



The crime prevention role of street committees in selected townships in the eThekweni Municipal area

By

Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo

214579863

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Administration (*Public Administration*)

College of Law and Management Studies

School of Management, Information Technology and Governance

Supervisor: Prof. I.W. Ferreira

Co-Supervisor: Prof. H. Wissink

2022



UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

DECLARATION

I, Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo, declare the following:

- (i) The research reported in this thesis, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.
- (ii) This thesis has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) This thesis does not contain other people's data, pictures, graphs or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
- (iv) This thesis does not contain other people's writing, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers.
 - a) Where other written sources have been quoted, their words have been re-written but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
 - b) Where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed inside quotation marks and referenced.
- (v) Where I have reproduced a publication of which I am the author, co-author or editor, I have indicated in detail which part of the publication was written by myself alone and have fully referenced such publications.
- (vi) This thesis does not contain text, graphs or tables copied and pasted from the internet unless specifically acknowledged and the source detailed in the thesis as well as in the reference section thereof.

Signature

Date19 July 2021.....

DEDICATION

THIS RESEARCH STUDY IS DEDICATED TO THE FOLLOWING INDIVIDUALS WHO GAVE ME ABUNDANT LOVE DURING MY UPBRINGING:

- My late grandmother, Sibongiwe Tryphina Ngcobo (MaMvelase)
- My late father, Russell “Mswazi” Mfeka (Sweet, Lovely, Marvellous)
- My late mother, Eunice “Dombi” Ngcobo
- My late cousin, Sister Pearl “Kukie” Nomusa Nyuswa

You left an indelible mark in me. May God, our Almighty, rest your souls in eternal peace.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Numerous people behind this thesis deserve to be both recognised and acknowledged:

I would like to thank God, the Almighty for the vigour conferred upon me throughout the study- *“God does not call the qualified, but He qualifies the called”* (Corinthians 1: 27-29)

My two academic supervisors, Prof IW Ferreira and Prof H. Wissink, without their constructive leadership, support and encouragement, this thesis would not have been possible.

Ms G. Hendry, from the University of KwaZulu-Natal, for her assistance in shaping the questionnaire and in analysing the research data

Dr M.L. Klos, from One Stop Solution Professional Editing Services, for editing my thesis.

Mr Sipho Nzuza, the Municipal Manager of the eThekweni Municipality, for granting me permission to undertake this research

Comrade Nomzamo Mkhize, SANCO eThekweni Region Secretary, for allowing me to interview current and former members of street committees

I also wish to thank the respondents who participated in the research process. Their contribution of ideas and time were crucial to the completion of the research.

Dr Syanda A. Mthuli, for his passion, dedication, unwavering support, and for literally making all my study-troubles his own – This is genuine brotherhood, Dr. Mthuli

My fabulous wife, Guze Ngcobo (MaMhlongo), for her undivided loyalty, my 10-year old daughter, Lwandle, for rubbing her exuberance on me, Lwazi for his whole support and all my children Loverboy, Lucky-boy, Nqobile-Michelle, Polo B and Baya

My colleagues, Lungile Ngubane, Thabisile Ncayiyane and Zamindlela (Zam Zam) Mbhele; and my friends Raymond Skhumbuzo Letlaka and Edmund 'Muzi Mhlongo, your relentless support is highly appreciated

ABSTRACT

The role of street committees (SCs) in crime prevention in South Africa (SA) is key to combatting crime. Black local authorities (BLAs) commenced in 1982, leading to the formation of several civic structures. BLAs served the black population, but they were never accepted by the black majority for political reasons. They were regarded as apartheid projects. Moreover, BLAs allegedly contributed to the social stratification of society, and individuals who represented them developed a confrontational attitude towards the local community structures that boycotted them. In areas, such as Lingelihle in Cradock, boycotts led to the resignation of councillors from the BLAs. The Cradock Residents Association (CRADORA) was instrumental in the resignation of councillors in this area, owing to the pressure it had applied. It appears that, because of this pressure, CRADORA paved the way for the first formation of SCs in the country, although, before the advent of BLAs, civic organisations had been formed by the Committee of Ten (CoT) in Soweto in 1977. CRADORA was responsible for recruiting numerous township residents for the SCs, although the introduction of these structures in other areas differed from one community to another. SCs were robust structures that the security forces and police of the apartheid government could not control or disband. However, in 1988, SCs were ended by the repressive apartheid government that declared a state of emergency with a view to suppressing political protest, rather than dealing with the crime prevalent in the 1980s. However, these structures continued to operate clandestinely. Numerous crime prevention strategies have been used by the government. The crime scourge has ravaged many families, communities, businesses, and other societal sectors. This has necessitated the ANC-led government and a president of the country to call for the resuscitation of SCs to assist in crime prevention. This study focussed on the role of SCs in preventing crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the eThekweni Municipal Area. The investigation followed a mixed-methods methodology, and a case study design to collect and analyse data. The contribution to knowledge is that municipalities should enact by-laws that recognise street committees.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATION	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
LIST OF ANNEXURES	Error! Bookmark not defined.
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xx
LIST OF TABLES	xxi
ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	xxiii
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.1 National crime statistics	2
1.1.2 KZN crime statistics	2
1.1.3 Crime in the EMA.....	2
1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT	5
1.2.1 Main problem statement.....	5
1.2.2 Sub-problem statement 1	6
1.2.3 Sub-problem statement 2.....	6
1.2.4 Sub-problem statement 3.....	6
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS	6
1.4 AIM and OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY	7
1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY	7
1.6 demarcation OF THE STUDY	8
1.6.1 CHESTERVILLE	9
1.6.1.1 Education	10

1.6.1.2	Unemployment	11
1.6.1.3	HIV/AIDS	11
1.6.1.4	Crime in Chesterville	11
1.6.2	CLERMONT TOWNSHIP.....	12
1.6.2.1	Education	13
1.6.2.2	Household Income	13
1.6.2.3	Crime in Clermont	13
1.7	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	15
1.7.1	Quantitative and qualitative research methods	15
1.7.2	Qualitative research method	16
1.7.2.1	Data analysis for qualitative data	16
1.7.3	Quantitative research method	17
1.7.4	Data analysis for quantitative information	17
1.8	DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS	17
1.8.1	Crime	17
1.8.2	Street committees (SCs)	18
1.8.3	Community policing.....	18
1.8.4	Social crime prevention.....	18
1.8.5	Crime Prevention through Environmental Design	18
1.8.6	Ward committees (WCs)	19
1.8.7	Local government	19
1.8.8	January 8th Statement.....	19
1.8.9	Mandela Plan (M-Plan)	19
1.10	OUTLINE OF THE THESIS.....	19
1.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY	21
	CHAPTER TWO.....	22

PHILOSOPHICAL AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNANCE.....	22
2.1 INTRODUCTION	22
2.2 THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION in LOCAL GOVERNANCE.....	22
2.3 DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION	25
2.4 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND ITS USES.....	28
2.5 TYPES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION INTERNATIONALLY	29
2.5.1 United Kingdom	29
2.5.2 Community participation in crime prevention in Wandsworth, London	30
2.5.3 Australia	31
2.5.4 Partnerships in policing in Holland	32
2.5.5 The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy	32
2.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.....	33
2.7 CRIME PREVENTION AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION	35
2.8 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN the ETHEKWINI MUNICIPAL AREA (EMA)	37
2.8.1 Community participation within the eThekwini Municipality	37
2.8.2 Community Participation Policy (CPP) process in eThekwini Municipality	38
2.8.3 Principles for community participation.....	39
2.8.3.1 Structured Participation	39
2.8.3.2 Clarity of Purpose.....	40
2.8.3.3 Commitment.....	40
2.8.3.4 Communication	40
2.8.3.5 Flexibility and Responsiveness	40

2.8.3.6	Timelines	41
2.8.3.7	Inclusiveness.....	41
2.8.3.8	Collaboration	41
2.8.3.9	Diversity	41
2.8.4	Levels of community participation	41
2.8.4.1	Active citizenship.....	42
2.8.4.2	Citizens as proprietors or stakeholders	42
2.8.4.3	Citizens as customers or consumers.....	43
2.8.4.4	Citizens as policy makers and issue framers	43
2.8.4.5	Vision Builders.....	43
2.8.4.6	Community as resource standard assessors	43
2.8.4.7	Communities as joint amenities administrators and joint properties mobilisers	43
2.8.4.8	Communities as autonomous outcomes trackers.....	44
2.8.5	Processes of community participation.....	44
2.8.5.1	Information	44
2.8.5.2	Consultation	44
2.8.5.3	Involvement.....	45
2.8.5.4	Participation	45
2.8.5.5	Empowerment	45
2.8.6	Non-negotiable and negotiable issues	46
2.8.6.1	Non-negotiable.....	46
2.8.6.2	Negotiable	46
2.8.7	Rights and duties of stakeholders	47
2.8.7.1	Community	47
2.8.7.2	Party and Management Bureaucrats.....	48

2.8.7.3	Civil Society.....	49
2.9	SIGNIFICANCE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT	49
2.9.1	Selected Southern African countries	50
2.9.1.1	Malawi	50
2.9.1.2	Botswana	51
2.10	ROLE OF WARD COMMITTEES IN SERVICE DELIVERY	53
2.11	ROLE OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS IN SERVICE DELIVERY	55
2.12	STRATEGIC PARTNERSHIPS IN COMMUNITY POLICING	58
2.12.1	Structure of partnerships	60
2.12.2	Challenges of partnerships in policing.....	61
2.13	THE ROLE OF STREET COMMITTEES IN SERVICE DELIVERY.....	62
2.14	THE SIGNIFICANCE OF OPERATION SUKUMA SAKHE IN SERVICE DELIVERY.....	63
2.14.1	History of Operation Sukuma Sakhe	64
2.14.2	Operation Sukuma Sakhe’s objectives.....	64
2.15	ROLE OF LEADERSHIP AND STREET COMMITTEES IN COMMUNITY POLICING	65
2.16	SUMMARY	67
CHAPTER THREE.....		68
LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION		68
3.1	INTRODUCTION	68
3.2	The Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996	68
3.2.1	Section 152 of the Constitution	69
3.2.2	Section 195 of the Constitution	69
3.3	THE WHITE PAPER ON TRANSFORMING PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY, 1997.....	69

3.3.1	Consultation	70
3.3.2	Service Standards.....	70
3.3.3	Access	70
3.3.4	Courtesy.....	70
3.3.5	Information	70
3.3.6	Openness and Transparency.....	70
3.3.7	Redress.....	70
3.3.8	Best Value.....	71
3.4	THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) ACT 68 OF 1995.....	71
3.5	THE CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ACT 111 OF 1998	72
3.6	THE MUNICIPAL STRUCTURES ACT (117 OF 1998 as amended IN 2000)	72
3.7	THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEMS ACT 32 OF 2000	74
3.8	THE MUNICIPAL FINANCE MANAGEMENT ACT (MFMA) 56 OF 2003.....	77
3.9	INDEPENDENT POLICE INVESTIGATIVE DIRECTORATE (IPID) ACT 1 OF 2011.....	79
3.10	THE RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (RDP).....	80
3.11	NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGY OF 1996	81
3.12	INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN (IDP)	84
3.13	COMMUNITY POLICING: POLICY FRAMEWORK GUIDELINES OF 1997	84
3.14	WHITE PAPER ON SAFETY AND SECURITY, 1998.....	86
3.15	THE WHITE PAPER ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT (1998)	87
3.16	THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE INTERIM REGULATIONS FOR COMMUNITY POLICE FORUMS AND BOARDS OF 2001	89

3.16.1	Responsibilities of community policing forum.....	89
3.16.2	Difficulties faced by CPFs in crime reduction	90
3.17	THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NDP): VISION 2030	91
3.18	A STATUTORY FRAMEWORK FOR REGULATING STREET COMMITTEES.....	92
3.19	SUMMARY	93
	CHAPTER FOUR.....	94
	THE NATURE OF STREET COMMITTEES AND THEIR ROLE IN CRIME PREVENTION.....	94
4.1	INTRODUCTION	94
4.2	DEFINITION OF STREET COMMITTEES	94
4.3	RELEVANCE OF STREET COMMITTEES.....	95
4.4	EVOLUTION OF STREET COMMITTEES IN SOUTH AFRICA	96
4.5	FUNCTIONS OF STREET COMMITTEES.....	100
4.5.1	Objectives of street committees	101
4.6	USES OF STREET COMMITTEES	103
4.7	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STREET COMMITTEES AND SELECTED POLITICAL PARTIES	104
4.7.1	The South African Communist Party (SACP) and street committees	104
4.7.2	The Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP)	105
4.7.3	The African National Congress (ANC)	105
4.8	A CASE STUDY OF THE 2009 STREET COMMITTEE PROJECT IN CHESTERVILLE	106
4.8.1	Introduction	106
4.8.2	Approach.....	108
4.8.3	Planning overview	109

4.8.4	Street committee formation	110
4.8.4.1	Area Committees (ACs)	110
4.8.5	Creating a community team	111
4.8.6	Obtaining buy-in	111
4.8.7	Identification and training of facilitators	111
4.8.8	Initial community information meeting	112
4.8.9	Street meeting: orientation, nomination, and election of SC	112
4.8.10	Street committee induction training	113
4.8.11	Ongoing management of street committees	113
4.8.11.1	Meeting Structure	114
4.8.11.2	Communication	114
4.8.11.3	Financial Management	114
4.8.11.4	Role of Government and Private Sector Support	114
4.8.11.5	Review and Quality Process	115
4.8.11.6	Monitoring and Evaluation	115
4.8.11.7	Roles and Responsibilities of Stakeholders	116
4.8.12	Street committee rollout in KwaZulu-Natal	119
4.9	SUMMARY	120
	CHAPTER FIVE	121
	INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	121
5.1	INTRODUCTION	121
5.2	INTERNATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES	121
5.2.1	The key role of governments	122
5.2.1.1	Crime prevention as a permanent characteristic of administration	123
5.2.1.2	A permanent, essential directive	123

5.3	CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES IN BRICS, SADC COUNTRIES AND INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICE	140
5.3.1	Crime prevention in BRICS countries	140
5.3.1.1	Brazil	140
5.3.1.2	Russia and Crime Prevention Strategies.....	145
5.3.1.3	Community-Oriented Policing in India	147
5.3.1.4	China and its crime prevention strategies	149
5.3.1.5	Crime Prevention Strategies in South Africa	152
5.3.2	Crime prevention in SADC countries	156
5.3.2.1	Crime Prevention Strategies in Zimbabwe	156
5.3.2.2	Crime prevention in Zambia	157
5.3.2.3	Crime prevention in Mozambique.....	159
5.3.2.4	Crime Prevention in Swaziland	160
5.3.3	International best practice, Ottawa, Canada	162
5.4	COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR STREET COMMITTEES IN SOUTH AFRICA	163
5.5	THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STREET COMMITTEES AND LOCAL COUNCILLORS	164
5.6	VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION IN STREET COMMITTEES AND UNEMPLOYMENT	165
5.7	THE IMPACT OF INDUCTING STREET COMMITTEE MEMBERS	165
5.7.1	Documentation and templates created for Chesterville pilot project	166
5.8	STREET COMMITTEES, CIVIC ORGANISATIONS AND POLITICAL PARTIES	168
5.9	ATTITUDES OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS TOWARDS STREET COMMITTEES.....	170
5.10	SUMMARY	171

