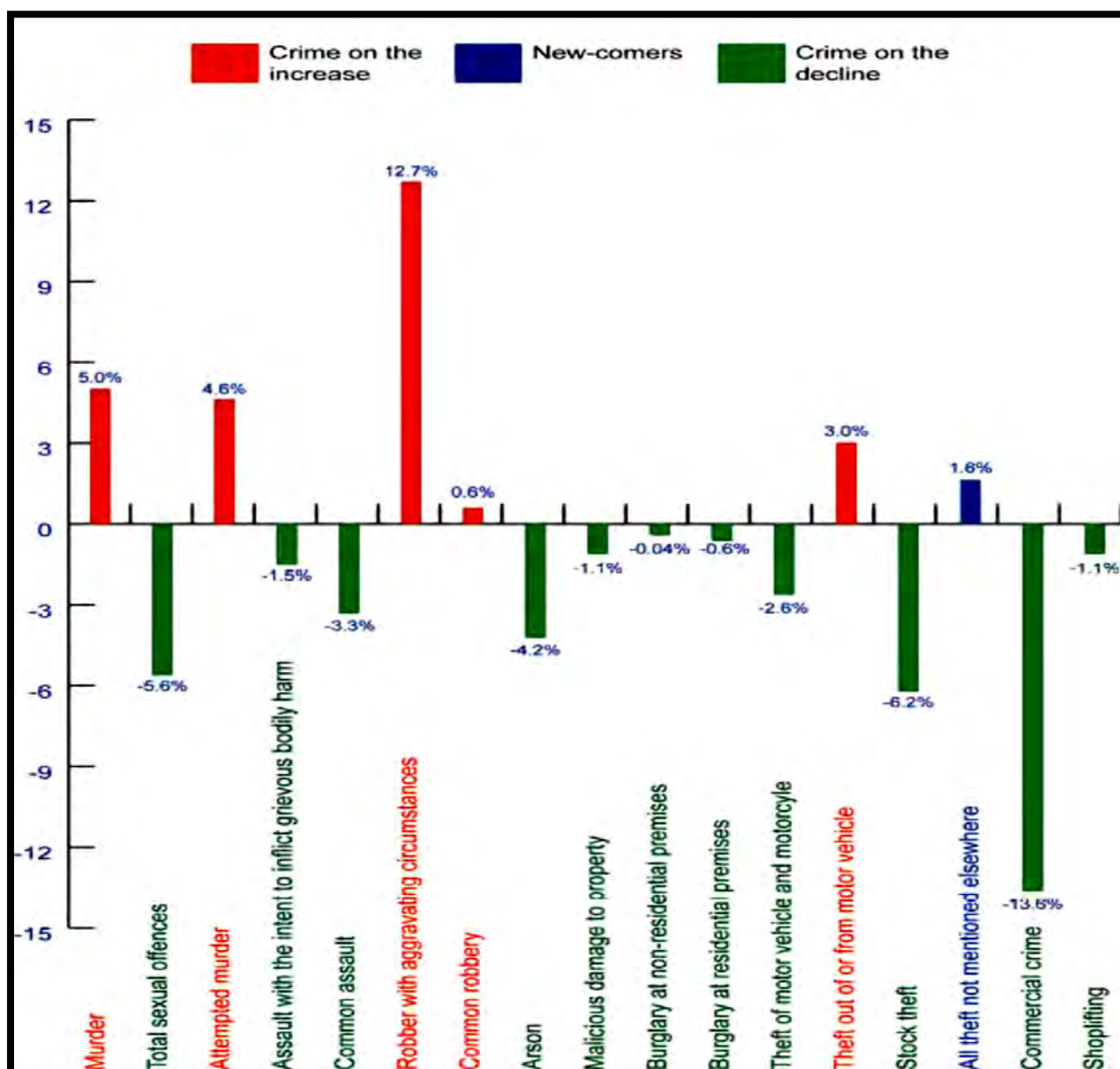
4.2.1 Situational analysis

Crime is not only a South African problem. It is a global challenge. However, as a country one cannot give excuses for unacceptably high levels of crime, violent crime, in South African communities (Morley, 2013). This has been observed by Vermaak (2009:28), who commented;

That crime in South Africa is reaching alarming – perhaps even epidemic proportions, cannot be doubted. Everyday new ‘statistics’ are added to the already long list of the victims of murder, rape, armed robbery and other types of serious violent crimes. The latest of these has been the victims of xenophobia. Unless something drastic is done to curtail crime, we are facing anarchy and chaos.

Even though, Vermaak wrote more than six years ago, he may as well be talking about crime conditions in 2015. With 17 068 people murdered, 46 253 raped, 143 812 cars hijacked, 119 351 people robbed, and 260 460 homes broken into (SAPS, 2014), in 2014 only, one may as well think that the ‘chaos’ and ‘anarchy’ foreseen by Vermaak in 2009 is already upon us. This is so in spite of the reassurance of the South African Police Services (2014:4) that ‘the crime trend line over the past 10 years (2004/5 to 2013/14) continued to demonstrate a decline, both in ratios and reported crime, against the backdrop of an increase in population figures’.

Figure 4.1: Comparative Analysis of 17 Crimes rates – 2012/13 vs 2013/14



Source: SAPS. Analysis of the National Crime Statistics: Addendum to the Annual Report 2013/2014. (2014:8).

However, these assurances have done little to comfort fearful citizens, who are constantly besieged by crime. This concern with crime is not new, as President Thabo Mbeki, on the State of the Nation Address, 9 February 2007, observed;

Certainly, we cannot erase that which is ugly and repulsive and claim the happiness that comes with freedom if communities live in fear, closeted behind walls and barbed wire, ever anxious in their houses, on the streets and on our roads, unable freely to enjoy our public spaces...

The reality of crime in South Africa, and the global stage, can never be doubted, yet the anatomy of it has always been disputed. In the mid-20th century and before, crime was seen as

a product of individuals who lacked moral integrity, the social misfits, and those whose cognitive and genetic constitution inevitably channeled them towards criminal acts (Palmary, 2001). As such, the solution was to identify and isolate these ‘undesirables’ so as to protect the upright, law abiding citizens (ibid). This was usually done through criminal justice; vigorous policing and tough justice system (Palmary, 2001).

4.2.2 Crime prevention strategies

In 1994, in spite of the legislative framework to the contrary, the government concentrated on ‘fighting crime’, through the criminal justice system. President Mandela, opening the Parliament in February 1995, commented;

The situation cannot be tolerated in which our country continues to be engulfed by the crime wave which includes murder, crimes against women and children, drug trafficking, armed robbery, fraud and theft. We must take the war to the criminals and no longer allow the situation in which we are mere sitting ducks of those in our society who, for whatever reason, are bent to engage in criminal and anti-social activities (Rauch n.d :9).

However, within two years of ‘taking the war to the criminals’, the South African government realised that the crime-fighting paradigm - of successful investigations, successful prosecutions and longer jail time - was not the best approach in deterring crime. This observation was confirmed by Vermaak (2009:29), who noted that ‘traditional approaches to crime and criminals has not reduced criminality to any marked degree...while some offenders benefit from it, custody itself presents no permanent protection for society’. Palmary (2001) also noted that, in spite of the gravity of some criminal acts, criminals do not significantly differ from law abiding citizens. This realisation, has given rise to a paradigm shift in crime reduction – crime prevention. Rather than fighting crime, many countries have focused their efforts on preventing it, treating it as a social challenge than can be pre-emptively tackled through a complex strategy (Van Aswegen (2000:141).

In cognisance of the above reality, South Africa launched the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) (1996), which was to be ‘holistic attempt to develop a common vision around crime prevention’ (Van Aswegen 2000:141). The NCPS had four pillars: (1) the criminal justice process (law enforcement); (2) environmental design (reducing opportunities of crime through creating safe environments (well-lit streets, secure public places, CCTV); (3) public values and education – to create a moral climate and attitude opposed to crime and violence),