CHAPTER SIX	172
THEORETICAL MODELS FOR THE CONTEXTUALISATION OF THIS STUDY	172
6.1 INTRODUCTION.....	172
6.2 WHAT IS PUBLIC POLICY.....	172
6.3 PUBLIC POLICYMAKING, MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS	
INTRICACIES.....	174
6.3.1 The stage model.....	174
6.3.2 Policy regulatory framework in South Africa	175
6.3.3 Public policymaking in South Africa	175
6.4 ELITE THEORY	176
6.5 SUMMARY.....	179
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	180
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	180
7.1 INTRODUCTION	180
7.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS.....	180
7.3 AIMS OF RESEARCH.....	181
7.3.1 Purposiveness	181
7.3.2 Thoroughness	181
7.3.3 Testability.....	181
7.3.4 Replicability.....	181
7.3.5 Exactness and assurance	181
7.3.6 Objectivity	182
7.3.7 Generalisability	182
7.3.8 Parsimony.....	182
7.4 RESEARCH TYPES.....	183
7.5 PHILOSOPHICAL, THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL	
FOUNDATIONS OF RESEARCH	183

7.5.1	Defining a paradigm	183
7.5.2	Creswell's four worldviews	184
7.5.2.1	The postpositivist worldview	185
7.5.2.2	The social constructivist worldview	187
7.5.2.3	Transformative/advocacy/participatory worldview	188
7.5.2.4	The Pragmatic Worldview	190
7.6	RESEARCH DESIGN USED IN THIS STUDY	191
7.6.1	Qualitative research approach	192
7.6.2	Quantitative research approach	193
7.6.3	Mixed methods approach	193
7.7	RESEARCH STRATEGIES	194
7.7.1	Quantitative strategies	194
7.7.2	Qualitative strategies	195
7.7.3	Mixed methods strategies	197
7.8	DATA COLLECTION	199
7.8.1	Secondary data	200
7.8.2	Primary data	200
7.8.3	In-depth interviews	200
7.8.4	Survey questionnaires	201
7.9	RESEARCH SAMPLE	202
7.9.1	Sampling design	202
7.9.2	Sampling technique for quantitative data	202
7.9.3	Sampling technique for qualitative data	202
7.9.4	Sample size of community leaders	203
7.9.5	Sample size of community residents	203
7.10	ANALYSING OF DATA	204

7.10.1	Qualitative data analysis	204
7.10.2	Quantitative data analysis	204
7.11	DATA QUALITY CONTROL	204
7.11.1	Reliability and validity in quantitative research.....	205
7.11.2	Trustworthiness of qualitative research.....	205
7.11.3	Methodological triangulation	206
7.11.4	Pilot studies.....	207
7.11.5	Limitations of the study	208
7.11.5.1	Limited literature.....	208
7.12	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS.....	208
7.13	SUMMARY	209
	CHAPTER EIGHT.....	210
	RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS.....	210
8.1	INTRODUCTION	210
8.2	DATA ANALYSIS.....	210
8.2.1	Results of analysis of quantitative data (survey questionnaire data)	210
8.2.1.1	Distribution of survey questionnaires.....	211
8.2.1.2	Demographic details of respondents.....	211
8.2.1.3	Presentation of the results of the analysis of the answers to the 5-point Likert scale questions	216
8.2.1.4	Open-ended questions	246
8.2.1.5	Synopsis of the quantitative data analysis.....	247
8.2.2	Presentation of the analysis of the qualitative data (interview data)	249
8.2.2.1	Demographic profile of interview participants	249
8.2.2.2	Analysis of qualitative data presented in terms of the research objectives	250

8.3	DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS	262
8.3.1	Objective 1: The role of street committees in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area	262
8.3.1.1	Community custodians	262
8.3.1.2	Nodes of knowledge sharing	263
8.3.1.3	Evolution of street committees	263
8.3.2	Objective 2: To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area	263
8.3.2.1	Restore order	263
8.3.2.2	Socio-economic development	264
8.3.2.3	Institutional impediments	264
8.3.3	Objective 3: The relationship between street committees, ward committees and community policing forums in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.	265
8.3.3.1	Legitimacy	265
8.3.3.2	Abuse of CPF and WC Institution.....	266
8.3.3.3	Visible performance.....	266
8.3.3.4	Misunderstood and overlapping roles.....	267
8.4	DATA CONVERGENCE.....	268
8.5	SUMMARY	269
	CHAPTER NINE	271
	CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	271
9.1	INTRODUCTION	271
9.1.1	Research aim and objectives	271
9.2	OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS.....	272
9.3	RECOMMENDATIONS	272

9.3.1	Recommendation 1: Acknowledgement of the role of street committees in combatting crime.....	273
9.3.2	Recommendation 2: Resurrection of street committees.....	275
9.3.3	Recommendation 3: Legislation of street committees.....	275
9.3.4	Recommendation 4: Relationship between SCs, community policing forums and ward committees to be enhanced and their roles to be clearly defined.	276
9.3.5	Recommendation 5: Training of street committees.....	276
9.3.6	Recommendation 6: Resolve tensions between the street committees, ward committees and the local councillor	277
9.3.7	Recommendation 7: Review of the role of community policing forums in combatting crime	277
9.3.8	Recommendation 8: Role that improved legislation or public policy can play in formalising and recognising the roles of SCs.....	278
9.3.9	Recommendation 9: Non-partisanship of street committees.....	278
9.3.10	Recommendation 10: Street committee and South African Police Service partnership	279
9.3.11	Recommendation 11: Broad policy recommendation.....	279
9.3.12	Recommendation 12: Platform for community to recommend community programmes.....	280
9.4	THE STUDY'S CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE	280
9.5	FURTHER RESEARCH	281
9.6	CONCLUSION.....	281
	REFERENCES.....	282
	ANNEXURE A: PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE.....	315
	ANNEXURE B: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY	316

ANNEXURE C: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON FORMER AND CURRENT STREET COMMITTEE MEMBERS	317
ANNEXURE D: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER AND RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE	318
ANNEXURE E: INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE	327
ANNEXURE F: VUKUKHANYE/CRA INVITATION TO STREET COMMITTEE INDUCTION TRAINING AGENDA	330
ANNEXURE G: VUKUKHANYE STREET COMMITTEE DRAFT CONSTITUTION	331
ANNEXURE H: VUKUKHANYE/CRA INVITATION TO STREET COMMITTEE INDUCTION TRAINING.....	346
ANNEXURE I: ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL	347

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1: Map showing location of Chesterville in the Durban area of KwaZulu-Natal.....	9
Figure 1.2: Map of eThekwin Municipality showing location of Clermont in Durban	12
Figure 4.1: The outline of street committee formation	109
Figure 4.2: KwaZulu-Natal municipalities where street committees were earmarked for rollout in the 2009 street committee project	119
Figure 8.1: Respondents' profile according to gender, age, and employment.....	215
Figure 8.2: Respondents' profile according to residence and time living in the township	216
Figure 8.3: Respondents' responses on the role of street committees in crime prevention	222
Figure 8.4: What role can be played by legislation in street committees	226
Figure 8.5: Street committee relationship with other organs	231
Figure 8.6: Perceptions of community residents regarding street committees	239
Figure 8.7: The use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont	240
Figure 8.8: Role of legislation in street committees	241
Figure 8.9: Relationship between street committees and other bodies	242
Figure 8.10: Perceptions of community residents regarding SCs.....	244

LIST OF TABLES

Table 7.1: Worldviews	185
Table 8.1: Gender	211
Table 8.2: Age	212
Table 8.3: Place of residence	213
Table 8.4: Served on a street committee	213
Table 8.5: Employment status	214
Table 8.6: Length of stay in the township in years	214
Table 8.7: (Q 1.1)	218
Table 8.8: (Q 1.2)	219
Table 8.9: (Q 1.3)	220
Table 8.10: (Q 1.4)	221
Table 8.11: (Q 2.1)	223
Table 8.12: (Q 2.2)	224
Table 8.13: (Q 2.3)	225
Table 8.14: (Q 3.1)	227
Table 8.15: (Q 3.2)	228
Table 8.16: (Q 3.3)	229
Table 8.17: (Q 3.4)	230
Table 8.18: (Q 4.1)	232
Table 8.19: (Q 4.2)	233
Table 8.20: (Q 4.3)	234
Table 8.21: (Q 4.4)	235
Table 8.22: (Q 4.5)	236
Table 8.23: (Q 4.6)	237
Table 8.24: (Q 4.7)	238

Table 8.25: Objectives, interview questions and themes.....	250
---	-----

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS	acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ANC	African National Congress
AR	Area Committee
AZASO	Azanian Students Organisation
BAC	Business Against Crime
BLA	black local authorities
BRICS	Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa
CAPS	Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy
CBO	community-based organisation
CDW	community development worker
CHEYO	Chesterville Youth Organisation
COSAS	Congress of South African Students
CoT	Committee of Ten
CPF	Community Police Forum
CPP	Community Participation Policy
CPTED	Crime Prevention through Environmental Design
CRA	Chesterville Residents Association
CRADORA	Cradock Residents Association
CSF	Community Safety Forum
CYL	Clermont Youth League
EMA	eThekweni Municipal Area
HIV	human immunodeficiency virus
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party

IPID	Independent Police Investigative Directorate
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
MDM	Mass Democratic Movement
MFMA	Municipal Finance Management Act
M-Plan	Mandela Plan
NCPS	National Crime Prevention Strategy
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	non-governmental organisation
OSS	Operation Sukuma Sakhe
SACP	South African Communist Party
SAPS	South African Police Service
SC	street committee
UDF	United Democratic Front
WC	ward committee

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The role of street committees (SCs) in crime prevention is key to combatting crime in South Africa. According to Shubane (1991:64), black local authorities (BLAs) were introduced in South Africa (SA) in 1982, which led to the formation of numerous civic structures. However, according to Shubane (1991:72), before the BLAs, there were civic organisations formed by the Committee of Ten (CoT) in Soweto in 1977. BLAs were formed to serve the black population, but they were never accepted by the black majority for political reasons and were regarded as apartheid projects (Shubane, 1991:66). BLAs allegedly contributed to the social stratification of society and those who represented them developed a confrontational attitude towards local community structures that boycotted the BLAs.

In areas, such as Lingelihle in Cradock, boycotts led to the resignations of councillors from the BLAs (Shubane, 1991:68). The Cradock Residents Association (CRADORA) was instrumental in the resignation of councillors in this area because of the pressure it had applied on them. Thus, it appears that CRADORA paved the way for the establishment of the first SCs in the country. The Cradock Residents Association was responsible for recruiting numerous township residents for the SCs. "Thereafter street committees proliferated in various townships and became a characteristic feature of civic organisations throughout the country" (Shubane, 1991:73).

The introduction of SCs differs from one community to another (Makin & Marenin, 2017). A plethora of reasons, which include inter alia, malleability has been cited for this variation. Furthermore, COP ideology, virtually calls for variation. According to Makin and Marenin (2017:2), notwithstanding differences in how the rhetoric and values have been executed, all advocacy and embodiments of Community Oriented Policing (COP), globally, comprise the essential concepts of partnership and co-production by the police and their citizens. SCs were robust structures that the security forces and police of the apartheid government could not control or disband (Shubane, 1991:73). In 1988, SCs and community courts subsided when the repressive apartheid government declared a state of emergency with a view to suppressing political protest

and violence, rather than dealing with the crime prevalent in the 1980s (Minnaar, 2010:190). However, they continued to operate clandestinely from 1994 until today.

In this context, the study described in this thesis investigated the role of SCs in preventing crime in the greater eThekweni area. The ensuing section explains the crime statistics nationally, in the KZN Province and the EMA. National and provincial statistics link and relate to the focus area since they show that crime is not only rife locally, but it affects the country, nationally, provincially and locally. Crime is a scourge in SA.

1.1.1 National crime statistics

In South Africa, crime and violence are serious problems (De Wet, Somefun & Rambau, 2018:2). The following South African crime statistics reflect cases that were reported to the SAPS from the 1st of July 2021 to the 30th of September 2021. Despite the decline in crime in general, the figures indicate an increase of 1.0% in contact crimes and 4.7 % in sexual crimes. An 18.2% increase in burglary at non-residential premises was also recorded.

According to Stats SA, the number of reported murders in the country in the 2016/2017 financial year was 19 016, in 2017/2018 this number rose to 20 336, in 2018/2019, 21 022 murder cases were reported and in 2019/2020 there were 21 325 murders (Statistics SA, 2019/2020:5).

1.1.2 KZN crime statistics

KwaZulu-Natal recorded 4 382 cases of murder in the 2017/2018 financial year, 4 395 in the 2018/2019 period and 4 859 in the 2019/2020 financial year (Statistics SA, 2019/2020:154).

The ensuing section presents the eThekweni Municipal Area's (EMA) crime statistics and those for several high-ranking police stations in eThekweni.

1.1.3 Crime in the EMA

Ntuzuma, Inanda, KwaMashu and Umlazi are some of the police stations situated in the KZN province townships. They are specifically located in the eThekweni Municipal area where Chesterville and Clermont are also situated. Umlazi and Inanda police

stations were at the forefront of the country's reported sexual offences with 330 such offences reported in the 2017/2018 financial year in Inanda and 290 in Umlazi. During the 2018/2019 period, 385 offences were reported in Inanda and 301 in Umlazi and in the 2019/2020 financial year 351 offences were reported in Inanda and 335 in Umlazi. Despite a slight decline in Inanda from 385 to 351, these two townships in eThekweni lead the country in reported sexual offences (Statistics SA, 2019/2020).

According to the crime statistics reported in the first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year (April to June 2021), Umlazi had the highest number of reported murder cases and in the past had recorded 63 murders in the 2017/18 period, 49 in 2018/19, 52 in the 2019/20 financial period, 31 in the 2020/21 period and 73 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year.

Inanda Township was number 4 in the country in terms of murder cases and among the top 30 stations overall. Inanda recorded 53 murders in 2017/18, 44 during 2018/19, 61 during 2019/20, 39 in the 2020/21 period and 63 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year.

Ntuzuma Township was listed at number 18 in the top 30 police stations. This township recorded 15 murders during 2017/18, 16 in 2018/19, 14 during 2019/20, 10 murders in 2020/21 and 30 murders in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year.

KwaMashu was placed at number 30 in terms of murder cases reported and recorded 26 murders in the 2017/18 financial year, 20 in 2018/19, 34 in 2019/20, 12 in 2020/21 and 23 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year.

Umlazi and Inanda townships in EMA were placed at number one and two respectively for attempted murder among the top 30 stations in the country. Umlazi Township recorded 51 attempted murder cases in 2017/18, 55 during 2018/19, 30 in 2019/20, 34 during 2020/21 and 108 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year. Inanda Township recorded 24 in 2017/18, 20 in 2018/19, 29 in 2019/20, 29 during 2020/21 and 61 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021).

Umlazi was placed at number 9 and Pinetown at number 25 for recorded cases of carjacking among the top 30 police stations (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021).

Inanda, Umlazi and Pinetown were at numbers 1, 3 and 19 respectively in the kidnapping category of the top 30 stations in the country (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021).

Inanda and Umlazi were at numbers 1 and 6 respectively for the number of reported rape cases among the top 30 police stations (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021).

Inanda and Umlazi were at numbers 2 and 6 respectively in the sexual offences category of the top 30 police stations in the country (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021).

Crime policies have lagged international crime prevention trends owing to apartheid, despite the public response to crime matching that of other countries, like USA and Canada. The South African policing system focused on political control rather than crime control during the apartheid era (Palmary, 2001). Nevertheless, the demise of apartheid restored hope to citizens and the worldwide community that the crime rate in SA would decrease; however, that did not occur (Manaliyo, 2014).

According to the eThekweni Municipality (2015/16:4), contact crimes reported to the police in the area numbered approximately 48 066, the highest in the country during the period 2011-12. In 2015/2016, eThekweni and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) observed an upward trajectory in murder cases totalling 18 673 (eThekweni Municipality, 2015/16:4). According to eThekweni Municipality (2017-2018:124), visible policing, CCTV cameras and crime mapping initiatives are some of the measures introduced by eThekweni Municipality to curb crime. Moreover, 22 crime awareness campaigns were undertaken at national level and 61 at provincial level during the period 2016/2017 (South African Police Service, 2016/2017:128).

However, official municipal measures like the ones mentioned above, do not seem to be sufficient in curbing crime, which is often left to the community. For example,

according to Mabunda (2018), currently, in SA, community members go to great lengths to patrol the streets at night, placing their lives at risk. In addition, these SCs monitor the closing times of informal taverns and mediate in council house allocations, ensuring that they are given to deserving people (Nxumalo, 2013:2; Dlamini, 2017).

The continued increase in the crime rate presents an opportunity for researchers to study crime alleviation strategies. Crime statistics have shown that most of the serious crime occurs in townships (Crime statistics, first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021). Thus, the study described in this thesis investigated the role of SCs in the prevalence and the alleviation of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban, KZN.

1.2 THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

This section of this thesis presents the main problem statement and the sub-problem statements originating from it.

1.2.1 Main problem statement

Despite government attempts to combat crime, research indicates that over the years crime has been spiralling out of control in SA. Crime reduction and the building of safer communities should be prioritised by all in SA. The ANC (2019:20) stated the following:

“We are working towards a society where everyone is able to walk the streets, play and work throughout this country at all hours of the day and night without fear. We will strengthen police visibility in our communities by increasing the number of policemen and women.”

According to the ANC (2019), a clarion call is made to every South African to embolden CPFs and CSFs. Moreover, all South Africans are urged to know their neighbours and be worried about their lives.

To attain the goals mentioned above, communities must initiate a crime prevention strategy at the grassroots level. This strategy must place an emphasis on community mobilisation, which should involve community structures that collaborate with law enforcement authorities, businesses, community-based organisations (CBOs), the Department of Social Welfare (DSW) and churches. The challenges, which have been

observed over the past years, are that despite several government interventions to combat crime and the call for the formation of SCs, crime has continued to escalate.

The following sub-problem statements will elaborate on the main problem statement presented above.

1.2.2 Sub-problem statement 1

Crime prevention agencies, such as CPFs, fail in their crime prevention duties. According to Van Niekerk (2014), the country continues to experience high numbers of deaths, injuries and disabilities because of crime. According to Pelser and Louw (2002:1), a clear comprehension of what defines and constitutes crime prevention does not exist, which means that ward committees (WCs), CPFs and other statutory structures cannot alleviate crime alone.

1.2.3 Sub-problem statement 2

According to Pelser and Louw (2002:3; Mabunda, 2018; Dlamini, 2017; Snyman, 2017), the expectation that the police can deal with crime on their own contributes negatively to crime prevention. In addition, no clear definition of the police's part in crime prevention exists (Pelser & Louw, 2002:3).

1.2.4 Sub-problem statement 3

A lack of partnerships, inadequate resources and the history of SA are among the challenges that contribute to crime in the townships (Minnaar, 2010:190). Without SCs and the proper co-ordination of crime prevention agencies, crime will continue.

The SCs in various townships are not utilised properly to alleviate crime. Moreover, municipalities need to fulfil their function with respect to crime prevention and to collaborate with members of the public and the police, who have a role in the alleviation of crime (Landman & Liebermann, 2005:25). The fact that SCs are not legislated contributes to the surge of crime in townships.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions that informed and guided the study are listed below:

1. What is the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
2. What role can be performed by legislation in formalising and recognising SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
3. What is the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
4. What are the perceptions of community residents with regard to SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main aim of the study was as follows:

- To explore the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To examine the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area
2. To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
3. To explore the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area
4. To explore the perceptions of community residents with regard to SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Numerous research studies of crime prevention have focused on CPFs and other structures determined by legislative prescripts. Limited consideration has been paid to the role of street structures in crime prevention. In addition, the available research on crime prevention focuses on crime prevention strategies, partnerships, challenges, and opportunities, for example. Therefore, the significance of the current study is that

it researched the role of SCs in crime prevention, which has not featured in studies so far.

The ANC-led government has made a continuous appeal for the resuscitation of SCs to combat crime:

“We reiterate the call for ANC branches to provide support to law enforcement agencies in the fight against crime, including establishing and strengthening street committees” (ANC, 2010:14).

The ANC has been campaigning for the revival of SCs through their January 8 Statements, election manifestos, national general councils, Lekgotlas, national elective conferences and other forums. However, block/village/street committees should not be formed along political party affiliations. Instead, they should aim to coordinate the community, regardless of political associations (Nzimande, 2008:1). According to Nxumalo (2013: 2), the role of SCs, in the new era, is to serve as overseers sensitising the police to volatile areas.

Moreover, not only might the findings of the study on the role of SCs in preventing crime be of significance in the research field of crime prevention, but it might also contribute to the literature on the formation of SCs.

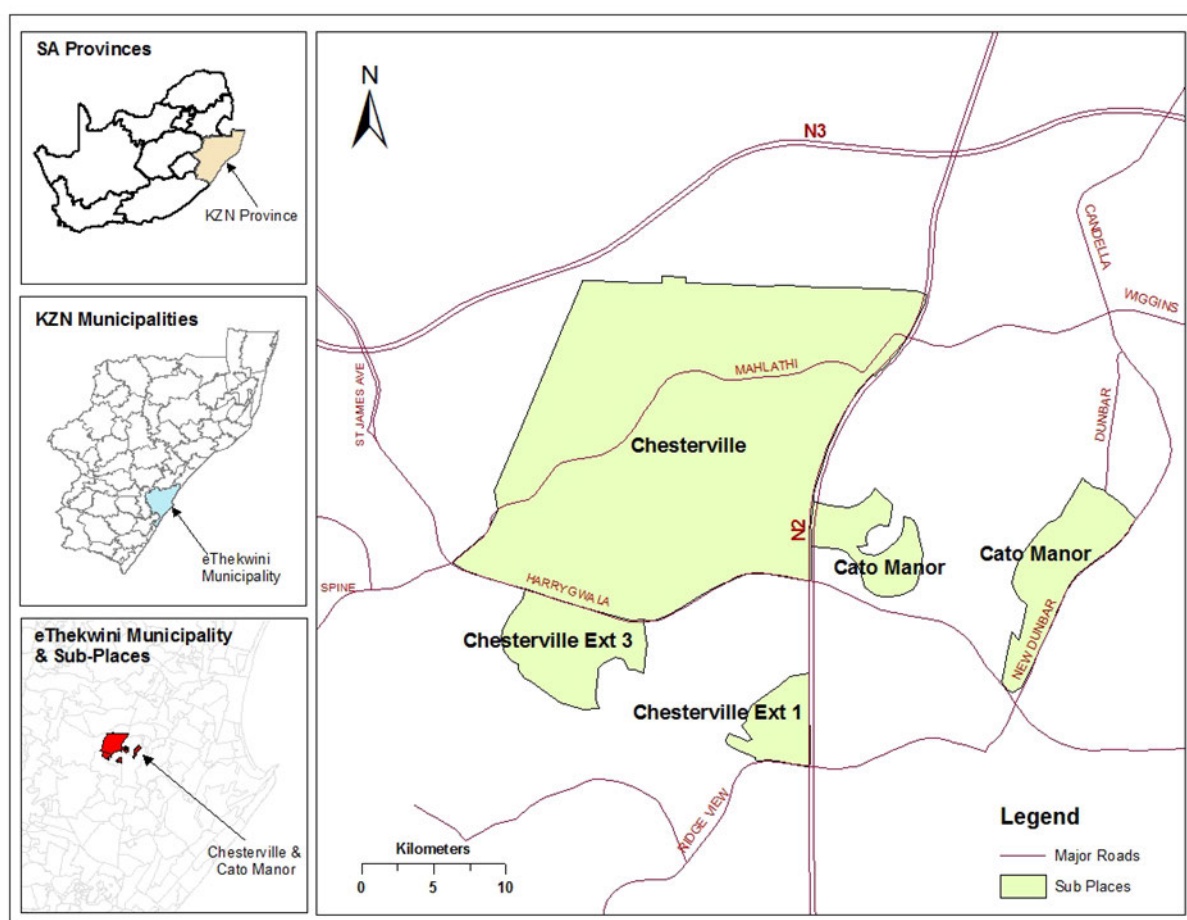
1.6 DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

This study focused on Durban’s townships of Chesterville and Clermont where SCs were prevalent in the 1980s. Numerous residents of these two townships took part in the United Democratic Front (UDF) and the Mass Democratic Movement’s (MDM) activities, as these were anti-apartheid structures conversant with the workings of SCs. These residents are now members of the ANC and take part in the current SCs.

In June 2009, a pilot project involving SCs was implemented in Chesterville, in a joint programme involving businesses, the Chesterville Residents Association (CRA) and Vukukhanye, a non-governmental organisation (NGO) (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:6). In Clermont township, training was conducted for SC members in 1992 (Nina, 1993:137).

The study described in this thesis focusses on Chesterville and Clermont townships, which are situated within the EMA. There are SCs currently operating in these two areas with several members who began serving before democracy and others who have been serving since democracy. Numerous current SC members began participating post-1994. Approximately 92.3% of the current SC members had served in the SCs before the advent of democracy.

Maps depicting Clermont and Chesterville, respectively, are shown in Figures 1.1 and 1.2 below.



Source: Masinga (2014:35)

Figure 1.1: Map showing location of Chesterville in the Durban area of KwaZulu-Natal

1.6.1 CHESTERVILLE

Chesterville is a portion of the Cato Manor area of eThekweni Municipality (Vukukhanye, 2009:5). It is situated 13 kilometres away from the city of Durban

precinct (Motsemme, 2011:152). Chesterville is a previously disadvantaged township (Vukukhanye, 2009:5).

The municipal ward boundaries of Ward 24 of Chesterville defines the exact study location. Parts outside Ward 24 of Chesterville, which are Westville and Ward 29, were excluded in the study. The population of Chesterville residents is 15 840 (Stats SA, 2011).

According to Mkhize (2004), the township of Chesterville was not developed because of forced removals and relocations as were most South African townships with a legacy of apartheid. It was originally part of the Blackhurst Estate, which was meant for agricultural purposes. However, through neglect, it later developed into a large squatter settlement. According to Masinga (2014:36), Chesterville differs from several other townships because it is close to a city, in this case Durban and the houses in Chesterville are an apartheid architectural image of four-roomed houses with brick walls, asbestos roofs, two bedrooms, a kitchen with a water tap and a sitting room (Motsemme, 2011:153). According to Maylan (1983), the objective of the Durban City Council was that Chesterville Township would provide formal housing for Cato Manor shack-dwellers. It was also perceived as an area that could profit industry by providing a cheap labour pool. According to Vukukhanye (2009:6), prevalent nutrition deficiency, joblessness, excessive HIV contamination, societal/family violence/abuse, substance abuse, orphans, unstable families, and relatively low education levels, for example, characterise Chesterville.

1.6.1.1 Education

There are two high schools in Chesterville, namely Chesterville Secondary School and Chesterville Extension Secondary School. In 2016, the Chesterville Senior Secondary School Grade 12 pass rate was 37.2%, whereas in 2017, it was 80.6 %. However, in 2018, the pass rate at the same school was 82.6% (RSA, 2018:136). In Chesterville Extension Secondary, the pass rate was 95% in 2016, 96.1 % in 2017 and 97.9 % in 2018. Though education levels were low, there was a notable improvement post 2016.

1.6.1.2 Unemployment

According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (2011), the unemployment rate in the eThekweni Municipality was 32.4% in 1996 and 43.0 % in 2001. It was 30.2 % in 2011, which was less than all the other South African municipalities (Stats SA, 2011). However, this was higher than that of Chesterville, which was 25%.

1.6.1.3 HIV/AIDS

According to the District Health Information Systems (DHIS), anti-retroviral therapy (ART) cases (those receiving ARVs) numbered 4658 in Chesterville as at the end of March 2022.

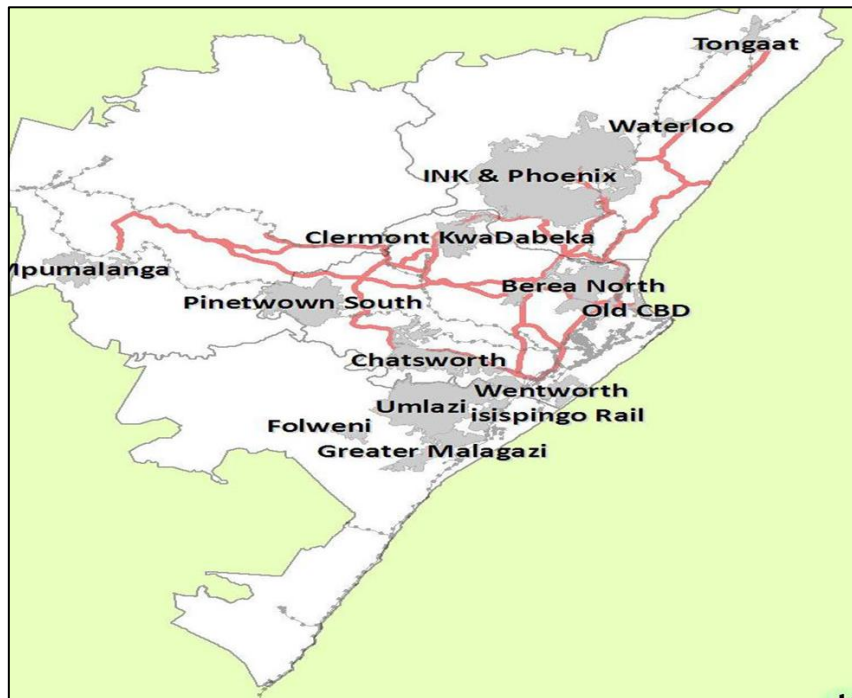
1.6.1.4 Crime in Chesterville

Intolerable degrees of crime, including extensive domestic violence and child abuse, are prevalent in Chesterville (Vukukhanye, 2009). According to Vukukhanye (2009:6), Chesterville witnesses intolerable levels of crime. These crimes include, inter alia, theft, assault, which includes stabbings and robberies, hijacking, rape and murder. Domestic violence and child abuse/neglect cases are also rampant in Chesterville (Vukukhanye, 2009).