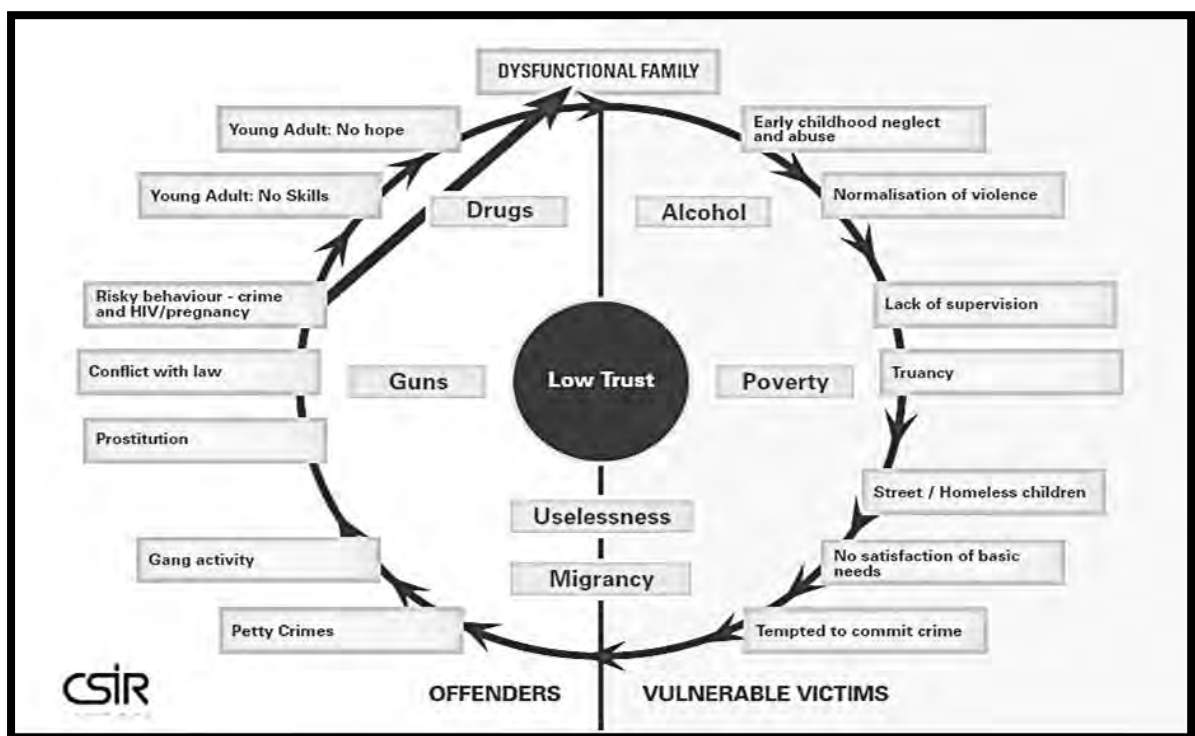
as well as; (4) transnational crime – which has to target organised and economic crimes (NCPS, 1996:6).

According to the NCPS, not only does the approach to crime reduction need evaluation, the concept of crime needs revisit as well. In attempting this, it was realised that;

Crime is not one thing but many things. There are many different kinds of crime, different interests which motivate criminals and hence, many different causes and solutions to this complex problem. The underlying causes of rape and child abuse are different to the root causes of white collar crime and corruption and both differ in origin from the problem of motor vehicle hijacking (NCPS, 1996:9).

In this quest many have gone back to the theoretical foundations and tried to unpack the anatomy and physiology of crime. As per Figure 4.2 below, crime is cyclical in nature.

Figure 4.2: Cycle of Crime and Violence



Source: South African Department of Social Development, Integrated Social Crime Prevention (2011:18).

Using crime prevention paradigm, NCPS (1996) views crime as a social issue rather than simply a security issue. As indicated on the Figure 4.2 above, crime has many social causes and enabling factors. These include dysfunctional family, poor economic opportunities, weak social values and norms, easy access to fire arms and drugs. As such, crime affects not only the

perpetrator and victim, but the quality of life in society as a whole (Department of Safety and Security, 2000:1). With this complex crime causality, one has to appreciate the need for a complex approach to crime reduction.

Crime prevention strategy is based on a thorough situational analysis and is multi-agency in its focus. First of all it has to tackle the root causes of crime as well as enabling factors (Van Aswegen 2000:141). These can be understood from the perspective of three factors; the victim, perpetrators and environment. By fully appreciating the environment where both the victim and offender co-exist, one can identify certain factors that either enable or inhibit crime commission. The Department of Safety and Security (DSS) (2000:2) describe crime prevention strategy as;

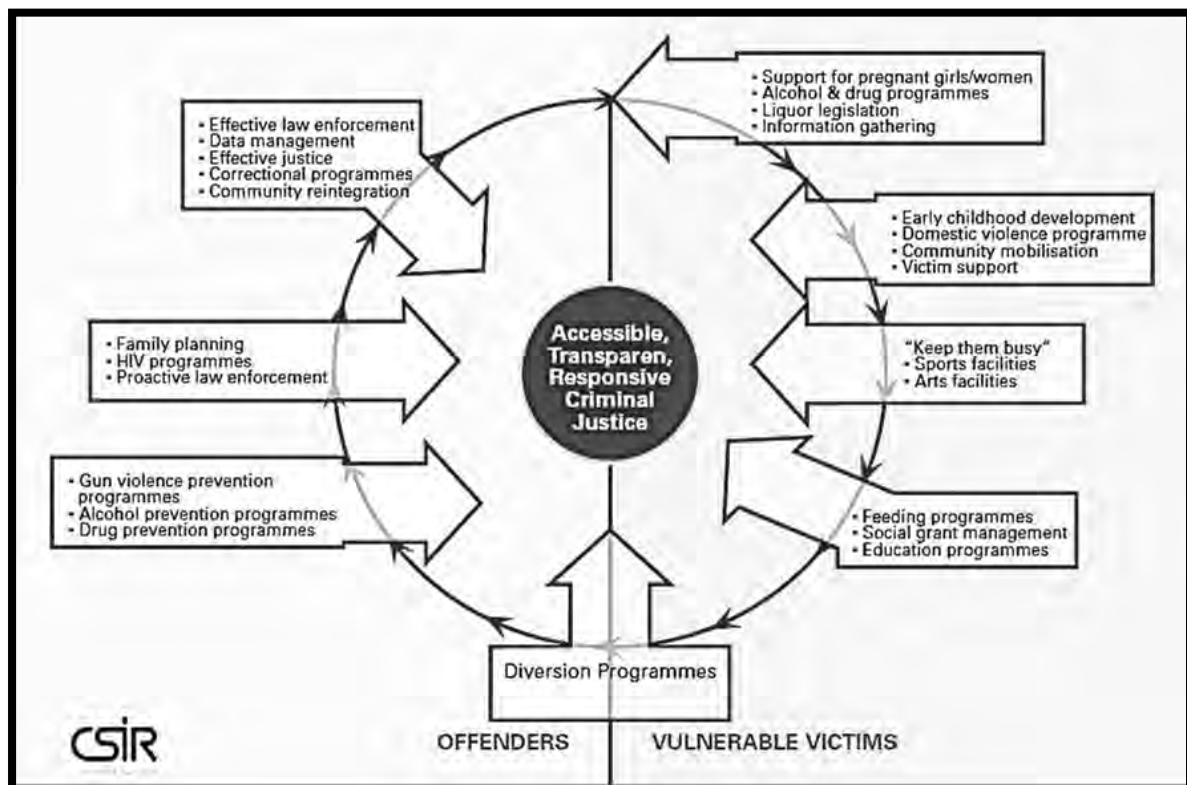
- *An action to prevent crime and violence and reduce public fear of crime;*
- *A tool to bring together role-players involved in crime prevention*
- *A means of developing local crime prevention partnerships;*
- *A method to ensure coordination and management of crime prevention initiatives, and;*
- *A way to identify priority areas and tasks.*

Defined as such, crime prevention is a social activity. The DSS (2000:1) argued that ‘reducing crime and building safer communities must be a priority for all...’ The key is having several organisations and groups working in partnerships. This reality was advanced in South Africa by the NCPS (1996) and the White Paper of Safety and Security (1998). Through these two vehicles, South African Government advocated for community involvement in crime prevention. They basically advocated two approaches, in addition to the criminal justice - ‘crime control’ - approach; social crime prevention and situational crime prevention (DSS, 2000).

On the one hand social crime prevention is the proactive approach of preventing and reducing criminal activity through empowering victims and would-be perpetrators. This involves setting up educational programmes for youth, recreational facilities, and enabling economic opportunities. This aspect of crime prevention has been undertaken by the Department of Social Development (DSD), who believes that through their Integrated Social Crime Prevention Strategy (hereafter, DSD Strategy) (2011), where they call all stakeholders to participate in pre-emptive efforts to reduce crime, they hold an important key to crime prevention. The DSD Strategy (2011:8) argues that through extensive social security services to vulnerable persons, they have since been involved in pre-emptive social crime prevention.

On the other hand, situational crime prevention has to deal with manipulating the built environment to reduce opportunities of crime, or make committing crime too risky or less rewarding (DSS 2000:6). This uses a combination of law enforcement and town planning. This is affected through visible policing in crime-prone areas, increasing security, as well as improving lighting in lonely streets, malls and hallways in urban areas (Rauch 1999:11). The combination of these two approaches is tended towards breaking the cycle of crime and violence, as depicted in Figure 4.3 below.

Figure 4.3: Breaking the Cycle of Crime and Violence



Source: Department of Social Development, *Integrated Social Crime Prevention* (2011:19).

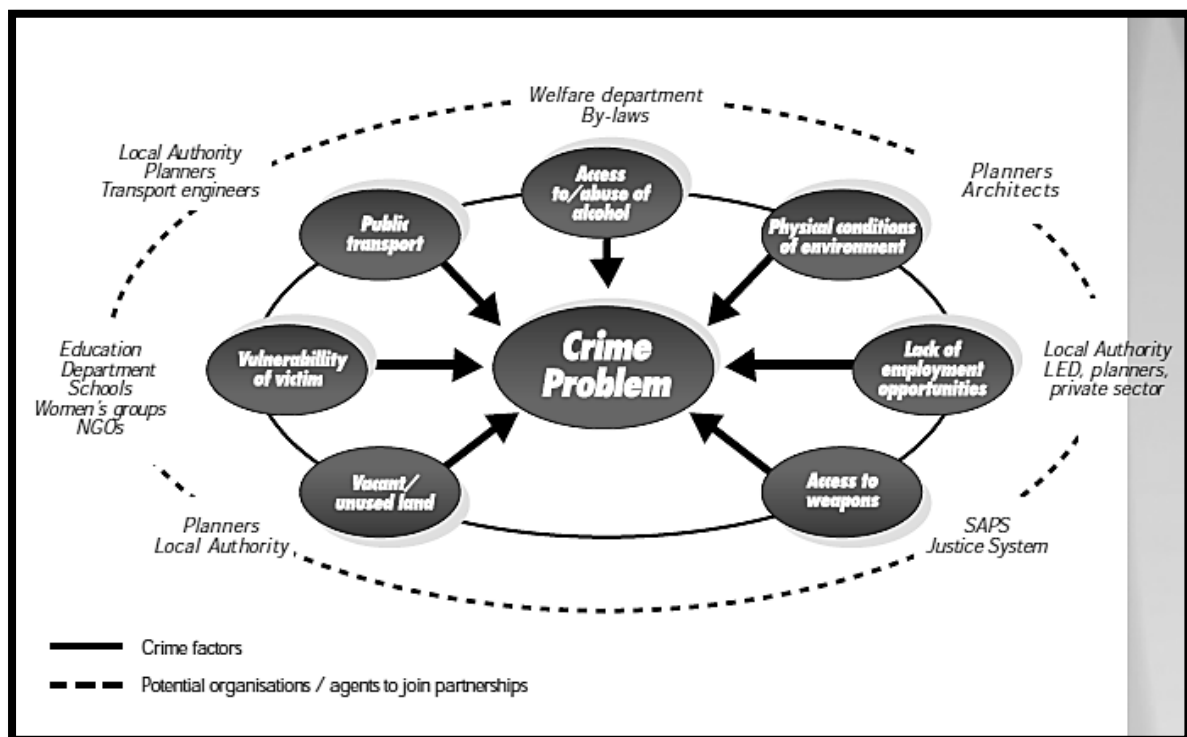
However, as many policy frameworks in South Africa (NCPS, 1996: White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998) breaking the cycle of crime and violence, in a bid to prevent crime, is not a solo act. Four axioms are therefore acknowledged in this regard;

- *Government alone cannot deal with crime; it needs to engage non-state actors*
- *Law enforcement and criminal justice alone is inadequate for crime prevention*
- *Crime are different, and must be disaggregated if effective prevention strategies are to be designed and implemented*
- *Prevention strategies must also be focused on victims*

4.2.3 Crime Prevention Partnerships

Foregrounded in the above points is the issue of partnerships in crime prevention (CP). Rauch (1999:27) makes the point that partnerships are key to CP. In order to break the cycle of crime (see Figure 4.3 above), different organisations and departments have to pull their resources together. For an effective crime prevention partnership, Rauch (1999:28) advises that all relevant groups must be encouraged to participate. However, while community consultation is indispensable, the interests of conflicting groups have to be balanced out. To this end, Rauch (1999) identifies potential partners in any crime prevention strategy in South Africa; SAPS, Local and Provincial Governments, Several Government departments, Community Crime prevention groups, civil society and business. These are further noted by the DSS (2011) as show in Figure 4.4 below.

Figure 4.4: Potential Partners in Crime Prevention Partnerships



Source: Department of Safety and Security, 2000:27

There is a need for an integrated approach to building safety. The National Development Plan 2030, indicates that in discussing crime, the danger is to focus on policing as the only solution. It is necessary to move from narrow law-enforcement approach to crime and safety to identifying and resolving the root causes of crime. To achieve this, South Africa will have to

mobilise state and non-state capacities at all levels which requires an integrated approach, with active citizen involved and co-responsibility (National Development Plan 2013: 388).

The information in Figure 4.4 above emphasises the point of co-responsibility in CP. Accordingly, each department or organisation is relevant in trying to tackle a particular crime aspect, for example, to deal with the vulnerability of victims, Department of Education (through targeted programmes), Women and other minority groups (situational analysis and proposed solutions), as well as other NGOs that may be working with vulnerable groups. For example, the way the KwaZulu Natal Province dealt with criminal activities perpetrated against foreign nationals in February 2015 was a typical multi-agency approach to crime. The approach engaged, the SAPS, Traditional Leaders (Inkosi), respective Embassies and Consulates, National Government (Department of Home Affairs), the media and celebrities, NGOs (Gift of the Givers), religious leaders and Education (Universities and schools anti-xenophobia campaign programmes). In summary, the Integrated Crime Prevention approach proposed by the NCPS, The White Paper on Safety and Security, and DSD is depicted in figure 4.5 below.

Figure 4.5: Aspects of an integrated crime prevention approach



Source: Department of Safety and Security (2000:7).

As advocated for by the three principal documents in South Africa, the preferable crime prevention strategy has three aspects, law enforcement, and social and situational crime prevention. These have to be implemented in crime prevention partnerships formed at different levels of South African society, local (municipal), provincial and national. Figure 4.6 below depicts strengths and weakness of crime preventions at each level.

Figure 4.6: Levels of Crime Prevention Partnerships

a) Neighbourhood partnerships

Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Most responsive to local needs Involve partners that might otherwise be excluded Maximise participation Often fall within a police station area Can assist with project implementation
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Poor access to local and provincial government Limited power and access to resources Require extra effort to get decision-makers' support Few full-time dedicated personnel available Hard to influence provincial and national SAPS members

b) Municipal and Metropolitan partnerships

Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Crime prevention can be aligned with local government delivery and planning Can organise delivery of projects at local level Have information on what local needs are, via elected representatives and LDOs Have access to local political processes Have access to decision makers Can align projects with a manageable number of policing areas
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Links to provincial departments and decision makers can be weak Ability to impact on the agenda of SAPS can be difficult Access to the provincial political process is less easy

c) Provincial partnerships

Strengths	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Have access to provincial departments Have access to provincial policing structures
Weaknesses	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Limited access to local political processes Limited access to local government delivery Selection of projects might not reflect priorities of affected local community

Source: Department of Safety and Security, 2000:31-32.

Rauch (1999) reiterates this division through his analysis of the recommendation found in both the NCPS and the White Paper on Safety and Security. He notes that the White Paper advocated a much greater role of Local Government in crime prevention. Accordingly, the municipality is charged with initiating, co-ordinating and participating in targeted social crime prevention activities (Rauch 1999:19). In addition and most importantly, the municipal government is to 'align municipal resources and objectives with a crime prevention framework to ensure that development projects take account of crime prevention' (ibid). Consequently, as far as crime prevention is concerned, all South African municipal governments are charged with initiating, capacitating and resourcing crime prevention partnerships, be they government of popular, formal or informal (DSS 2000:30).

4.3. Crime Prevention Strategy in KwaZulu Natal

4.3.1 Situational Analysis

The SAPS (2014:9) has indicated that KwaZulu Natal has seen a decrease in reported crime in 2013/2014 financial year. In fact, they contend that for the past ten years, the Province has been on the decline in terms of the rate of crime (2.8%). According to the 2013/2014 Crime Statistics, KwaZulu Natal has seen a 10-year decrease in contact crime (by 2.7%), with murder having marginally decreased by just 0.1% since 2003/04; sexual offences recorded an decrease of whopping 4.3% in the same period, with 893 less rape victims than in 2003/04 (SAPS, 2014). In the same period attempted murder (0.3%), assault with intent to inflict grievous bodily harm (0.5%), and robbery with aggravating circumstances (5.3%) increased, most of them marginally. Comparing these statistics with those of four provinces in which crime is reportedly increased since 2003/04 (Western Cape 2.9%, Limpopo 2.8%, Northern Cape 1.9%, and Gauteng 1.3% increase), one is likely to appreciate the ten-year 2.8% decline of crime in KwaZulu Natal.

However, with visuals of the 2015 Xenophobic attack, gruesome rape and murder of an 87-year old nun, and the ever-present political conflicts in Zululand still fresh in everyone's mind, one is likely to be modest in appreciating these 'positive' official crime records. With cases of rape reported every day, the 9.9% decrease seems incredible. On the other hand, looking at the crime prevention framework in the Province may shade more light to the reality behind the numbers.

4.3.2 The Role of Department of Community Safety and Liaison

Crime Prevention in KwaZulu Natal province is managed by the Provincial Department of Community Safety and Liaison (DCSL). In addition, the KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Development Growth Development Strategy 2030 (PGDP) recognises the need for partnerships in maintaining safety and security. The PGDP also note, in cognisance of the province's ethnic and political challenges, that social cohesion will be essential in realising the goal of a crime-free society. This is argued in the midst of the national take on crime prevention, which recognises the impact of socio-economic development.