Cato Manor police station is the nearest and the official police station that services Chesterville. All Chesterville criminal cases are reported at Cato Manor police station. According to eThekweni Municipality (2015-2016:20), Cato Manor recorded 107 per 100 000 sexual crime cases. A total of 2018 cases of crime were reported during 2015-2016 period in Cato Manor police station (eThekweni Municipality, 2015-2016: 41).

South African Police Service Crime Statistics (2015/2016) reported that murder decreased from 40 reported cases in 2015 to 38 in 2016. Sexual offences lessened from 100 reported cases in 2015 to 79 in 2016. Attempted murder reduced from 32 cases in 2015 to 21 in 2016. Assault with the intent to inflict grievous bodily harm increased from 171 cases in 2015 to 224 in 2016. Common assault declined from 103 reported cases in 2015 to 34 in 2016. Common robbery increased from 143 cases in 2015 to 191 in 2016. Robbery with aggravating circumstances reduced from 125 reported cases in 2015 to 118 in 2016. Arson rose from 3 reported cases in 2015 to 5 in 2016. Malicious damage to property rose from 64 cases in 2015 to 75 in 2016.

In 2017 and 2018, the following cases of crime were reported in Cato Manor: 88 sexual offences, 33 and 34 cases of carjacking respectively; 23 and 28 cases of house robbery respectively, 9 and 25 cases of business robbery respectively and 248 and 283 cases of house burglary respectively (Crime Statistics, 2017/2018).



Source: Google (2019: Online)

Figure 1.2: Map of eThekweni Municipality showing location of Clermont in Durban

1.6.2 CLERMONT TOWNSHIP

Mchunu and Mtapuri (2020:389) describe Clermont as a mainly working-class area sprinkled with middle-class professionals (teachers, lawyers, nurses, doctors and neighbourhood shop owners). Clermont Township is located 15 kilometres west of the Durban metropolis (Mchunu & Mtapuri, 2020). KwaDabeka serves as a border on the northern side with Pinetown, Westville, New Germany and the Reservoir Hill's (Mvuyana, 2010:2). Clermont epitomises South African townships with limited employment (estimated at 32%); low education levels (75% lacking secondary schooling), limited skills and a concentration in low-skilled professions (56% of the population) and low incomes (43% of Clermont households) (Robins et al., 2010). The streets are rife with teenagers committing petty crime. According to Mvuyana (2010), Clermont is officially laid out within appropriate subdivided plots, initially built more than 40 years ago, whilst KwaDabeka on the other hand, is somewhat informal and

has been in existence for more than 20 years. Clermont has witnessed a proliferation of shacks since people from the rural areas come and look for work opportunities in the neighbouring suburbs of Westville, New Germany, Pinetown, and an industrial area known as Westmead (Mvuyana, 2010). Since the end of segregation, this area has experienced an extensive development of squatters, as rural people come and pursue employment prospects in neighboring Westville and New Germany, Pinetown and Durban outskirts (Mvuyana, 2010).

According to KwaZulu-Natal Gaming Board (2019), the Clermont population is approximately 52, 075(7500.83 per km²). Two sub-places of Clermont include Chris Hani and Clermont Umngeni (KwaZulu-Natal Gaming and Betting Board, 2019).

1.6.2.1 Education

Ziphathele High School in Clermont achieved matric pass rates of 56 % in 2016, 41 % in 2017 and 30% in 2018 (RSA, 2018:124). According to RSA (2018:123), Clermont's Sithengile Secondary School achieved matric pass rates of 79.3 % in 2016, 77 % in 2017 and 85 % in 2018. Sithokozile Secondary School achieved matric pass rates of 74.6 % in 2016, 57.1 % in 2017 and 86.2 % in 2018.

1.6.2.2 Household Income

According to Census (2011), as cited in KwaZulu-Natal Gaming and Betting Board (2019:54), 22.6% of Clermont's residents/families receive no income and 80% are in the category of low to no salary (R0 to R38 200 per annum). 19% of the township's middle-income families earn from R38 201 to R614 600 per annum). Thus, Clermont's population is mostly made up of low-salaried individuals/families.

1.6.2.3 Crime in Clermont

KwaDabeka is an extension of Clermont township, and the two areas share two police stations with other surrounding areas, which are KwaDabeka and Pinetown. According to eThekweni Municipality (2015-2016: 17), there was a total of 59 murders in 2014-2015 period in KwaDabeka and 66 murders during 2015-2016. Clermont was one of the areas which was considered unsafe by people after dark in their homes during 2012-2013 period (eThekweni Municipality, 2015-2016:38). KwaDabeka recorded a total of 2498 reported crimes in 2015-2016 (eThekweni Municipality 2015-2016:41).

KwaDabeka recorded 818 cases of contact crime during 2015-2016 period (eThekweni Municipality, 2015-2016: 43). According to eThekweni Municipality (2015-2016:47), a total of 81 sexual crimes was reported in KwaDabeka in 2015-2016. One hundred and sixty-three (163) aggravated robbery cases were recorded in KwaDabeka during the same period (eThekweni Municipality, 2015-2016:49). 626 property related crime cases were recorded in KwaDabeka in 2015-2016 period. :51). A total number of 76 cases of burglary at business premises were recorded in KwaDabeka during the same period (eThekweni Municipality, 2015-2016 :53). According to eThekweni Municipality (2015-2016: 55), about 396 cases of burglary at residential premises were reported at KwaDabeka during 2015-16 period. The Kwa-Dabeka police station was ranked number 25 in the murder category on the list of the top 30 police stations in the country and recorded 15 murders in the 2017/18 period, 19 in the 2018/19 period, 18 in the 2019/20 period, 8 during the 2020/21 period and 26 in the first quarter of the 2021/22 financial year (Crime statistics, first quarter of 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021:13).

Pinetown was ranked number 7 on the list of 17 community-reported serious crimes: top 30 stations in the country. During the 2017/18 financial year, Pinetown recorded 1 987 cases, in 2018/19 it recorded 1 791, in 2019/20 it recorded 1 778, in 2020/21 1 135 cases were recorded and in the 2021/22 financial year, 1 694 cases were reported (Crime statistics, first quarter of 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021:8).

According to the crime statistics, in the first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year (April to June 2021:11), Pinetown was listed as number 27 on the list of the top 30 police stations for contact crime. In the 2017/18 period it recorded 658 cases, in the 2017/18 period, Pinetown police station recorded 507 cases, in the 2018/19 period it recorded 505 cases, whereas in the 2019/20 period it recorded 310 cases. During the 2020/21 period, 575 cases were recorded and in the 2021/22 period 265 cases were recorded in the Pinetown police station in the eThekweni municipal area.

Pinetown police station was placed at number 13 for common robbery on the list of the top 30 stations in SA and recorded 99 cases in the 2017/18 period, 81 during the 2018/19 period, 71 cases in the 2019/20 period, 45 cases in the 2020/21 period and 79 cases in the 2021/22 period (Crime statistics, first quarter of 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021:36).

Pinetown police station was second in the robbery with aggravating circumstances category on the list of the top 30 stations in the country and recorded 368 cases in 2017/18, 254 in the 2018/19 period, 259 in the 2019/20 period, 128 during the 2020/21 period and 300 in the 2021/22 period (Crime statistics, first quarter of 2021/2022 financial year — April to June 2021:38).

According to the crime statistics published in the first quarter of the 2021/2022 financial year (April to June 2021:48), Pinetown police station was placed at number five in the robbery at non-residential premises category of the top 30 police stations.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A research methodology is the general approach followed by a researcher when executing a research project. The chosen approach determines the tools that the researcher will use (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:7).

This study adopted a mixed-methods research approach, which is a form of triangulation, and a case study design to collect and analyse data. This study drew its data from the non-empirical and empirical sources. There are several reasons for conducting an exploratory study of existing literature in a research project. According to Creswell (2009:25), an assessment of existing literature has several purposes. It assists in filling gaps and extending studies that have been conducted before. One of the benefits of assessing written works is that it assists the investigator in determining whether the research problem has already been solved or addressed by other researchers (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:51).

In addition to the literature search mentioned above, empirical data were collected. The empirical phase consisted of qualitative and quantitative data collection. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:269), qualitative and quantitative methods are useful if the investigator pursues extensiveness and balance in a study. To obtain data on the role of SCs in crime prevention, the researcher interacted with communities from Chesterville and Clermont.

1.7.1 Quantitative and qualitative research methods

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:269), qualitative and quantitative research methods are utilised when the researcher seeks completeness and complementarity

in an investigation. An investigator's procedure could be reliable if the qualitative and quantitative information leads to identical inferences. Collecting both qualitative and quantitative data could ensure triangulation, which is the gathering of more than one type of data to achieve a more balanced understanding of the phenomenon under study than would be achieved by using only one (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:269). Thus, the mixed methods approach entailing an equal, collective usage of quantitative and qualitative data could lead to credible research findings (Creswell, 2014:3).

1.7.2 Qualitative research method

A qualitative research method is utilised in determining and comprehending connotations that groups or individuals assign to a condition or common challenge. In a qualitative investigation, a researcher's role may differ. For example, he/she could be a non-respondent in a structured interview situation or a whole respondent in participatory research (Creswell, 2014:190). In the empirical study, the researcher interacted with communities from Chesterville and Clermont to learn from them about SCs.

The researcher interviewed eight former UDF activists, four from Chesterville and four from Clermont townships. Thus, the overall sample size for the qualitative data was eight.

This sample was selected because the participants had been involved in most UDF activities; moreover, they were conversant with the workings of SCs.

1.7.2.1 Data analysis for qualitative data

Analysis of qualitative data that consists of large amounts of words (text) gathered from primary or secondary sources, which include news articles, interview notes and the like, entails breaking up the information into manageable units (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:332). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:160), qualitative data analysis mainly involves the identification of themes in participants' descriptions of their experiences. According to Dey (1993: 32), qualitative analysis entails connecting, classifying, and describing.

1.7.3 Quantitative research method

A quantitative account of tendencies, attitudes or people's sentiments involves numerical measurements of the data provided by the sampled research participants (Creswell, 2014:155). Creswell (2009:4) maintains that the aim of the quantitative method is to regulate the relations among independent and dependent variables.

Chapter 6 will explain the study's quantitative sample size.

1.7.4 Data analysis for quantitative information

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25, a popular statistical tool, was used for the analysis of the quantitative data. The results indicated the role of SCs in preventing crime. These statistical results were validated by a qualified, registered statistician. Through SPSS, the researcher performed an expressive analysis of the quantitative data. Thus, occurrence distribution and graphical displays of the information that had been collected by means of the survey questionnaire were obtained and presented.

1.8 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Since it is essential to develop a full understanding of the study, various key concepts used throughout this thesis are explained below.

1.8.1 Crime

Crime has numerous denotations and connotations, criminals are motivated by various factors, and various kinds of crimes entail numerous solutions and causes. The fundamental causes of rape, child abuse and car hijacking vary from professional crime to mental illness, for example (National Crime Prevention Strategy, 1996:9). According to Burger (2015:46), "*crime is an unlawful act of commission or omission which results from a number of risk factors, including but not limited to socioeconomic, environmental and political factors, and which is punishable by law.*"

1.8.2 Street committees (SCs)

Small teams comprising the inhabitants of a road or area for combatting crime are defined as SCs (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:19). The members of SCs are elected to serve on a voluntary basis (Mngqibisa, 2009:7). In addition, SCs are defined as formal groupings that deal with issues of community safety (Ndwamato, 2013:52).

1.8.3 Community policing

Although there are various definitions of community policing, it comprises two components: partnership with a community and problem solving (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994:-vii). Essentially, community policing involves cooperation between the public and the police in recognising and resolving public challenges (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994:-vii).

Its main objective is crime and disorder reduction by carefully inspecting features of the challenges in vicinities and by implementing suitable problem-solving solutions (Bureau of Justice Assistance, 1994:13). According to Lab (2014:345), community policing is *“a new philosophy of policing rather than a clearly definable method; generally, includes community involvement, problem-solving, a community base, and redefined goals for the police”*.

1.8.4 Social crime prevention

Although social crime prevention can be defined in numerous ways, it aims to minimise social and economic factors that encourage crime (Republic of South Africa: White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998:12). Although the following quotation refers to crime prevention in general, it could be applied to social crime prevention that examines the causes of criminal behaviour:

Crime prevention entails any action designed to reduce the actual level of crime and/or the perceived fear of crime (Lab, 2014:27).

1.8.5 Crime Prevention through Environmental Design

Although there are various definitions of crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED), Crowe (2000:46) defines CPTED in terms of a suitable project to change the built environment to decrease crime and violence and enhance human life.

1.8.6 Ward committees (WCs)

A WC is a committee that is grounded or created in a local municipality. The borders of a WC correspond with the margins of a ward, which is a division of a municipality (Thornhill & Maduna, 2011:766). This committee's essential role involves ensuring the electorate's direct participation in council pronouncements (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2006).

1.8.7 Local government

Different scholars define local administration in various ways. According to one definition, *"local government as a term itself refers to the sphere of government, not to an individual municipality. Existing municipalities therefore make up what is known as local government"* (Roux, 2005:116).

1.8.8 January 8th Statement

The ANC was formed on January 8th, 1912. It issued its first January 8th Statement in exile in 1972. This statement mapped the organisation's programmes for the year; however, there was an interval until 1979, when the next January 8th Statement was issued.

This idea of commemorating the anniversary of the founding of the organisation with a January 8th Statement became a tradition over the years (South African History Online, 2018:1).

1.8.9 Mandela Plan (M-Plan)

The Mandela Plan (M-Plan) was one of the structures of the ANC, on which the formation of SCs was based. It comprised command structures that involved local community organisations represented by area or block committee members (Minnaar, 2010:196).