The DCSL aligns with the National Development Plan 2030 (2011), the plan indicate that high crime levels have slowed South African social and economic development. Although recent crime statistics released by the South African Police Service show a downward trend especially in murder rates, the figures are still unacceptably high. Civil Society organisations, community policing forums and community members must assist the police to determine the cause of the prevalence of crime and police must use combating strategies that produce results. The NDP further indicates that safety and security are directly related to socioeconomic development and equality; a safe and secure country encourages economic growth and transformation by providing environment conducive to employment creation, improved education and health outcomes, and strengthens social cohesion (National Development Plan 2011: 368).

The vision for the Department is to see the people of Kwazulu-Natal living in a safe and secure environment. As such, the department is in a mission to be the lead agency in driving the integration of community safety initiatives, towards a crime-free Kwazulu-Natal (DCSL Strategic Plan, 2010 -2014: 10). In addition, some of the provincial priority areas include improving governance and service delivery; improving the community infrastructure; promote sustainable economic development, job creation and poverty alleviation; develop human capability; implement a comprehensive provincial response to HIV/AIDS and protection of vulnerable groups in society (DCSL Strategic Plan, 2010-2014:2; 5). Through the achievement of these disparate objectives, it is hoped that crime will be substantially reduced in the province.

However, the DCSL has specific goals targeting crime and related matters of safety and security in the Province;

Table 4.1: DCSL strategic goals and objectives for crime prevention

Strategic Goals	Strategic Objectives
<i>Promote democratic accountability and transparency in the police service and direct the South African Police Service towards effectively addressing provincial needs and priorities.</i>	<i>To evaluate police service delivery and compliance with national policy standards and make recommendations for redress where required; secondly, to address service delivery complaints against the police to support the raising of service standards, and lastly assess the effectiveness of visible policing in the province</i>
<i>To promote good relations and establish partnerships between the police and the communities.</i>	<i>To oversee the establishment and functioning of community policing forums at all police stations in the province; secondly, to enhance the capacity of the community police structures to improve co-operation between the police and the community, and; thirdly is to promote community dialogue and participation in support of crime prevention initiatives and activities</i>
<i>To facilitate the development and co-ordination of social crime prevention initiatives.</i>	<i>To develop and execute social crime prevention programmes at provincial and local level; secondly, to research and develop social crime prevention responses to community safety priorities; lastly, to consolidate the Community Safety Network Structure.</i>
<i>To promote and support Victim Empowerment.</i>	<i>To promote the establishment of a Victim Support Network and special support programmes for victims, and raise the awareness of protective rights among vulnerable groups.</i>

Source: DCSL Strategic Plan, 2010-2014: 27-28.

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison's mandate is instituted in some of these legislative frameworks; National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996 (Revised 1999), South African Constitution Section 206 (2 & 3 a, b, c, d and e), Firearms Control Act, 2000, KwaZulu-Natal Commissions Act, 1999, Domestic Violence Act, 1998, Child Care Act, 1983, Maintenance Act, 1998, Criminal Procedure Act 1977, Administrative Mandates (DCSL Strategic Plan 2010-2014: 12). In the spirit of the NCPS (1996), the DCSL performs its functions in extensive consultations and co-operative agreements with several governmental and non-governmental departments and institutions.

According to Section 206 (2 & 3) of the South African Constitution, the institution of provincial crime prevention and community policing is mandated, where each provincial body will: monitor police conduct; oversee the effectiveness and efficiency of the police service including receiving reports on the police service; promote good relations between the police and the community; assess the effectiveness of visible policing; and liaise with the Cabinet member responsible for policing with respect to crime and policing in the province (South African Constitution, 1996, Section 206 (2 & 3)). Through the South African Police Service Act, 1995 (Act 68 of 1995), the Provincial Secretariats must support the Provincial MEC for Community Safety and Liaison by promoting civilian oversight and good corporate governance in the Provincial South African Police Service. A range of other national and provincial legislation (like the White Paper on Safety and Security, 1999 to 2004 (expired but not superseded)) ensure that there is sufficient mandate for the Department to carry out its provincial responsibilities.

Some of the milestones of the DCSL in attaining its goals and objectives with regards to crime prevention include; invaluable contributions to the development of new national policy for community policing, monitoring of the effectiveness of crime prevention strategies as well as the evaluation of the impact of the Crime Combating Task Groups, focus on matters regarding the violation of the rights of women and children through the Anti-Rape Strategy, Protocol on Child Abuse and Sexual Harassment (DCSL Annual Report, 2013:26-34). In terms of monitoring and oversight, the Department is required to examine troubled areas and crime statistics in the Province. However, the Department's ability to follow through with the many complaints forwarded by members of the public has always been hampered by the shortage of line-function staff, technical capacity and budgetary constraints (DCSL Strategic Plan 2010-2014: 10-11). Other structural challenges faced by the Department include inadequate harmonization of geographic service delivery areas – between Local Government, the Department of Justice and the South African Police Service, and NGOs (DCSL Strategic Plan 2010-2014: 10-12). However, the major achievement done by the Department with regards to provincial crime prevention is the enactment of the province-wide crime prevention framework - KwaZulu-Natal Holistic Community Liaison Framework.

4.3.3 KwaZulu-Natal Holistic Community Liaison Framework

The provincial Department of Community Safety and Liaison, in KwaZulu Natal has instituted a comprehensive crime prevention strategy known as a Holistic Community Framework'

which is developed and managed under the Justice, Crime Preventions and Security Cluster (JCPS) (DCSL Annual Report, 2013). In the spirit of this, there have been three mantras and rallying cries initiated since 2010; ‘Building a united front Against Crime’, ‘Deepening People’s Action Against Crime’ and ‘Operation Hlasela’ (DCSL Annual Report 2013:23). According to the MEC of Community Safety and Liaison, Mr T W Mchunu, (2012:3) ‘this is a call for the mobilization and involvement of all sectors of society in a concerted and sustained campaign to significantly reduce crime levels in the Province’.

The DCSL co-ordinates several voluntary crime prevention structures under its holistic community liaison platform, and attempt to create sustainable and effective partnerships (Mchunu 2012:6). These partnerships are set at provincial, cluster as well as local/municipal level. At the Provincial level, the KwaZulu-Natal Council Against Crime (henceforth the Council¹) is a consultative platform used for structured engagement between the Provincial Government, civil society and other national department structures (DCSL Annual Report 2013:33). The mandate of the Council includes providing strategic advice and guidance, guiding implementation, monitoring and evaluating, research, and capacitating non-governmental structures in all crime prevention activities.

At district and local levels similar structures exist. District Community Safety Forums (CSFs), co-ordinate crime prevention at district level, while Community Police Forums (CPFs) do-ordinate local level partnerships (Mchunu 2012:8). Presently, there are about 185 CPFs in the Province (ibid). According to the White Paper on Safety and Security (1998 cited in Rauch 1999;20), CPFs have to;

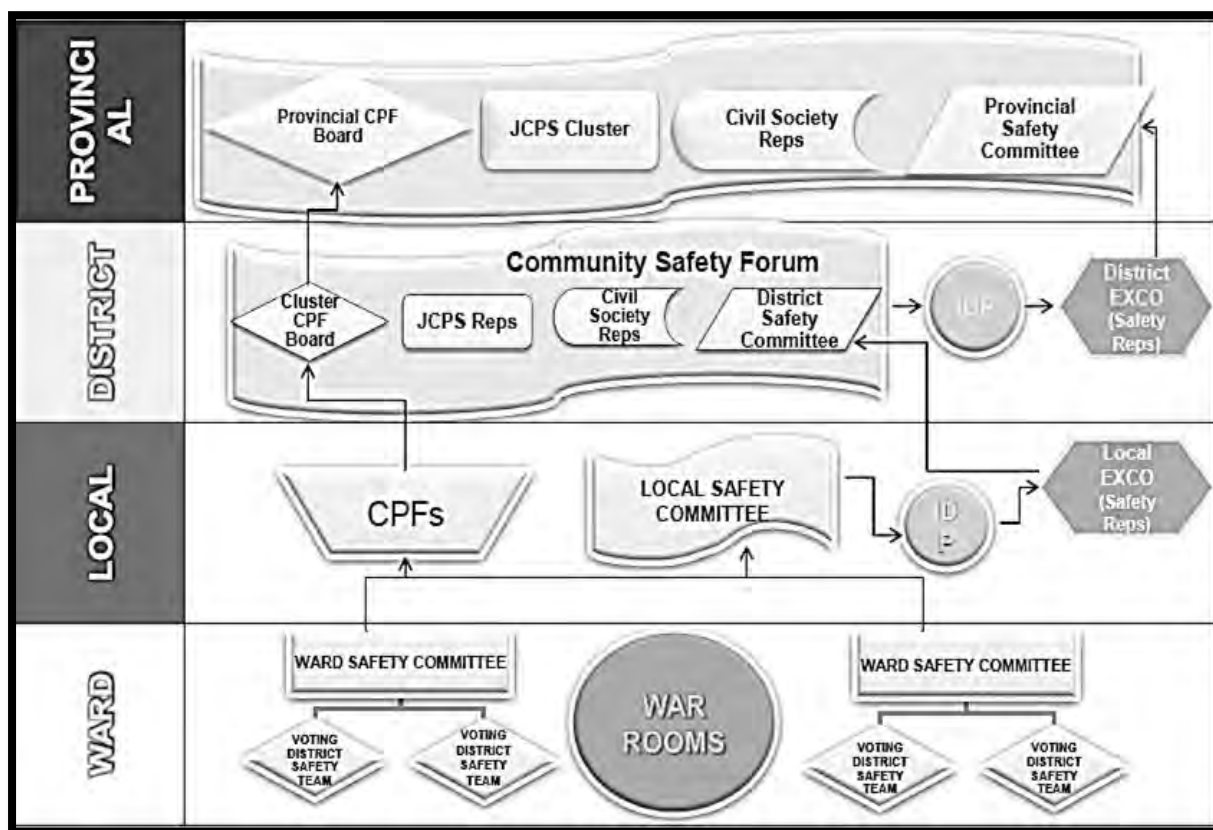
- *Co-operate with local government to jointly set crime prevention priorities;*
- *Assist in the development of targeted crime prevention programmes;*
- *Identify flashpoints, crime patterns and community anti-crime activities;*
- *Mobilise and organise community-based campaigns and activities; and*
- *Facilitate regular attendance by local councillors at CPF meetings.*