1.10 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1: Introduction and background to the study

This chapter provides an introduction, the outline and the background to the study and the theoretical framework.

Chapter 2: Philosophical and historical overview of community participation in local governance

This chapter presents a philosophical and historical overview of community participation in local governance, as the study focussed on the role of street committees in crime prevention in selected townships in the EMA.

Chapter 3: Legislative framework for community participation in local governance

This chapter explains relevant legislation on community participation.

Chapter 4: The nature of street committees and their role in crime prevention

This chapter elucidates the functions, uses and relevance of street committees. It elucidates the role of street committees in other areas and townships and further provides a case study of street committees in Chesterville.

Chapter 5: International and national crime prevention strategies

This chapter explains international strategies, international best practice and national crime prevention strategies in Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa (BRICS) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and also the theoretical framework of the study.

Chapter 6: Research methodology

This chapter focuses on research paradigms, worldviews and explains methods and designs.

Chapter 7: Data presentation, analysis, and explanation of findings

This chapter focuses on the analyses of the data and the discussion of the findings.

Chapter 8: Concluding remarks and recommendations

This chapter summarises all the preceding chapters, provides recommendations based on the study and makes concluding remarks.

1.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter has presented the research problem, the sub-problems, the research questions, and the objectives underpinning the study that explored the role of street committees in crime prevention in selected townships in EMA. Other sections of the chapter included the significance and demarcation of the study. The research methodology to achieve the study objectives was described and relevant concepts used throughout the thesis were explained. The layout of chapters was provided. The following chapter gives a philosophical and historical overview of community participation in local governance, as the focus of the study was on the role of SCs in the prevention of crime in selected townships in the EMA.

CHAPTER TWO

PHILOSOPHICAL AND HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNANCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The study described in this thesis was about the role of SCs in crime prevention. The involvement of such structures in crime prevention implies community participation in solving a problem experienced in a specific locality regulated by local government (municipality). Therefore, this chapter presents a philosophical and historical overview of community participation in local governance. It starts by presenting the nature and extent of this type of community participation, defines it and explains its uses. The chapter further outlines types of community participation in local governance internationally, focussing on the United Kingdom (UK) in general; Wandsworth in London in the UK, in particular; Australia, Holland; and Chicago.

In this chapter, community participation in local governance, including crime prevention, in developing countries and community participation in crime prevention in South Africa are described. Public contribution to the provision of services in EMA; the use of WCs in the provision of services; the role of CPFs in the delivery of services; and strategic partnerships in community policing are described. In addition, the role of SCs in the provision of services; the significance of Operation Sukuma Sakhe (OSS) in facility provision; and the role of leadership and SCs in community policing are explained.

2.2 THE NATURE AND EXTENT OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNANCE

Community involvement in local governance has become prominent globally. The Constitution (74th Amendment Act, 1992) of India caters for the formation of area committees to guarantee community contribution to local governance (Qwabe & Mdaka, 2011:65). Community participation in post-apartheid South Africa is considered as synonymous with legitimate governance (Williams, 2008:1; Mashamaite & Madzivhandila, 2014:1).

According to the Community Law Centre (2007:9), local government, as stated in the Local Government: White Paper on Local Government (1998) (White Paper), is characterised as “democratic development: public participation.” Local government serves as a conduit for the public to attain the kind of area in which they wish to live. The Constitution, especially in section 152, states that local government should ensure that citizens and public organisations take part in local government matters (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012:6). According to Koma (2012:57), community participation in local government issues indicates democratic growth. The concept of community participation in South Africa is mainly connected to the planning and management of development activities at the local government level (Madzivhandila & Asha, 2012).

Nzimakwe (2008:44) views community participation in terms of community members engaging in official policy-creation and determining facilities, budget, and priorities, which include the initiation of building schemes. Moreover, Nzimakwe (2008:44) highlights community collaboration with administration in establishing programmes founded on public requirements, which would inspire a feeling of cohesion in the community. Batley and Rose (2011) posit that participation contributes to comprehensive, equitable and participatory planning and budgeting and enhanced service delivery (especially to the poor). Therefore, public participation, appears to be a significant approach to consolidating local planning systems.

According to Nzimakwe and Reddy (2008:668), the concept of community participation/public contribution originates in section 152 (1) (e) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 that allows cities to encourage the participation of the people in civic/public structures and local administration. According to Qwabe and Mdaka (2011:65), a plethora of legislative frameworks and policies, which inculcate community participation in local governance, has been provided since the demise of segregation. Community participation strengthens traditional accountability systems and extends the scope of accountability (Gaventa & Barrett, 2012).

According to Molokwane and Lukamba (2018: 195), in South Africa, a robust opinion of citizen participation is taken into consideration at the local government level throughout the Integrated Development Plan (IDP). The local authority must accord the community an opportunity to contribute to the IDP, which is a five-year plan. The local authorities cannot execute any programme without soliciting the community

members' contributions to the IDP. According to South African legislation, this is a normal process; there should be community consultation. The South African Constitution specifies that members of the public should be encouraged to partake in policymaking (Molokwane & Lukamba, 2018).

As mentioned above, one of these legislations is the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996. Others include the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 and the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000. According to these legislations, municipalities are legally obligated to engage citizens in the running of their municipalities (Qwabe & Mdaka, 2011:65).

It could be argued that community participation is an indispensable component of local development. Moreover, public participation in municipal matters is revered by underprivileged citizens (Madumo, 2014:132). Although different people give meanings to the concept of community participation, essentially, it can be defined as the positive contribution of individuals to communities. According to Van Eijk, Steen and Verschuere (2017:323), there are numerous examples of citizens' participation in public services production, particularly at the local community level. Community members collaborate with the usual producers of services in professional civic organisations. The crucial characteristic is that people and professional agents jointly cooperate in the public services production and that their teamwork is intended to augment the quality of the produced services (Van Eijk et al., 2017:323). According to Brandsen and Honingh (2015:427), this is termed the co-production of public services. The co-production concept has progressed in line with a broader vision of participatory and collaborative governance (Szescilo, 2017:146). Public services co-production is now among the hottest topics in the global academic discourse on public management, although this concept is not new (Sześciło, 2017:145). Sześciło (2017) posits that co-production proponents have revealed an extensive directory of its potential benefits, which include the improved quality of services; cost reduction potential; increased citizen-government trust and the increased involvement of citizens in the public domain. Partnership and co-production mean an acknowledgement that the police need assistance from the citizens (Makin & Marenin, 2017).

2.3 DEFINITIONS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

There is no consensus about the role of community participation in improving people's lives, especially the poor and the disadvantaged. However, community participation continues to be regarded as crucial to development (Rifkin & Kangere, 2002:37). Cornwall (2008) refers to community participation as a substantially pliable concept that can be utilised to induce and indicate almost anything that involves people. Johar (2017:49) defines community participation as an active process by means of which beneficiary groups can influence the direction and enactment of a development project with an understanding to augment their welfare in terms of income and personal development.

Rifkin and Kangere (2002:38) state the following as reasons for community participation:

- The provided services are under-used and abused for the persons to whom they are intended. Moreover, they remain not part of their growth (The health services argument).
- In all societies, substantial fiscal and human resources exist that should be organised to develop local wellbeing and conducive ecological circumstances (The economic argument).
- The development of people's well-being is an outcome of what they do to and for themselves and not the outcome of medical intervention (The well-being elevation argument).
- According to Rifkin (1990), as cited in Rifkin and Kangere (2002:38), all people, particularly the deprived and underprivileged, have the right and responsibility to be included in resolutions that affect their everyday existence (The social justice argument).

Global organisations, such as the World Health Organisation (WHO) and the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), continue to support community participation. According to the World Bank, reasons for community participation are as follows:

- The local community has a great amount of knowledge and intuition concerning what works, what does not and why.

- If locals are included in the design of a project, their commitment to it will be augmented.
- If local people are involved, they can be assisted in the development of their practical and executive expertise, which will develop their employment prospects.
- Involving local people can increase resources available for a programme.
- The involvement of local people leads to social learning for planners and beneficiaries (Rifkin & Kangere, 2002:40).

However, few people agree on the definition of community participation. Arnstein (1969:216) explains that “the idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach: no one is against it in principle because it is good for you.” In addition, community participation is defined in terms of community power, where power delivery is intensified to include immature intentionally in accomplishing the community’s contribution to life (Arnstein, 1969:246).

The following are other definitions of community participation:

- Voluntary involvement in community programmes, but citizens do not participate in determining them
- Participation in determining, executing, and assessing programmes as well as determining the benefits
- A vigorous procedure that entails envisioned recipients having an impact on programme results and advancing individual development (Rifkin & Kangere, 2002:41).

In addition, community participation can be defined as the community’s engagement in a diversity of organisational decision-making actions, such as deciding amenity/budget priorities and the suitability of building programmes, to channel administration programmes in the direction of public requirements, establish community backing and inspire a feeling of community cohesion (Fox & Meyer, 1995:20).

According to Reed (2008:2419), the first typologies of community participation, including those of Arnstein (1969), were differentiated according to the degree to which participants were involved, that is from passively receiving information to active participation. These categories of participation are grouped according to the level of community influence. Arnstein (1969:217) describes the hierarchy of community involvement as consisting of eight stages where each stage matches the extent of the people's power. The next section explains the eight stages.

The first two lower stages of the hierarchy of community participation are (1) Manipulation and (2) Therapy, which are categorised under non-participation. In these stages, community members are not given an opportunity for genuine participation and their views/opinions are suppressed. According to Arnstein (1969:217), this is pure non- participation.

Levels 3 and 4 (Informing and Consultation) are levels of tokenism. There is neither feedback nor negotiation, only a one-directional flow of information from officials to citizens, who have no control in ensuring that their voices are heard by officials. According to Arnstein, level 5 (Placation) is the highest form of minimum participation, where the have-nots can advise, but the power to decide lies with the power holders. Tokenism is still rife, although there is some degree of power. At level 6 (Partnership), power redistribution occurs through negotiations between officials and citizens. Level 7 (Delegated Power) is achieved because of negotiations involving citizens and officials. Level 8 (Citizen Control) is where the community have control and full management power. According to Arnstein (1969:217), Partnership, Delegated Power and Citizen Control are the three upper levels of the hierarchy, which are distinguished by citizens increased decision-making power.

The above section clearly showed that there are numerous definitions of community participation. Researchers and scholars adhere to those that suit their work at any given time. In the study described in this thesis, knowledge of these definitions contributed to an understanding of the role of SCs in crime prevention, as these civil structures were viewed as a tool for improving community participation.

There are various uses of community participation. The following section explains some of these.

2.4 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND ITS USES

Community participation in local governance is based on the community's desire to be included or used in the decision-making process (Molaba, 2016:34). Therefore, the community's contribution can be used in various ways:

- The contribution of community members is developed since doors for conversation and the distribution of power are opened. Vigorous participation through the involvement of every community member in planning and decision-making is encouraged, which eradicates the blockades that restrict marginalised citizens' participation.
- Decentralised, non-graded policymaking procedures that reinforce the self-sufficiency of the public are maintained.
- Public contribution reinforces local assets, originality, and properties. Moreover, it vigorously strives to decrease reliance on, and susceptibility to, economic welfare structures outside the community, resulting in ensured feasibility.
- The community's use and influence are better comprehended.
- Fairness in policymaking procedures, the mobilisation of resources and amplified rights are guaranteed.
- Mental misery, indifference, and the predisposition to tolerate deficiency is decreased.
- Dependability on the public and productive use of resident influences is enhanced (Molaba, 2016:70-71).

According to Reed (2008:2420), there are normative, and pragmatic uses of community participation. Through stakeholder participation, the marginalisation of those who are outside the decision-making process is minimised. Social learning is improved through stakeholder participation. Participatory systems are transparent, stakeholder participation develops community trust in resolutions and civil society. Participation allows better adaptation of interventions and skills to local social, cultural, and environmental conditions. Participatory processes result in more excellent pronouncements since they are constructed using reliable evidence and envisaging possible undesirable results prior to their occurrence (Reed, 2008:2420). Holmes (2011:1) posits that the theory and practice of public administration is progressively concerned with placing the citizen at the centre of policy makers' deliberations, not

only as targets but also as agents. Community participation in policy construction grants citizens an opportunity to affect public decisions (Molokwane & Lukamba, 2018:194).

This chapter has thus far demonstrated that community participation has many definitions; it has many different uses; it occupies a key role in socioeconomic development; and it is supported by legislation. As it is a global phenomenon, the following section explains types of community participation internationally.

2.5 TYPES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION INTERNATIONALLY

Community participation can take many forms, which is evident in SA, in some countries in Africa and internationally. Kimberly, Przeszlowski and Crichlow (2018:3) and Makin and Marenin (2017:2) posit that community-oriented policing approaches differ across agencies, as several may require diverse strategies to address exceptional community-related problems. This variance may be viewed as a hindrance to defining and applying COP uniformly, however, it is valuable in the sense that each agency can execute the strategy that is deemed to be essential to the community that it serves (Kimberly et al., 2018:3). The section below describes types of community participation internationally.

2.5.1 United Kingdom

Marisa (1996:434) indicates that in the United Kingdom (UK), the extent of community participation differs extensively from programme to programme. Practical participation occurs often, mainly in programmes that are introduced by a dominant administration. These practical contributions include participation in activities such as augmenting sources of water and hygiene amenities. Numerous citizens are included in delivering resources and serve as the workforce for the programmes in which they participate. In Wandsworth, London in the UK, the community participated in a particular crime prevention programme that is described in the ensuing section.

Obasi and Lekorwe (2014:3) posit that in Britain, policy-making spaces for citizen participation include platforms such as surveys and a survey of diverse forms of public participation in 216 local governments revealed that 92% of the local governments utilised service satisfaction surveys while 86% used

complaint/suggestion schemes. Other local governments employed various forms of citizen engagement.

2.5.2 Community participation in crime prevention in Wandsworth, London

Skogan and Hartnett (1997:35) and Mabunda (2014:40) explain that the borough of Wandsworth in London suffered high crime levels in 1994 that resulted in citizens collaborating to decrease the crime level. During this period, about 285 000 residents lived in the area, encompassing a variety of culturally different groups. Although the twenty districts of the area individually had a safer neighbourhood squad, the unceasing arrival of new inhabitants from various global regions presented considerable trials since inhabitants remained unrecognised. Thus, criminals were hard to identify, and residents were extremely vulnerable.

According to Skogan and Hartnett (1997:35), the Wandsworth community partnership encompassed the Borough Council, the Metropolitan Police, the Fire Council, the Primary Care Trust, the London Probation Service and the Youth Offending Team in addition to several professional delivery teams that were invited to build a central group when required. The policing partnership in Wandsworth was viewed as one of the most fruitful operations of its kind in the UK. According to Dlamini (2017:31), the area was eventually viewed as one of the safest in London and lawbreaking was at its lowest point since the 1990s. Crime dwindled after the creation of the partnership that regulated the region, as offenders disappeared after ascertaining that the safety measures in place would inhibit their criminal activities.

An equivalent of a CPF, the Wandsworth Community Safety Partners (WCSP) was dedicated to operating with other agencies to secure the region (Dlamini, 2017:31). Moreover, the police, the Council of Wandsworth and other statutory bodies designed the Disorder Reduction Plan, which intended to improve residents' quality of life through concentrating on six connected strategies that focussed on wrongdoers, hotspot sites and crime victims. The partnership provided the opportunity for greater community participation; the growth of synchronised communication and involvement; provided the inhabitants with appropriate knowledge and encouraged their involvement in the war against crime (Jones & Newburn, 1994).

The partnership projects, which included barricades, searches and public security strategies involving essential community members, led to the inauguration of a partnership charter. Furthermore, in the Wandsworth Municipality, the London, Metropolitan Police selected an officer to supervise planning and provide a framework for crime prevention (Mabunda, 2014:40).

According to Jones and Newburn (1994:175), the implementation of strategies for community partnership in crime prevention, such as those mentioned above, lessens the community's doubts about crime prevention, instills trust in police competence and ensures that authorities keep the public informed and share the responsibility for crime prevention with the community. The 2011 riots encountered in the UK due to youth unemployment crippled the police-community partnerships (Dlamini, 2017:33). According to the Community Safety Partnership's Community Safety Plan (2017-2021: 4), the crime rate in Wandsworth and London continues unabated, despite a significant reduction in the previous years. However, Wandsworth Borough recorded the lowest number of crimes per 1000 residents in inner London. A Wandsworth Community Safety Partnership's Community Safety Plan 2017-2021 was produced and the Community Safety Partnership (CSP) brought together the Wandsworth Borough Council, the Metropolitan Police, the Community Rehabilitation Company, the National Probation Service, the London Fire Brigade and the Clinical Commissioning Group as well as universities, colleges, schools, community members and voluntary sector organisations.

The main objective of the CSP is to render Wandsworth a safe area for all and according to the report, the CSP has accomplished paramount crime and anti-social behaviour reduction over the years (Community Safety Partnership's Community Safety Plan (2017-2021:3).

2.5.3 Australia

According to Molokwane and Lukamba (2018:195), in Australia, government ministries and departments involve citizens in the policy construction process. For instance, the Department of Industry, Tourism and Resources obligates its officers to take into account six aspects of a consultation process concerning policy preparation and execution. When developing policy guidance, they consult extensively; provide

sensible time limits for citizens to comment on policy suggestions; elucidate the process and guarantee that the contribution to policies is balanced and pertinent to the government's broader economic and social objects. After making policy decisions, they offer information to the citizens about pronouncements that affect them and the citizens are also consulted during the execution thereof (Curtain, 2003:6).

2.5.4 Partnerships in policing in Holland

According to Mabunda (2018:99), partnership policing requires resources to be effective. One cannot expect efficient service delivery if the police have insufficient resources. In Holland, community-policing partnerships enabled the development of the police from a responsive, misconduct-fighting organisation to a problem-aligned, hands-on system (Lab, 2004:59, as cited in Mabunda, 2014:43). Furthermore, partnerships in policing advanced the administration's emphasis on a complete safety approach and problem solving in conjunction with local communities. The police collaborating with communities and social wellbeing agencies led to the tackling of problems that surrounded security and the public fear of crime. As communities were the most affected by security challenges, they were considered qualified to pinpoint concerns and identify solutions. According to van Eijk et al. (2017: 326), an increasing number of police-citizen partnerships have recently been observed in numerous European countries with the need to actively engage citizens in safety issues. A Dutch legislative advisory body, for instance, delineates how the community's role in safety policies has transformed throughout the decades. To an increasing degree, the Dutch Government expects community members to execute tasks. Increasingly, the emphasis is on principles such as 'good citizenship', 'citizen courage', 'participation', 'responsibility' and 'self-management' (Veldheer et al., 2012:189-194).

2.5.5 The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy

The Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS) was introduced in 1993 in five diverse localities in Chicago, the United States (US). According to Lombardo and Donner (2017:6), CAPS focuses on community mobilisation. Citizens are asked to watch over their neighbourhoods and call the police when they see something wrong. Residents are requested to report crime, broken windows and abandoned vehicles and tidy infested unoccupied lots, including removing loud teens and wandering band members. The CAPS aims to inspire community members and the police to cooperate

in reducing crime. The crime rate was high during the 1990s epoch and the police struggled to minimise the crime. Moreover, they were concerned about their crime-regulating incapability while functioning in seclusion from the public. Trust did not exist between the police and the public and relationships between the two parties were strained (Skogan, 1995:5).

According to the Chicago Community Policing Evaluation Consortium (CCPEC) (1995), the community policing model on which CAPS is based depends heavily on problem solving at the neighbourhood level. This is underpinned by a variety of approaches, leading among them being a system of consistent beat meetings. According to Lombardo and Donner (2017:6), such meetings include small citizens' groups and police officers who meet in school rooms, church basements and other places citywide. The Chicago Police Department desired to involve the public and other civic agencies in public policing. The formation of the CAPS was premised on an acknowledgement that if the police, the public and various agencies cooperated, the level of crime could be lowered (Lombardo & Donner, 2017:6).

The examples of community participation situations mentioned above were taken from studies about developed countries. However, community participation also has played a significant role in developing countries as explained in the following section.

2.6 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

The literature highlights the significance of community participation in developing countries in community development activities (Afify, 2011; Maiyaki, Marzuku & Mustafa, 2018). According to Xhakaza (2019), public participation has been extensively used in the discourse of development for the past twenty years. The concept has been positioned to participation in the social field, in the community or in development projects. Theory suggests that community participation has a bottom-up approach which is valuable in determining programs and services that best meet communities' needs (Sherry, 2018). According to Geoghegan (2019), Chapter 11, Section 206 of the Constitution of SA, enjoins the SAPS to mobilise local community members to ensure that the fight against crime is effective. Section 206 recommends that it is mandatory and therefore compulsory according to regulation that the SAPS include the local community in police activities that are carried out within the local

community. The study described in the current thesis viewed community participation as essential and a condition for success, as people derive a sense of ownership from their involvement in a community project. According to Molokwane and Lukamba (2018), an effective citizen participation program must be fundamental to the planning process. The South Africa constitution orders that the public or the community is to be stimulated to participate in policy making (Molokwane and Lukamba, 2018).

Lancaster (2002), in the study entitled “Importance of community participation in development projects”, as cited by Maiyaki *et al.* (2018:192), maintains, firstly, that community participation involvement in a development project is inclined to be viable since the public detect how to adopt or correct changes that come with it. Secondly, participation guarantees community interest. Thirdly, public participation encourages independence and self-belief. Fourthly, it empowers the community to utilise their skills in other community projects. Fifthly, community participation instils a sense of community ownership of the equipment and tools. Finally, community participation inculcates two-way communication (Maiyaki et al., 2018:192).

The case study conducted by Robo and Absud (2003:98) indicated that rural growth schemes in the Nandi District in Tanzania had moved slowly because of inferior co-ordination, inefficient management, a lack of cooperation and the deterioration of a pledge to participate in public schemes and actions. In resuscitating a deteriorating rural economy, all administrators at all levels needed to interact with the rural community regarding what was transpiring and guide the citizens to participate in projects implemented for their benefit.

The case study conducted by Moyo (2012:104) showed that the execution of growth schemes in the Bulilima and Mangwe districts of Zimbabwe left the public dissatisfied. The Bulilima and Mangwe communities indicated that they had not participated wholly in the design, preparation and administration of a series of development projects. Moreover, community members were not given the opportunity to share their perspectives on the development projects that they desired to be realised. The key phases in which the local people needed to engage were preparation and policymaking. The investigation also revealed that community participation was not adequately used to the advantage of local communities in the Bulilima and Mangwe districts.

One of the recommendations of the case study conducted by Brown and Wocha (2017:12) was that community development committees (CDCs) should be an essential part of any rural development programme because of their proximity to the people and the principles of their appointment and election.

Community participation takes place in different contexts; it is not confined to development projects. In addition, it refers to a process not a product, involves different actors and is based on relationships (Afify, 2011:80). In South Africa, community participation occurs in the context of crime prevention. Since the beginning of democracy in 1994 in SA, community policing (currently referred to as partnership policing) has been accepted by most South Africans as a feasible crime prevention strategy (Mabunda, 2018:93).

2.7 CRIME PREVENTION AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Crime is a detrimental occurrence that has a negative effect on the community. According to Malatji (2016:11), it is particularly harmful to a country's economy. Crime and violence cause significant disturbance to citizens' health, existence and development. South Africa experiences consistently high rates of crime and violence (De Wet, Somefun & Rambau, 2018:1).

In South Africa, the National Development Plan (NDP) acknowledges an active and co-ordinated relationship between the government and the public as a vital element of a workable community security approach. All government parties need to cooperate with non-statutory structures to establish policies for meeting security needs. Public structures comprising all societal sectors, including those with different beliefs, the elderly, women, the deprived/underprivileged, SCs and the area committees of CSFs, need to be represented in CPFs and WCs.

In South Africa, community policing derives its existence from the Police Service Act 68 of 1995. The Act is used as a framework for community policing management, operational planning, the formation of police and public associations, as well as strategies that serve community needs (Malatji, 2016:12). Consequently, community policing serves as a guarantee that members of the public are equal and participative allies in the policing process. Furthermore, it ensures an improved comprehension of

the trials, precise challenges, and desires of community members, as well as shared accountability in finding practical solutions to problems.

During the days of political suppression in South Africa, different types of informal community policing occurred. In African communities, anti-crime SCs were active together with “people’s courts”, which were examples of popular justice during the late 1970s and 1980s in the townships (Minnaar, 2010:189-190). SCs should not be viewed as substitutes or parallel structures to CPFs (Nzimande, 2008:2).

CPFes existed to solve the challenges of regulating communities. Throughout the segregation era, police were accountable for implementing segregation regulations; consequently, many South African communities did not trust or cooperate with them. Yesufu (2021:63) defines a CPF as a group of citizens that come together for a mutual purpose defined by both individual and communal safety. One of the objectives of a CPF is to encourage a partnership between the community and the service. CPFes were formed to address the challenges created by the political history of policing in South Africa. During the apartheid years, the police in SA oversaw the implementation of apartheid laws and consequently did not enjoy the trust of or collaboration with numerous communities (Malatji, 2016:12).

The community policing process was implemented by the South African Police Service (SAPS) to meet the security and safety needs of the South African community in 1993. The foremost aim of community policing is to build a relationship between the police and the public, particularly locally, to deal with crime. Partnerships between the public and police could be assessed according to the services provided and the success of measures taken to tackle challenges. All over SA, CPFes have been formed to work with SAPS (Malatji, 2016:13). Mabunda (2018:100) avers that partnership policing always necessitates practical policing rather than reactive policing. The consistent accessibility of police officers when needed by the community is one of the goals of the partnership-policing framework. Therefore, partnership policing may be taken to be real and effectively executed when the police officers are accessible at any time when required.

A new set of guidelines dealing with the control and accountability of all CPFes was designed. These guidelines assert that the police are accountable to the community

they serve, adding that CPFs should encourage collaboration between the police and the communities to augment openness and the provision of services on the part of the police. According to Ludman (2010:1), the guidelines also refer “to the partnership and joint problem solving between communities and the SAPS.”

According to Felix and Hilgers (2020:4), given its versions and assumptions, community-oriented policing is an idea, not a policy. This is a significant idea because it characterises a shift in emphasis among numerous policy experts and policy makers from reactive to preventive policing, from the ends toward the means of policing and from the police as signifying external compulsion to police entrenched in and working in partnership with communities.

2.8 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION AND SERVICE DELIVERY IN THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPAL AREA (EMA)

Municipalities/boroughs are obligated by law to ensure that citizens and public bodies are involved in designing and preparing metropolitan budgets as well as development projects. Principally, this involvement is ensured by the formulation of Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), which provide an outline for an ethos of community participation in local governance (Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008:33; Subban & Theron, 2012:22-29; Mashamaite & Madzivhandila, 2014:229).

Different legislations, including the Constitution of South Africa, create a conducive environment for community participation. The Constitution grants a mandate to municipalities to inspire people and public organisations to be involved in local government issues.

Madzivhandila and Maloka (2014:652) posit that municipalities should enact a significant role in promoting democracy and guaranteeing that communities participate in decisions that directly affect them. Meaningful participation happens through structured participation (Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008:35).

2.8.1 Community participation within the eThekwini Municipality

Mbambo (2005:2) explains that in response to the legislative mandate, eThekwini Municipality established the Community Participation and Action Support Unit. This unit is responsible for ensuring community participation in all council issues and

processes, as well as providing support services to the public. Thus, capacitating the community to have an impact on council decisions leads to improved collaboration between it and municipal officials, including councillors (Mbambo, 2005:2).

The eThekweni Municipality's acceptance of the Community Participation Policy (CPP) is a significant breakthrough in honour of the Freedom Charter clause which states, "The People Shall Govern" (Nzimakwe & Reddy, 2008:37). The eThekweni CPP provides instruments and procedures to enable public involvement in the EMA. In addition, it corresponds with the pledge of the elected administration to expand constitutional equality. Essentially, public involvement is an open and responsible process ensuring that individuals and teams in designated societies can discuss opinions and have an impact on conclusions. According to eThekweni Municipality (2006:2), this process is democratic, as the public participates, decides, plans and occupies a participatory function "in the growth and facilities" actions that have an impact on their lives.

2.8.2 Community Participation Policy (CPP) process in eThekweni Municipality

The CPP for eThekweni Municipality that was adopted in June 2006 ensures community involvement processes. It was produced by the Citizens Action Support Programme (CASP), which is a collaborative development. The CPP was a one-year plan executed in five Area-Based Management (ABM) areas that were used as a pilot.

The CASP, according to the eThekweni Municipality (2006:11-12), had the following objectives:

- To produce and reinforce the relevant public bodies essential for local power
- To create a suitable established instrument, thus ensuring the feasibility of end-user teams and public community bodies
- To mould members of public structures, appropriate end-user teams, councillors, and officials for healthy involvement in public participation
- To capacitate the inner expertise of the municipality to make the coaching initiative available to all public teams including councillors.
- To offer backing to the city administration officers to safeguard the implementation of the new method of undertaking business

The CPP had the following key aim:

- To provide procedures for developing dynamic resident participation in the policymaking process of local government and to create a conducive atmosphere for normal people and community groups to express their concerns and participate in matters that have an impact on their lives.

The specific objectives of the plan were as follows:

- Establishing fairness through enhancing community involvement in local administration's policymaking
- Forming a common belief among communities, local administrators and councillors
- Refining communication to permit communities to access information and to provide feedback to the local administration
- Updating local administration on people's requirements, which would lead to a climate conducive to local administration focussing its resources on realising these requirements
- Creating supplementary resources for growth to inspire and encourage public activities, including partnerships between the public and private sectors
- Encouraging skills development programmes for local government authorities and the community (eThekweni Municipality, 2006:15).