However, with the challenges faced by CPFs over the years, relating to effectiveness, representiveness, outreach and co-ordination, other local structures have been created. These include the Ward Safety Committee, at ward level, and local safety community, at municipal

¹ The Council comprises; the Premier, MECs, JCPS, House of Traditional Leaders, religious leaders, youth formations, organised labour, Provincial community Policy Board, KwaZulu Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA), leaders of the private security industry. Participation in then Council is voluntary for non-govenmental structures (DCSL Annual Report 2013:36).

level (DCSL Annual Report 2013:40). This holistic framework is presented in Figure 4.7 below.

Figure 4.7: KZN Holistic Community Liaison Framework



Source: KwaZulu-Natal Community Police Forum Pocket Guide, 2014:476

Using this framework, the Province has recorded several successes as well as challenges. Part of challenges faced in crime prevention include the upsurge of political killings and property related crimes, mainly stock theft (DCSL Annual Report, 2013:17). The MEC for Community Safety and Liaison observed that the rate of police killing in the province was on the rise. Other challenges include violence against women and children, substance induced violence and sexual crimes, disrupted families, in which over a quarter of the children do not live with their parents, as well as easy access of firearms and drugs among the young people, including those at school (Chetty, 2014). The major constraint in the provincial crime prevention has been mushrooming of many vigilante groups, who, having been fed up with the criminal justice system, have taken law into their hands and always used extra-judicious means of crime prevention and control (Nyanda, 2014).

The DCSL has, however, worked hard to alleviate these challenges through several approaches. Firstly, the DCSL has worked with the JCPS Cluster to revitalise and capacitate the Community Police Forums at provincial and cluster level (Mchunu 2012:10). This has involved amending the Forum's constitution at both levels, the election of new executive committees, as well as the training of executive members, through the Thathulwazi Programme, which started in 2006². Secondly, through several community engagement activities, the DCSL has managed to strengthen collaboration and partnerships between government, police and communities. Of note is the role-out of Operation Hlasela and Community-in-Dialogue Programme (CiDP) through-out the Province. The CiDP aimed to mobilise communities to assume responsibility peaceful co-existence in their communities (Mchunu 2012:21).

Lastly, the DCSL facilitated the formation of KwaZulu Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA), in November 2012. According to Mr W T Mchunu, the Association was a welcome initiative, following many uncoordinated vigilante groups, 'largely unregulated and operating outside of the CPF structures and, at times, the boundaries of the law' (Mchunu 2012:12).

4.4 KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association

4.4.1 Origins and nature of KZNCCPA

The KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA) adopted its constitution on 12 November 2012. The main aims and objectives of the Association are to:

- encourage social networking in the fight against crime within the confines of the law;
- promote broad public participation in government initiatives to fight crime, including taking part in crime prevention forum activities;
- foster partnerships with the police service, civil society organisations and business to fight crime, and;
- Lead the campaign against police killings and police brutality.

The constitution includes a Code of Conduct, which regulates the conduct of these organisations. Any contravention of which by a member of the KZNCCPA or its representative shall constitute misconduct and the disciplinary procedure prescribed in the constitution must be followed (KZN Community Safety and Liaison: 23 – 24).

² There were about 700 CPFs members trained through the programme by end of 2012 (Mchunu 2012:11).

The Premier of KwaZulu-Natal publicly launched the KZNCCPA on 12 -13th November 2012, where the first election of the Executive Committee was held. The KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association is a juristic person and non-profit organization which, notwithstanding any change of its members or management, exists as a voluntary organization (KZNCCPA Constitution, 2012: 4). The aims and objectives of the association are to:

- Encourage social networking in the fight against crime,
- Promote broad public participation in government initiatives to fight crime,
- Foster partnerships with the Police Service, civil society organisations and business to fight crime,
- Promote co-operation with the Police Service as well as other state law enforcement and non-governmental organisations,
- Lead the campaign against police killings and police brutality,
- Participate in crime prevention capacity building initiatives of government and other institutions, and
- Promote good relationships between the community and police.

The association is composed of each and every civil society crime prevention organization in KwaZulu-Natal, recognized by the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and represented by duly appointed representatives of each organization designated thereto in writing by each organization (KZNCCPA Constitution, 2012: 5 - 6).

The following Community Based Organisations form the KZNCCPA:

1. JulukaTsotsi Association (Chesterville),
2. Amanqe Association (Ulundi) ,
3. BhasobhaTsotsi Association (Clermont),
4. Vimbangaphambili Association (Nquthu) ,
5. Sambulela Asociation (Paulprietersburg) ,
6. Isikebhe Association (Impendle) ,
7. OTTAWA Association (Inanda) ,
8. Mbombela Association (Amawoti) ,
9. Siyabaphelezela Association (KwaMashu),
10. Amabutho Association (Pietermaritzburg) ,
11. Umkhumbi Association (Giantcastle).
12. CSP
13. FEDCO
14. Qedubugebengu

The members of the Association render their services on voluntary basis and have no claim to compensation for services rendered to the Association. The composition of the Executive Committee of the KZNCCPA consists of the chairperson, vice-chairperson, secretary, treasurer, public relations officer and eight additional members (KZNCCPA Constitution, 2012:6-7). The executive committee is responsible for the management of the affairs of the association and it has the authority to attend to any matter that could or might be attended to by the Association, except where a matter is specifically reserved in the constitution to be dealt with by the general meeting.

The executive committee of KZNCCPA has the following powers and functions amongst other things:

- to pass any resolution or take any decision, that may be necessary in order to achieve the objectives of the Association,
- to form or appoint sub-committees from the representatives of members of the association for special or general purposes,
- to institute, conduct, defend, oppose, settle any legal proceedings by or against the Association (KZNCCPA Constitution, 2012:11 - 12).

The KZNCCPA has districts and local coordinating committees. The district coordinating committee is for a district or metropolitan area. The local coordinating committee is for a local municipal area and consists of representatives from all members of the Association which are operational in that local municipality (KZNCCPA Constitution, 2012:11 – 15).

The KZNCCPA and the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Community Safety and Liaison entered into a Memorandum of Understanding on 13 November 2012, to regulate their relationship and enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of the KZCCPA and to promote synergy with other institutions concerned with crime prevention and law enforcement in KwaZulu-Natal. In May 2014, the parties renewed the agreement by signing the Addendum to the Memorandum of Understanding.

4.4.2 Relationship of KZNCCPA and other crime prevention actors

The KZNCCPA works closely with many actors. However, the most salient are the Department of Community Safety and Liaison and South African Police Service (SAPS). The formation of the KZNCCPA has been met with a measure of wariness on the part of some Crime Prevention

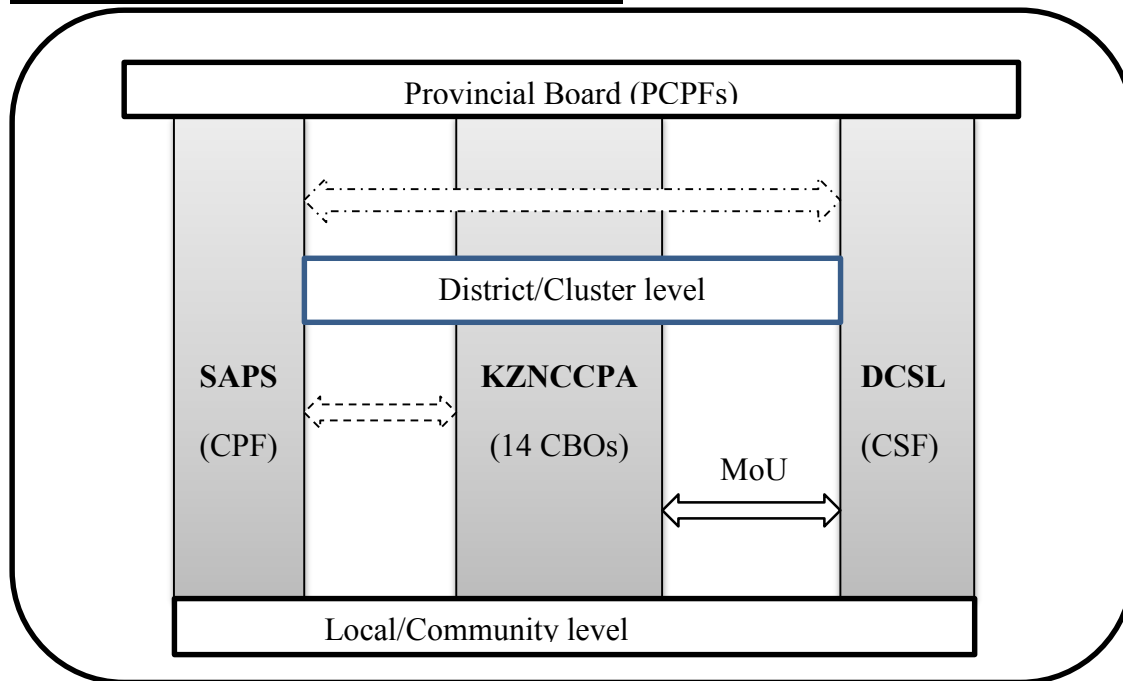
Forum members. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison subsequently concluded a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) with the Association, which clarified the role of the KZNCCPA (KZN Community Safety and Liaison: 24).