2.8.3 Principles for community participation

The community participation principles of eThekweni Municipality are structured participation; clarity of purpose; commitment; communication; flexibility and responsiveness; timelines; inclusiveness; collaboration; and diversity (eThekweni Municipality, 2006:16-19).

2.8.3.1 Structured Participation

The eThekweni Municipality (2006:16) explains that decisions concerning who is to contribute or who is to be consulted shall be determined by the matter at hand that is the current priority.

The main organisational mechanisms for participation shall be bodies, such as WCs, Sector Forums, Ward Forums, Zonal Stakeholders Forums, Regional Stakeholders Networks, Citywide Stakeholders Forum and Citywide Sector Networks’.

Structures, such as Izimbizo, community outreach, Indaba, conferences, workshops, street displays, and other pertinent instruments and methods will remain critical approaches when realising community engagement.

2.8.3.2 Clarity of Purpose

The purpose of community participation will be clarified by the Municipality for communities to comprehend why it is happening. Moreover, the municipality will clarify its background so that communities can strategise and use resources effectively. Anticipated consequences and an indication of who should be involved to accomplish the resolve shall be embraced. Clarity on how contributors can influence the pronouncements that might be made and, similarly significant, what cannot be influenced, shall be given.

2.8.3.3 Commitment

The Municipality shall commit to assigning adequate time and resources to the public involvement procedures. The visibility of senior rank management shall be guaranteed. Public involvement is regarded as fundamental to the evaluation of regular municipal growth, plan-making practices, and procedures.

2.8.3.4 Communication

The Municipality shall interact amenably, fairly, and responsibly with those who are striving to participate. Communication shall involve data distribution, data collection, data allocation, cooperative discussion, and policymaking. Data shall be specified in the language that is familiar to the addressees.

2.8.3.5 Flexibility and Responsiveness

The eThekweni Municipality is equipped to constantly scrutinise and reform the way communities are involved in participation procedures. A choice from a variety of methods that permit diverse groups or sectors to contribute in a healthy manner shall be engaged.

2.8.3.6 Timelines

The Municipality shall guarantee that members obtain information about proceedings timeously to make concrete and substantial contributions. Contributors will be informed when they can anticipate a response on their contributions. Participants will be given feedback within timeframes.

2.8.3.7 Inclusiveness

The Municipality will attempt to be as inclusive as conceivable. Consideration will be given to the requirements of groups that are inclined to be marginalised (women, youth and disabled people). A commitment related to development evaluation and planning will be made. In addition, the Municipality shall clarify jargon and technical language to facilitate comprehension.

2.8.3.8 Collaboration

The Municipality shall aim for a participatory method in development matters and strategy formation, especially in bigger, more complicated procedures. This shall be done through public participation early during the procedure. Additionally, this will happen through cooperating carefully with other bodies functioning in the area to circumvent monotonous public discussions on identical or similar themes.

2.8.3.9 Diversity

Community participation shall be organised to allow sufficient space for variety, including diverse participation strategies, different cultures and site-related modifications (eThekwini Municipality, 2006:19).

2.8.4 Levels of community participation

Communities shall participate according to various levels suited to the matter at hand (eThekwini Municipality, 2006:19-22). According to Manqele (2021), numerous programmes that support effective public participation have been implemented by eThekwini municipality. These include the Masakhane Campaign, the formation of stakeholder engagement forums, community-based planning, ward committees and Operation Sukuma Sakhe (OSS), and so forth. The following section explains the different participation levels envisioned by the eThekwini Municipality.

The following are participation levels:

2.8.4.1 Active citizenship

Active citizenship means sharing the authority according to which managerial agencies carry out governmental directives. It transcends voting, paying taxes or using administration services. Community mobilisation programmes shall be used by the Municipality to inspire people to be dynamic communities.

Communities shall guarantee the democratic responsibility of the voted governmental management for the strategies they are authorised to endorse. The Municipality will collaborate with appropriate service providers in safeguarding that qualifying community members vote. As policymaking contributors, community members will pronounce their views via diverse WCs and participatory bodies, ahead of, throughout and after the strategy expansion procedure, ensuring that strategies replicate community choices to the greatest extent.

A call is made to the people to go beyond being voters, by assisting in recognising significant matters, assisting in implementing solutions and judging whether outcomes are attained or not.

2.8.4.2 Citizens as proprietors or stakeholders

Citizens are regarded as the “owners” of local government. By means of their municipal tariff payments, they finance the services provided by the municipality and are shareholders of local government assets.

Citizens’ votes mean that they choose the “boards of directors” who are answerable for the discharge of their administrative duties. Municipal councillors are the agents of the community, not only for financial management but also for realising outcomes. An “owner” desires knowledge about the leadership’s work.

By means of their rates payments, citizens pay for community services and resources. By means of elections, citizens become stakeholders who select the “board of directors” or councillors, who represent various political parties and oversee the community.

2.8.4.3 Citizens as customers or consumers

Citizens are customers and consumers of municipal amenities and shall be viewed as esteemed clients by the Municipality and the City's Customer Care Centres, according to the Batho Pele Principles.

2.8.4.4 Citizens as policy makers and issue framers

Citizens are policy makers who can contribute to developing necessary future strategies. Citizens using WCs and other established bodies shall participate by offering guidance in administrative policymaking procedures.

2.8.4.5 Vision Builders

Citizens shall contribute to improving their lives by being vision builders. This can be achieved by enunciating necessary future and comprehensive policies to realise these visions by means of strategic planning. The Municipality shall use the Community-Based Planning programme to enable the realisation of community visions.

Actively involved citizens shall make their ideas available, add validity to the procedure and enhance follow through on the outcomes of visions building procedures.

2.8.4.6 Community as resource standard assessors

As main consumers of local government resources, the community is suitable for detecting excellence and efficiency. The community's contribution will be required in a Quality-of-Life Survey conducted by the Municipality. The community's role will be to affirm or reject the researcher's conclusions.

2.8.4.7 Communities as joint amenities administrators and joint properties mobilisers

Citizens owning establishments are direct providers of public amenities, whether they earn salaries or whether they serve this purpose voluntarily together with the Municipality. Development involving citizens will ensure that they carry out their responsibility as joint amenities administrators and joint properties mobilisers.

2.8.4.8 Communities as autonomous outcomes trackers

Citizens may assess national, provincial, and local matters autonomously without direction from government. Public groups may choose desired outcomes for the community and processes for tracking and making public the calculated circumstances and tendencies.

Different themes are pursued by these groups, including healthy societies, adequate standards of life and maintainable societies. The community's assessment is likely to be autonomous and reliable concerning public welfare.

2.8.5 Processes of community participation

Community participation processes are information, consultation, participation, contribution, and empowerment (eThekweni Municipality, 2006:22-24). According to eThekweni Municipality (2020), eThekweni municipality circulates the provisional budget to communities for comments to promote community participation in the local budget. Part of the budgetary process includes public engagement wherein the municipality sets up numerous community meetings and allows communities to contribute to the financial affairs of the municipality (eThekweni Municipality 2018).

2.8.5.1 Information

Citizens will be conversant with the Municipality's aims. The Municipality shall apply this procedure with the aim of offering reliable and impartial data. The Municipality pledges to keep the public informed. Approaches and instruments will comprise educational consultations, community announcements, the internet site, printed material, and audio-visuals.

2.8.5.2 Consultation

The municipality will utilise the procedure in the hope of receiving citizens' perceptions, thoughts and feedback. The Municipality pledges to keep citizens abreast of developments and take action to address their anxieties and sentiments. This will allow officials to reconsider schemes and alter them accordingly.

Approaches and instruments will comprise citizens hearings, community meetings, workshops, Izimbizo, public boards, focus groups, publicised data, feedback meetings, facilitation sessions, questionnaires, and the website.

2.8.5.3 Involvement

Involvement involves collaborating with the community in approving collected data and ideas and assessing expectations and pre-comprehension prior to any decisions. This system shall be used by eThekweni Municipality with the intention of collaborating with the community during the procedure.

The Municipality guarantees public involvement in the procedure. Approaches and instruments shall comprise facilitation, planning focus meetings, precinct committees and project steering committees.

2.8.5.4 Participation

This refers to the active participation of every shareholder, community, and citizen. Consensus regarding decisions ensures their validity and implementation. As an alternative to local administration forcing obedience, shareholders obey willingly and pledge to the contract. Municipality shall utilise this procedure with the intention that the committee contributes to each phase of policymaking.

The Municipality commits to community involvement in articulating solutions. Approaches and equipment that shall be utilised comprise advisory boards, brainstorming sessions, consultation, and conferences.

2.8.5.5 Empowerment

In this instance, communities are expected to profit from and to take charge of the realisation and execution procedure. They totally comprehend the significance and implication of the issue to be addressed because they have been part of the whole process. The Municipality shall utilise this process with the aim that citizens implement decisions and strategies. Community-Based Planning is an example of a development package developed by the municipality. The Municipality commits to allowing the community to implement decisions autonomously, which will eliminate the dependence syndrome.

Instruments and approaches that shall be used are working teams, exploration meetings, consultations, conferences, planning, feedback sessions and working committees.

2.8.6 Non-negotiable and negotiable issues

Even though eThekweni Municipality promotes active community participation, which includes negotiation, it emphasises the need to differentiate between negotiable and non-negotiable matters (eThekweni Municipality, 2006: 24-25):

2.8.6.1 Non-negotiable

Matters related to delivery of basic services are non-negotiable. These include the following:

- Power and water supply
- Removal of waste
- Safety and security
- Safe environment
- Health services
- Efficient road and transportation services
- Housing

Municipality is required to deliver the above-mentioned services according to Chapter 7 of the Constitution. The Municipality shall ipso facto not discuss whether these services are delivered or not. Negotiation about basic service delivery shall only be on how these amenities are provided.

2.8.6.2 Negotiable

When developing a culture of community participation, the Municipality will instigate and establish a conducive environment for citizens to be part of negotiations relating to municipal matters. Matters stipulated in the regulations of any municipality Municipal may be negotiated. These include the following:

- Preparation, execution, and assessment of the IDP
- Formulation, execution, and appraisal of the performance supervision scheme

- Monitoring and evaluation of performance, including the results and effect of the performance
- By-laws formulation
- Budget discussions and decisions
- Formulation of the performance management system
- Decisions about strategies for municipal service delivery and about outsourcing service delivery contracts.

2.8.7 Rights and duties of stakeholders

The following are the rights and duties of stakeholders (eThekweni Municipality, 2006: 29-32):

2.8.7.1 Community

In local government, the importance of good governance is not comprehended as prohibiting citizens from carrying out their responsibilities and obligations. Community involvement in forming a government by means of the vote suggests their responsibility for and willingness to face the consequences of their actions (by electing a particular party to power).

Community members have the right and responsibility to do the following:

- Participate in the municipality's policymaking procedures
- Hand-in printed or verbal approvals, presentations, and grievances to municipal or party bodies, the EXCO or the municipality's Community Participation Unit
- Provide swift responses to their written or verbal communications, including grievances addressed to the council, political party representative, party bureaucrat or the municipality's management.
- Receive information about decisions made by the council, EXCO, support bodies, stand-in bodies or council management
- Promote consistent revelation of the Municipality's situation, including finances.
- Enjoy/use community amenities and access municipal services.

Community members have the following duties:

- To note the Municipality's instruments, procedures and measures when exercising their rights
- To respect administration laws that do not question the individual's integrity and those that disrespect the individual's basic rights
- To permit municipal officers to enter their property to perform civic duties
- To accept the elementary structures and values that make society work correctly
- To pay their dues in terms of paying taxes and all forms of financial responsibilities, which augment the performance of a democratic administration
- To respect the rule of law, tolerance, and equality of opportunity
- To acknowledge and defend democratic values, freedom of speech, linguistic freedom, cultural positioning, and equality of diverse cultural backgrounds/genders
- To recognise that articulating own culture and principles is linked to the duty of accepting others' rights to articulate their opinions and principles
- To register in the Electoral Register and vote at all levels as a means of safeguarding democracy
- To deplore all types of illegal behaviour and dishonesty, as well as any potential damage to the welfare of people

2.8.7.2 Party and Management Bureaucrats

Local government leads in safeguarding people's rights. Municipal administrators directly interact with citizens at the local level. Section 152 of the Constitution stipulates that local government should aim to do the following:

- Govern the community democratically and responsibly.
- Guarantee sustainable service delivery
- Encourage societal and commercial growth.
- Ensure a safe and healthy environment
- Promote community participation and the involvement of citizens' bodies in administration issues

Administrators from the Municipality's divisions shall authorise the realisation of the purposes. Realisation will be accomplished through supporting and as executing

initiatives/projects that resonate with the aims mentioned above. The Municipality's IDP articulates such schemes.

2.8.7.3 Civil Society

Civil society shall contribute in that it shall involve the government from an autonomous perspective. It shall represent the unrepresented in autocratic systems, where it advocates a culture of human rights.

Civil society shall rebuke dishonesty and illegal practices within local government and community services generally. The community shall encourage incorporation, execution, and implementation of civil, political, economic, cultural and social rights, as well as workers' rights, the right to growth and the right to benefit from the principle of non-separation.

Civil society is perceived as an accomplice in advocating for social justice and supporting the Municipality in solving the following matters: poverty; gender discrimination; citizens with special needs including infirmity; workers' rights; native citizens' cultural rights; education and illiteracy, for example.

The above section described eThekweni's particular policy on community participation. However, the section below will focus on local government in general regarding its significance in service delivery.

2.9 SIGNIFICANCE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Since apartheid's demise, numerous legislative frameworks, and policies, which seek to establish participatory democracy and governance, have been passed in SA (Qwabe & Mdaka, 2011:65). These include the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 108 of 1996, the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, the White Paper of Transforming Service Delivery Act 1997, the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 and the White Paper on Local Government Act, 1998. Municipalities are legally compelled to include communities when formulating developmental priorities (Qwabe & Mdaka, 2011:65). Legislative frameworks dealing with crime prevention and community participation are discussed in Chapter 3 of this study.

2.9.1 Selected Southern African countries

The following section explains community participation in selected Southern African countries.

Malawi and Botswana are two selected Southern African countries whose local government plays a role in service delivery.

2.9.1.1 Malawi

According to Adams and Zulu (2015:115), decentralisation in Malawi has reinforced the quest for community participation approaches in the country's development and the adoption of the decentralisation policy and law in 1998 bolstered these efforts. Adams and Zulu (2015:115) opine that Malawi has implemented a system known as the District Development Planning System, which provides structures through which local people participate in development processes in their communities.