The aim of the MoU between the KZNCCPA and the Department of Community Safety and Liaison is to provide for measures to create synergy between the Provincial Board and the KZNCCPA at a provincial, district and local level. The memorandum is based on the common understanding that all these associations and agencies are components of society engaged in voluntary crime prevention activities. Other components involved include, religious formations, traditional leaders, rate-payers associations, school governing bodies, sport and cultural associations, home owners associations, sectional title body corporates, business, youth formations, other non-profit organisations, street committees, ward committees, neighbourhood watches, organised labour, political parties, government, the transport industry, the private security industry and unaffiliated individuals (Community Safety and Liaison: 8).

The SAPS is required to formally cooperate with all these components of society through the provincial board, cluster boards and crime prevention forums; and to interact with the individual components informally and on an ad hoc basis as necessitated in the process of executing its Constitutional mandate to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic and their property, and to uphold and enforce the law.

The interaction of the crime prevention actors above can be diagrammatically illustrated using Exworthy and Powell's (2004) joined-up government (JUG) model. As shown in Figure 3.1 below, the SAPS, KZNCCPA and the department of Community Safety and Liaison (DCSL) have direct co-operate in three levels, provincial, district and local. Individual components of crime prevention also interact with each other informally (represented by dotted arrows). However, since there is a MoU between the KZNCCPA and DCSL, the interaction is represented by solid arrow.

Figure 4.8: Crime Prevention Actors in KZN



Source: Author

In terms of the memorandum, the parties agree that the role of the constituents of the members of the KZNCCPA is to engage in crime prevention activities within the boundaries of the law, including street, village and hot-spot patrols, receiving reports from their constituents and other community members on suspected criminal and criminal incidents; and managing criminal or suspected criminal incidents encountered whilst on street, village and hot-spot patrols. In the memorandum, the KZNCCPA agrees to coordinate and manage the crime prevention activities of its members; coordinate and manage the interaction of its members with the Police Service for purposes of managing incidents and providing crime intelligence, coordinate and manage the participation of its members and committees in CPF meetings for purposes of communicating and assisting in solving Police Service challenges at a local level (Community Safety and Liaison 8-9).

Since its inception, KZNCCPA has seen some successes. Under the leadership of Mr T Zuma, the MEC of Community Safety and Liaison, hoped the new organisation will help build an anti-crime society and strengthen community intelligence in the fight against crime (Nyanda, 2014). From its record, it seems KZNCCPA has not disappointed; participating in most crime prevention and community engagement in the province (DCSL Annual Report, 2013). In 2013,

the Association joined forces with SAPS, CPFs, Departments of Education, Transport and Social Development, in establishing Community Safety Forums (CSFs) in Umzinyathini District Municipality (DCSL Annual report 2013:28-29). At the same time, KZNCCVPA participated in community education campaigns and in launching Communities-in-Dialogue Programme (CiDP) in Nquthu, Umvoti and Umzinyathi Local Municipalities (ibid). At the face of it, it seems that so far KZNCCPA has become that uniting force among several community crime prevention groups, as well as with the SAPS.

On the 1st of June 2015 the MEC for Community Safety and Liaison, Mr W T Mchunu, acknowledged the role of a KZNCCPA affiliate, Black Mamba, in apprehending suspects of stock theft in Vryheid, Zululand. Acknowledging the general role the Association has played in fighting crime, Mr Mchunu (2015) observed;

This is, indeed, a welcomed move which underlines what could be achieved in all communities join the growing movement against crime and criminality. It is only through partnerships between police and communities that we can defeat criminals.

This has been one of the many instances where KZNCCPA, through its now 22 affiliates, has been acknowledged for its contribution in crime control and prevention in the Province.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter focussed on crime prevention in South Africa and the KZNCCPA Case Study. This chapter looked at the methodology, the birth of KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association, the nature and relationship between KZNCCPA and the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the role of the Department of Community Safety and liaison in the Network, have the policy network been successful in the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the benefit and challenges of the KZNCCPA Network.

CHAPTER 5: MANAGEMENT DYNAMICS OF KZNCCPA

5.1. Introduction

The aim of this study is to explore the management dynamics of KZNCCPA, as a crime prevention network. Drawing from, focus group discussions, observations, document review and the conceptual framework, this chapter aims at identifying those management strategies pertinent to KZNCCPA. This chapter will give the analysis of the study taking into consideration the analytical framework discussed in chapter two and discussing the key themes that emerged on the data analysis and focus groups. In so doing, the hope is to answer the research questions of this study.

5.2. What network management style/s are evident in the KZNCCPA?

Responding on how the KZNCCP is managed, one of the participants (P1) indicated that the association is composed of each civil society crime prevention organization in KwaZulu-Natal, recognized by the DCSL and represented by duly elected representatives of each organization designated in writing by each organisation. Apparently, the participant organisations all have an equal representation in KZNCCPA, and they elect an Executive Committee from among the membership, whose term of office lasts for 5 years, renewable once. The Association has a district coordinating committee that serves as a linkage between the provincial association and local co-ordination committees. It is mainly the Executive Committee that is charged with ‘managing the affairs of the Association ...as it is also its prerogative to delegate certain amount of executive powers to the district and local co-ordinating committees...’(P1). However, both the District and Local Co-ordinating Committees are to form partnerships with other like-minded crime prevention groups, in furtherance of the strategic objectives of the Association.

Another participant (P2) indicated that the directorate, provincial police oversight and partnerships in the DCSL, manages the KZNCCPA. Meetings are held with the Executive Committee on a regular basis to provide support and facilitate collaboration. The KZNCCPA is also regarded by others as a provincial umbrella body for community crime prevention associations throughout the province (Participant 3). At the time of its establishment, it comprised 14 member organisations and it continues to grow. It is managed through the encouragement of voluntary social networking in the fight against crime, within the confines of the law. It also promotes broad public participation in government initiatives to fight crime,

including taking part in CPF activities, and foster partnerships with the Police Service, civil society organisations and business to fight crime.

Participant 4, made mention of the necessity of trust within the Association, arguing that since many of the member organisations were once rivalry groups, what unites them now is ‘the trust that each of us is fighting the same battle now...there are no heroes’. Hinting on power differentiations within the organisations, P4 observed that;

Ofcourse there are some powerful member organisations, like IsiKebhe, who want to capture the organisation, and push their own agendas from time to time...yet in most cases we work as one...

Following Agranoff’s (2007:81) network typology, KZNCCPA is an action network, which ‘adjusts strategies, policies and programmes of member agencies and collaboratively engages in funding and provision of public services and related actions’. Through the Constitution and the Executive Committee, KZNCCPA crosses organisational boundaries of member organisations in a bid to ensure compliance with objectives and adherence to the law. In as much as network management assumes flexible governance structure, (Kickert, 1997:181) it is paramount that KZNCCPA have more control on its member organisations, so as to maintain its legitimacy and dispel charges of vigilantism that still haunts it. With regards to trust and power relations, the KZNCCPA, is as much as it argues that each organisation is equal, the fact the the current Chairperson comes from the most powerful member organisation, IsiKebhe (Nyanda, 2014) means that there had to be forward mapping and strategic thinking in the election of the Executive Committee. As such, instead or solely relying on consensus to get member buy-in (Agranoff, 2007), the Chair, through his position as the leader of the most feared crime prevention group in the Province, can command compliance through threat of force.

However, from document review, particularly of KZNCCPA Constitution (2012), one notes that, legally the Association is mainly managed more like a unitary organisation. In as much, as the Association is a voluntary organisation, whose members are united by their mutual interests of safety and a vision of a crime-free society, the Executive Committee has powers to control the Association. The Executive Committee determine the objectives of the Association; mandates subordinate committees, including member organisations, to carry out certain crime prevention activities. Through the Code of Conduct, the Executive Committee can discipline the member organisations and their representatives (KZNCCPA Constitution, Section 20).

Even though the Association is supposedly *non-political*, its close association with the DCSL may as well compromise its freedom. This is more possible given the fact that the Department oversees who comes and goes to the Association and how the Executive Committee is elected (MoU 2012, Section 5.1.6, 8.4 & 9.2), furnish the Association and its affiliates with training (Section 5.1.1), meeting arrangements (5.1.2) and administrative facilities (5.1.3). Should the Association fail to mete out discipline to its members, the MEC of Community Safety and Liaison legally charged to take over internal disciplinary processes of the Association (KZNCCPA Constitution 2012, Section 17.4). With all this closeness, one wonders how genuine is the rhetoric of independence and non-political; whether the KZNCCPA are not merely foot soldiers running the errands of DCSL.

5.3 What are the strategies employed to encourage member participation and collaboration in the KZNCCPA?

As a formally constituted network, KZNCCPA has many legal means of enforcing member co-operation. However, as Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff (2001:170) observed, networks are marriage of convenience, meaning that member organisations realise that ‘co-operation it to their advantage’ (Kickert & Koppenjan 1997:44). As such, even a legally constituted network like KZNCCPA does not need to resort to legal means to get members’ commitment; members have realised that is it to their advantage that they are part of the network, since this gains them recognition from Provincial Government and SAPS. For one, with accusations of vigilantism hanging over many affiliates of KZNCCPA, many, such as IsiKebhe, will make sure that they remain within the Association since leaving it may lead to disbandment (Nyanda, 2012). However, one cannot overrule, the need for consensus building in the deliberation of common objectives and joint problem-solving strategies, (Kickert & Koppenjan 1997:46) at the inception.

In as much as participation within the Association may be the carrot to many affiliates, there is always a stick of the Code of Conduct. In as much as then spirit of the Code of Conduct emphasises introspection and voluntary commitment to the objectives and vision of the Association, it also empowers the Executive Committee and the DCSL to deal decisively with deviants (Section 20.6). Other sections of the Code of Conduct (3.7 & 3.9) attempts to appeal collegiality and collaboration, in which member organisations ‘abide by majority rule’ and ‘peer review mechanisms’ of the Association. Again, one can argue that since it is the more

advantageous for individual organisations to be under the protective umbrella of the Association than outside it, getting them to co-operate is not a big issue at KZNCCPA.

Participant 5 however presented a more sanitary rationale for collaboration among the members of KZNCCPA. He argues that;

Affiliates are volunteers who, through a shared dislike for crime, have decided to form themselves into crime fighting structures. The Department of Community Safety and Liaison merely steps in to ensure that we are able to identify, find and collaborate with one another. Our common passion to fight crime and perhaps being victims of crime is the only strategy.

It should be noted, however, that most if not all have been disaffected with the criminal justice system which they see as being technically complex and laborious. They resort to the self-help remedies which dispense with legalities, formalities and gives immediate and desired results. The passion can also be regarded as a common anger and desire to punish suspected criminals. However, be that as it may be, one cannot take away the inducements of being in the Association and proving themselves, when most were at risk of facing the full might of the law themselves, for excesses in crime control (Mchunu, 2012).

Participant 6, observed that the active role of DCSL in facilitating the development of their Constitution and the MoU, has enabled member organisation to find legitimacy with other stakeholder in government and community, including the SAPS and CPFs, whom relationship with was initially strained. This and big part of a bigger picture seems to be other motivating factors for collaborative activity within KZNCCPA.

Notwithstanding subjective motivations by individual affiliates to stay within the association, Participant 7 indicated that ‘there is a need for members of the KZNCCPA to work together and improve their communication’. This alerts to the communication challenges of the Executive and the two Co-coordinating Committees. According to Kickert and Koppenjan (1997) cost of the management strategies in networks revolves around communication. In fact the quality of network interaction is as good as its communication; how affiliates are treated determines whether they will stay or live the network.

5.3. What are the perceived and actual benefits of the KZNCCPA for its members?

The main advantage of networks is synergy – achieving more than what is possible for each individual organisation (Brinkerhoff and Brinkerhoff 2001:168). As observed by Agranoff (1999:34), networks pool efforts and resources in service of common objectives. As mentioned in previous sections, affiliates of KZNCCPA have benefited immensely, symbolically and materially, from being part of the association. This was noted by many participants, who happen to belong to different affiliate organisations. Most participants acknowledged *information-sharing* as one of the major advantages, where members are able to work harmoniously together to share crime related information across the province. As a result, this information becomes an accessible resource to the SAPS as part of crime intelligence.

Furthermore, Participant 2 indicated that there is training and *educational programme* provided to the members of the network. They are also taught on the various stakeholders and role players within the criminal justice system (the suspect, the victim, the SAPS, the Justice Department, the Correctional Services and the community); and taught on how the best assist the process of investigation, arrest, detention and successful prosecution of criminals. *Empowerment of the members* is also a benefit members are provided with the ability to raise their own funds for crime awareness and prevention campaigns as they have a proper constitution and are capable of being registered as NGO where they are able to engage with sponsors or donors where they get training to ensure that they can prepare proper business plans. All this ensures that members of the KZNCCPA are better organized and are able to assess their own strengths and weaknesses and can better plan and coordinate activities.

The other noted advantage was the *shared resources*; the funds raised are used to benefit all members and they are better able to engage stakeholders. Participant 4 commented that ‘the benefits include support for members’ crime prevention initiatives and training on crime prevention. According to Participant 5 the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, has, to a large extent honoured its 2012 MoU undertakings to provides support to the Association, in terms of community consultation, administration and training on crime prevention, the criminal justice system, financial management, computer literacy and administration. As gathered from the discussions, many members of the Association, the Executive Committee, the District and Local Co-ordinating Committees, and general members from affiliate organisations, have been capacitated, and are now better equipped in crime fighting and prevention than they were four years back.

Most Participants also acknowledged that collaboration also increases the impact of their *voice and political clout* in terms of policy discussions. The fact that all crime-fighting organisations in KZN has a united voice, through a provincial decision making body, came as an advantage to many. This synergy also helps individual organisations to be recognised and accepted by the SAPS, and this is a great advantage since it increases their effectiveness and legitimacy in crime prevention. Participant 3 explained this point, by indicating that the network is accepted by the SAPS and other crime fighting and prevention stakeholders and are not regarded as vigilante groups (this is because by becoming members of the association they agree to abide by the law). This is evident from public acknowledgements that the Association and its affiliates receive from top government officials (DCSL, 2015). At the moment, the KZNCCPA seems to be a success story in the Province with regards to community crime preventions (DCSL Annual Report, 2013). As such, it may be advantageous for member organisations to be recognised and be part of bigger projects like the implementation Community Safety Forums, Community Education Programme and Community-in-Dialogue programme (CiDP) (ibid).

5.4. What are the disadvantages of the KZNCCPA network?

Many constraints of networks have been observed in literature, and most were discussed in Chapter 2. These include, but are not limited to, managing the complexity (Kickert, 1997), the ‘problem of many hands’ (Rhodes, 2005), interaction and leadership challenges (Kickert, 1997). These and others were discovered to be true for KZNCCPA, during data collection.

Lack of resources was indicated as a challenge by many participants. Participant 2 stated that most of the time they do not have sufficient resources to execute their activities and plans. ‘Most of the time we do not have basic facilities like office space, access to vehicles and means of communicating with the SAPs or other Association members’. This aspect seems to be still lagging behind from the commitments made by the DCSL in the 2012 MoU. The fact that most of the services provided by the Association is voluntary does not help matters. The need for remuneration for contribution was mooted by many participants in focus group discussions. However, one may also realise that some members may have been misinformed upon joining the network, as they may have hoped that with time, their services were going to be acknowledged through remuneration. However, the fact that such perceptions still exists, albeit mutedly, in the presence of a categorical Constitutional clause of non-compensation

(KZNCCPA Constitution 2012, Section 7.1) further indicate another problem within the network; communication.

Kickert (1997:53) has alluded to the challenges of communication within networks, by arguing that ‘the more actors involved in the interaction process, the more difficult it become to reach agreement.’ However, consensus is not the only challenge, as noted by Participant 11;

We do not know what the Executive does or decides; we are always left in the dark and it becomes difficult for us to operate the Local Co-ordination Committees without their proper guidance...

Participant 1 (P1) corroborated these sentiments by stating that establishing district coordinating committees is a challenge they are facing, since reaching. In line of the positive contribution the Association has made in the Province, the continued existence of the Association and its positive impact rely large of the communication strategies. With over 22 member affiliates far-flung in all directions of the Province, it may be hard for the 14-member Executive Committee to reach every local and district boy, and to manage this complexity. One cannot also ignore the fact that most of these organisations have bad blood with each other, as such expecting a harmonious relationship (KZNCCPA, Code of Conduct, 2012, Section 3.5) a lot has to be done to ensure conflict resolution within the Association.

Regardless of the MoU between them, and different closes of mutual respect in each other’s constitution, one of the noted challenges is that relations between KZNCCPA and the CPFs are often strained (P2). Participant 2 pointed to the fact that that KZNCCPA and CPF are very much in competition and fight a lot amongst on minor issues, as such the partnerships environment needed for successful crime prevention does not always exist. This has been further exacerbated by the political climate in the province, in which members of different political parties often clash. As a result, any forum, albeit non-partisan in orientation, will inevitably experience politically driven conflicts. KZNCCPA has not been spared. In late 2012 six (6) members of IsiKebhe (a major KZNCCPA) were killed while searching for stolen cattle at Pomoroy, eMthleni (DCSL Annual Report 2013:29). These conflicts and death threats are a reality to many KZNCCPA affiliates.

Participant 3, while acknowledging the work done by the DCSL in facilitating training and capacity building of KZNCCPA, has also indicated that there is a need for training particularly in leadership skills to members of the KZNCCPA, as they are not on the same level of education

as their counterparts in other NGOs. It may be possible that this is the reason of inconsistencies in management, particularly communication and facilitation the establishment of lower structures.

5.5. What lessons can be learnt from the KZNCCPA?

Based on the data collected through focus groups and document review, the researcher found a lot of information on the management activities of KZNCCPA. The researcher is convinced that different participants who are involved in the policy network have different views about the challenges of managing policy network. These views are expressed in the following findings:

- Members of the network do not have sufficient resources to execute their activities and plans; for example, some lack basic facilities.
- Due to cost cutting measures financial support and other resources has not been provided to the KZNCCPA.
- There is need for capacity building in terms of leadership skills.
- Expectation of remuneration; many members have a false meaning of volunteering service in the sense that they expect to be remunerated for their services, as much many have become discontent.
- Unstandardized communication within the network, especially at the district level. Many participants indicated that there is no flow of information among members and reports are not communicated. This is attributed to the lack of basic facilities and equipment like fax machines, computers and emails.

One major lesson from KZNCCPA relates to the role of the DCSL in the network. Klijin, (2000) indicate that when confronted with a network-like situation, governments may choose among the following options. First, they may choose not to join in network games. This means that they can unilaterally impose their ideas and goals on other social actors. This will require a huge investment in decision-making and implementation activities since there are existing dependencies that will need to be dealt with and the power of the opposition will need to be broken. The risks are high: is the sufficient and stable political support for such a strategy? How sure can we be that goal attainment means effectiveness and efficiency, given that policy development is based on imperfect information and that the strategic behaviour of target groups must be taken into account? And what does this mean for relations with parties on whom governments remain dependent both in the future and in parallel situations? (Klijin and Koppenjan, 2000: 15).

On the other hand, Klijin, (2000) notes that governments may decide to carry out their tasks in co-operation with other public, semi-public and private actors. Often, entering into dialogue

with non-governmental organizations is considered quite legitimate and a standard operating procedure. Co-operation with other public actors is explicitly mentioned because it is entirely possible that various governmental organizations, in performing their tasks, discover that they are dependent upon each other. But not every form of co-operation is acceptable or manageable. For instance, hierarchical supervisory relations between public actors may limit the possibilities of horizontal co-operation. Third, government can take up the role of process manager and try to facilitate interaction processes aimed at the resolution of certain problems or the realization of projects. The fact is that government is supposed to protect the common interest (Klijin and Koppenjan 2000:15).

Based on the above analysis the DCSL seems to be embarking on the third option as far as the KZNCCPA is concerned; acting as a process manager of the Association. In as much as the Association is a voluntary independent NGO in principle, in reality it is a functionary of the DCSL; existing and operating at the pleasure of the Department. The Department facilitated its formation (Mchunu, 2012), legitimising many of its affiliates in the presence of major criticism and charges of vigilantism, even from SAPS. As such, KZNCCPA presents a possibility of a hybrid network system, in which, even though popularly founded and run, the network is managed by government. Whether this is a positive or negative move remains to be seen, but it is beyond the scope of this study.

4.6 Conclusion

The role of KZNCCPA in community crime prevention in KwaZulu-Natal is undoubted. However, this chapter has raised possibilities of improvements regarding its management dynamics. These include the issue of capacitation and communication of different structures of the Association. Whether it is a positive thing that the Association relies on a government department for its funding and technical assistance remains to be seen. What can be ascertained is the enthusiasm with which KZNCCPA has embraced its role as an umbrella association for community crime prevention in the Province.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary

The current study was an attempt to bring theories of public network management into the explorative analysis of the KwaZulu-Natal Community Crime Prevention Association (KZNCCPA). Using focus group discussion with members of the Association, observing their meetings, and conducting an extensive document review in some of the pertinent documents, the study attempted to answer the following research questions:

- i. What network management style/s are evident in the KZNCCPA?
- ii. What are the perceived and actual benefits of the KZNCCPA for its members?
- iii. What are the strategies employed to encourage member participation and collaboration in the KZNCCP?
- iv. What are the advantages of the KZNCCPA network?
- v. What are the disadvantages of the KZNCCPA network?
- vi. What lessons can be learnt from the KZNCCPA?

After introducing the study in Chapter 1, Chapter 2 unpacked the relevant theories of network management. Emanating from the Public Management discourse, policy networks have emerged prominently in the 1980s as a new way of providing public services. It is often linked with the concept of governance, in which the emphasis is on steering the state into where many non-state actors can collaboratively partake in the provision of public services. The deliberation on policy networks focused on the characteristics of networks, the issue of network management, network management strategies, and constraints to policy network management. It was established that network management is a distinct kind of managing public organisations that is based on trust, collaboration and consensus, instead of the usual command and control.

Chapter 3 highlighted the methodological aspects of the study. In it, the research design, which qualitative case study, was unpacked, citing its advantages and challenges. Most importantly, the design was shown to be suitable for this explorative study, as it allowed various data collection strategies to be used. Even though the study only relied on a small representative sample of the Association, the triangulation of sources of data eventually made a credible case in answering the aims and objectives of this study.

Chapter 4 presented the case study, the KZNCCPA. However in order to understand the context in which the case study becomes relevant in fighting crime, the Chapter deliberated in the crime situation in South Africa, particularly the dialectics of the development of the National Crime Prevention Strategy. From an extremely crime control and fighting paradigm, the section showed how South Africa, in 1996 had to embrace an inclusive crime prevention strategy, which advocated for the notion of crime prevention partnerships. Under the Department of Community Safety and Liaison, the section, showed how the KwaZulu-Natal Holistic Community Liaison Framework was an attempt to embrace this inclusive crime prevention strategy. The chapter was then able to show the need and appreciate the relevance of the KZNCCPA within the Framework.

As a product of necessity, the KZNCCPA was initially an association of 14 voluntary community crime prevention organisations, who under the auspices of DCSL managed to be constituted into a non-profit organisation. The section also appreciated the reality that the formation of an umbrella body was a blessing in disguise for many of its constituent organisations since they were facing disbandment for active outside the law and meting vigilante justice. However, since its inception, the Association has worked hard, and most of the times closely with SAPS, CPFs and the DCSL, to dispel this charge of vigilantism. As of recent, they seem to be the success story of community crime prevention in the Province.

Chapter 5 presented the analysis of the study, triangulating data from focus groups, observation, document review and conceptual framework. This was done using 4 research questions as thematic areas: network management style; strategies of collaboration among members; advantages, as well as; challenges of networking for crime prevention. The study found that, being a legally constituted network with close ties to government, the KZNCCPA has unique management dynamics from many more independent networks. For one, the study found that, in as much as the Association is deemed as voluntary, most of the members are not free to leave the Association for fear of disbandment. In addition, using the Code of Conduct, the Executive Committee, notwithstanding its lack of capacity, is likely to use the command and control management strategies.

The study also found out that, unlike many networks in which keeping members within the network is a major challenge, the study found out that, this was not the same with KZNCCPA affiliates, since most of them have a more desirable existence within, rather than without, the

Association. The study also found a worrying revelation that many members, in as much as they have subscribed to a voluntary Association, with a categorical non-compensatory clause in the constitution; they still harbour resentment over non-remuneration for services rendered. This has been identified as one of the challenges of internal communication. Other challenges included a hostile political environment in which political conflicts find their way into different platforms of the Association, its non-partisan clause notwithstanding.

However, the study also noted some advantages of being in the Association for many affiliates. Like many other networks, sharing of resources and information seemed to be the greatest motivation. In the same line, many members seem to have benefited from the training and several capacity building initiatives from the DCSL. Another obvious example is the political clout and influence these organisations now wield as part of being in the Association. For example, in all the reporting documents of DCSL and State of the province addresses, there has been mention of the role of the KZNCCPA, since 2012. From this point of view, it seems that the Association has been a major success for both its members and the Province, notwithstanding need for management improvement.

6.2 Concluding Remarks

The operations of KZNCCPA, as a crime prevention network in South Africa, may well be best understood within the framework of service delivery. However, dealt with as a network, KZNCCPA presents, not only an interesting case of the success of public networks in crime prevention, but also the possibility of investigation in networks for public service delivery in South Africa. The reality that, in spite of the fact that the Association is under the auspices of DCSL, KZNCCPA is popularly formed; with community members taking it upon themselves to voluntarily engage one particular ‘wicked problem’, is a positive in the South Africa context. The hope is that such enthusiastic initiative will be acknowledged and encouraged by the government, even in other policy areas.

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