According to the Malawi Government (1998), this policy accorded the country's local governments (district councils) comprehensive responsibility over the development of their districts and tasked them to include local people during the formulation and implementation of their District Development Plans. The Malawi Government (2013:55-58) established a District Development Planning System (DDPS) to encourage community participation through a bottom-up approach to development planning in the districts. The critical characteristics of the system are that it is district-focused, people-centred and participatory and aligned to the national development planning framework. It further sets up basic structures through which local people participate in development processes.

The Malawi Government (2013:55-59) posits that one of the closest structures to the grassroots level of government is referred to as Village Development Committees (VDCs). A VDC comprises a group of villages that coordinate the planning and implementation of development initiatives at the community level. VDCs' duties include the identification, prioritisation, preparation and submission of community needs to the Area Development Committee (ADC), which consolidates the plans submitted by numerous VDCs for submission to the District Executive Committee (DEC) for inclusion in the District Development Plan.

Pemba (2019:36) postulates that community participation through the District Development Planning System is fragmented and unproductive, with the grassroots structures such as the ADCs and VDCs ineffectively linked with local authorities and deficient in mechanisms for demanding accountability from district level officials.

According to Pemba (2019:37), in another study on local communities' participation in decision making processes in African countries, including Malawi, Chirenje et al. (2013:10) found that in cases where governments had delegated power to local communities, the citizens were still not involved in the development planning process.

According to Mashikaro (2015:86), it appears that Malawi's instruments for realising strategic goals at the local level are poor and continue to compromise the livelihood of most of its community.

2.9.1.2 Botswana

Since independence, Botswana is recognised as an African state that has functioned in a democratic political context. Moreover, it has encouraged local government for decentralisation purposes. Moreover, local government is viewed as an instrument for allowing the community to have local power and to contribute to the provision of service (Sharma, 2010:135).

In Botswana local administration operates on four pillars: (a) Councils (City Councils, Town Councils and District Councils); (b) District Administration, headed by District Commissioners; (c) Land Boards (post-freedom formations for the distribution of ethnic land); and (d) Tribal Administration, controlled by chiefs as customary leaders.

District Councils in rural areas and City/Town Councils derive their power from statutes and perform functions assigned by acts. Their key purposes are primary health, education, roads, community, water supply, public development, and community wellbeing (Sharma, 2010:136).

During the pre-colonial and colonial eras, the traditional institution of chiefs played a key pivotal role and has existed continuously post-freedom as a fundamental portion of local administration apparatus. Chiefs preside over a traditional forum called *Kgotla*, which is used for discussion and reciprocal communication with the administration and

the public about matters, such as community strategies execution and local growth tactics. According to Sharma (2010:136), chiefs also perform a key role in presiding over tribal courts that handle over 80% of the cases tried in the country.

Botswana boasts a favourable and supportive democratic political setting, in which local administration can grow. Harmony, firmness, and the regulation of law happen in the country. There has been a sound growth in community engagement in citizens' strategy making, growth development and application.

Politically neutral Land Boards, which had earlier faced hostility from chiefs, are now fully established, and they provide their own administrators. Kgotla plays a key part in local growth actions, and traditional courts are widespread in the community. Nonetheless, challenges and constraints continue to haunt local governance.

One of the main challenges is that of inadequate capacity, as local administrations are still not able to execute their part of the governance processes and perform their roles as well as anticipated (Sharma, 2010:137). Assemblies do not have major independent sources of income, and their whole growth spending is met by the central administration. There is scarcity of skills countrywide. Local councillors' capacity is not up to standard. Community participation needs to be reinforced, and grassroots organisations, such as Village Development Committees, need to be more active and productive.

According to Molokwana and Lukamba (2018:196), consultative processes and procedures for policy construction in Botswana differ. The state regulates spaces for public involvement and participation. Within what is obviously a centralised policy set-up, the state contributes to building public trust in the government, elevating democracy values and consolidating civic capacity. The state also taps into new sources of policy-relevant ideas, information and resources when making decisions. The Kgotla system in Botswana is an example of citizen participation in the public policy development process (Molokwana & Lukamba, 2018:196). Obasi and Lekorwe (2014:1) posit that the Kgotla system is a consultative and democratic governance system.

The new scheme of local administration promulgated in SA in 2000 resulted in the formation of WCs (Van Rooyen & Mokoena, 2013:762). The role of WCs is described in the section below.

2.10 ROLE OF WARD COMMITTEES IN SERVICE DELIVERY

Local administration regulation provides for the formation of WCs in cities. The drive of these WCs is mainly to establish an atmosphere suitable for the realisation of democracy (Section 72 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998). Consequently, WCs help as organs that intend to enhance the contribution of the community and empower communities to have a say in the government decisions. Van Rooyen and Mokoena (2013:766) argue that the key purpose of WCs is to assist legitimately voted ward councillors in actively accomplishing their directive to represent the community of the ward in the municipality. According to eThekweni Municipality (2021/2026), the Ward Committee's objective is to augment participatory democracy in Local Government.

Ngqele's (2010:23) description of a WC is presented hereunder.

- A council committee that is obligated to be open and answerable to the public.
- A public-grounded body that includes all organisations, sectors and independent persons in the community.
- An enabling medium that represents public welfare and communicates the community's needs in this regard to the council.
- A voluntary structure that is used for sharing ideas, information and issues related to local governance.
- A connection between the community and the council.

According to Ngqele (2016:85), WCs are formed to increase ward participation in all municipal self-governing and policymaking procedures. Their key role is to ensure voters' participation in decisions that affect their respective wards. All WCs are comprised of ward members who are elected. Ward councillors preside over WCs and one of the functions of proportional representation (PR) councillors is to provide support to WCs. According to eThekweni Municipality (2021/2026), a Ward Committee may recommend to its councillor on any matter that affects its ward or through the

ward councillor to the municipality. The ward committee will be regarded as the legal and the advisory body recognised by the municipal council as its consultative body and communication channel on matters affecting the ward, including but not limited to:

- i) representing the community on the compiling and the application of the IDP,
- ii) ensuring productive and friendly communication between the municipality and the community.

The ward committee shall work as a mobilising agent for community action. This may be attained as follows:

- i) Attending to all issues that affect and profit the community.
- ii) Acting in the best interest of the community.
- iii) Ensure vigorous participation of the community in:
 - Municipal service payment campaigns,
 - The municipality's budget process,
 - Decisions about providing municipal services,
 - Decisions about by-laws,
 - Such other duties as may be allocated to it by the municipality.

The ward committee shall ensure that service delivery provided by service providers appointed by the municipality are of expected quality and report sub-standard services and poor workmanship to the relevant authorities (eThekweni Municipality (2021/2026)).

Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) and German Technical Co-operation (GTZ) (2005:5-6) maintain that WCs enhance community contribution to metropolitan decision-making. WCs directly link the community with the municipality; they are ward representatives and are not associated with political parties (Sirovha, 2017:171). However, the non-political affiliation of ward councillors is debatable, according to Smith (2008:11-12). It is alleged that ward councillors directly influence the choice of WCs based on political affiliation. WCs are anticipated to partake in the procedures of IDPs, civic performance management and yearly budgets, for example.

WCs are expected to detect and introduce schemes to develop people's lives and can provide support to the local councillor in resolving disputes and making information

available regarding municipal operations. Furthermore, they can assist with community awareness campaigns about matters, such as waste, water, and sewage; and fees, since members are familiar with the requirements of local government (DPLG and GTZ, 2005:6). WCs are development partners that work in close cooperation with the local administration (Reddy & Sikhakhane, 2008:681). A WC is an independent advisory body that remains neutral in the execution of its duties (*Ibid*).

Although WCs contribute towards participatory democracy, they have some challenges of their own (Qwabe & Mdaka, 2011:66, Van Rooyen & Mokoena, 2013:767). According to DPLG & GTZ (2005), some ward committee challenges include, inter alia, the fact that some of their members have no experience in participating in committee meetings and are not used to committee procedures, it is the first time that some members have had to work with budgets and financial statements. Challenges also include that other ward committee members have not been in a situation before where they have had to report back to their communities and this is the first time that communities are being asked to give their comments and suggestions in issues that affect them (DPLG and GTZ, 2005).

The system of Community Development Workers (CDWs) functions in cities based on the topographical delineation of their wards. Introduced by government in 2003, CDWs are controlled at the provincial level. CDWs (which are not discussed in this thesis), like WCs were arguably established to narrow the opening between administration and the community regarding the countless needs for services offered by government (Van Rooyen & Mokoena, 2013:762).

The following section explains the role of Community Policing Forums (CPFs) in service delivery.

2.11 ROLE OF COMMUNITY POLICING FORUMS IN SERVICE DELIVERY

Community Policing Forums (CPFs) and Community Safety Forums (CSFs) are closely related; however, there is a clear distinction between the two. The tasks and authority of CSFs distinguish them from CPFs.

CSFs originated from the conditions encapsulated in the Republic of South Africa: National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) of 1996 and the Republic of South Africa:

White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998. Together these policies strive to ensure that the criminal justice system functions locally, including enhancing crime prevention activities (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012:4). The CSF assists as an organising body for partnership, combined planning, and execution of strategies at the local government level. According to Snyman (2017), Community safety forums (CSFs) is a body designed to function as a stage for monitoring and guiding the operation of multi-sectoral crime prevention and community safety inventiveness within the viewpoint of the provincial and national Justice Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) urgencies in serving as the main catalyst envisioned for supportive partnership towards a confined crime prevention strategy.

According to the Civilian Secretariat for Police (2012:4), CSFs are tasked with facilitating the implementation of a sectorised administration method for safety in local communities. However, a CPF serves as the community mouthpiece for policing and other pertinent safety issues. It is a legislated citizens' body formed according to the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, which is responsible for facilitating public-police partnerships within a precise police station sector. According to Snyman (2017), the formation of CPFs afforded the communities with the opportunity to collaborate with their local police station regularly. This had enhanced responsibility and the police-community relations (Snyman,2017; Cossyleon, 2019). A CPF comprises of a group of people from the police and from diverse environments that cooperate to tackle crime problems in their communities (Dlamini, 2017).

According to the Civilian Secretariat for Police (2012:7), the South African Police Service Act, 1995, offers specific roles of the police regarding community safety. These entail the following:

- Creating 'and maintaining partnership with the community';
- 'Promoting cooperation with the community';
- 'Promoting cooperation on policing with the community';
- 'Improving transparency and accountability to the community';
- 'Improved partnership with the community';
- 'Improved service delivery at all levels'; and

- ‘Joint problem identification and problem solving’. (Civilian Secretariat for Police (2012:7).

In view of the way in which black communities were policed in the past, the Interim Constitution viewed CPFs as an instrument through which black communities could establish partnership with the police, which would lead to effective service delivery (Minnaar, 2010:192). According to Skogan (2019; Snyman, 2017), community policing comprises three elements: citizen involvement, problem solving, and decentralization. Community policing model can be seen as a method of finding a solution for the limits and problems related to what has been called the standard (or ‘professional’) model of policing (Weisburd & Braga, 2019). For the CPF to be effective, the Executive Committee needs to be responsible and take their roles into action. Their meetings give them direction and a platform to work together to come up with better planning (Snyman, 2017). CPFs enhance the link between the police and citizens, nurture shared problem solving and collaborate with the police with a view to improving the police’s delivery of services to the citizens to whom they are accountable. A CPF performs a critical oversight function on behalf the community when working with the police in a particular sector. This function ensures the efficacy of the services that the police provide, reassures the community, and encourages the collaboration of the public that it safeguards (Suhaimi et al., 2021). According to Pelser (2002:13; de Maillard & Terpstra, 2021; Palmioto, 2011; Dlamini, 2017), another function of a CPF is to make the community’s needs known to the police and assist them to realise these needs. Community policing policies seek to address and alleviate community crime and disorder problems by working with the community to build resilience, collective efficacy, and social infrastructure for public safety coproduction (Natl. Acad. Sci. Eng.Med. 2018).

According to Pelser (2009:3), Section 221 (1) and (2) of the Constitution, it is directed that an Act of Parliament was to “provide for the establishment of community-police forums in respect of police stations”. CPFs accordingly would render the following functions:

- To promote police accountability to local communities and collaboration between citizens and the police

- To monitor the efficiency and efficacy of the police
- To give advice to the police relating to local urgencies
- To evaluate the delivery of visible police services that include
 - Provision, siting and staffing of police stations
 - Receiving and processing of grievances and charges
 - Patrolling residential and commercial areas
 - Prosecuting criminals
- To solicit enquiries into policing issues in the neighbourhood concerned.

(Pelser,1999:3).

According to Malatji (2016:29), CPFs were established to inculcate trust between the police and the community as well as bridging the gap of the apartheid era between them. According to Minnaar (2010:192), the Interim Constitution, Act 200 of 1993 catered for CPFs. The RSA Constitution of 1996 also addresses the matter of CPFs and views CPFs as a tool with which citizens, specifically blacks, can establish a relationship with the police, despite the way the community was regulated previously (Minnaar, 2010:192). Strategic partnerships in community policing are described in the section below.

2.12 STRATEGIC PARTNERSHIPS IN COMMUNITY POLICING

Although crime and violence are caused by different factors, the participation of different organisations may help in preventing them in the community. Since these organisations possess different paradigms and expertise, their expertise regarding crime and violence needs to be regulated and organised. According to Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR) (2016:21), partnerships are critical in making such multi-agency tactics work.

Crawford (1997:25) posits that the police or any other agency cannot challenge crime alone. An all-inclusive stakeholder approach based on common determination, information, resources and skills, is needed. In partnerships, formal social control through a state police system must be synchronised with the capacity of citizens for informal social control (Makin & Marenin, 2017:5). Makin and Marenin (2017:3) posit that partnerships clearly demonstrate if COP is being executed as an interconnected

and efficient strategy for policing or if it is simply a rhetorical declaration to appease local police, social groups, political actors and external donors.

In South Africa, various regulatory frameworks support the establishment of partnerships in policing. These include the Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996, the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, the White Paper on Safety and Security, 1998, the NCPS, 1996, and the SAPS Implementation Guideline for Partnerships in Policing, 1996, all provide procedures for partnerships in policing.

In the study that is the focus of this thesis, partnerships were viewed as a method of utilising community resources/services in a collaborative effort ensuring that all partners profit, and that crime/violence is decreased (CSIR, 2016:21). However, building partnerships requires community participation and initiatives.

Crime and violence prevention partnerships can be formed by any agency or government department. Several partnerships in South Africa have been initiated by communities, business, and local government (CSIR, 2016: 22).

Who must the allies be?

Local circumstances determine the kind of participants to be included in a partnership (CSIR, 2016:22; Makin & Marenin, 2017:2). The following organisations or groups should be included in any partnership:

- The police, local and provincial government Directorates of Safety and Security, the Department of Social Development, Justice and Correctional Services, the Department of Health, the Department of Education, and the Department of Human Settlements
- CPFs, CSFs, the private sector, civil society, and public-based organisations (CSIR, 2016:22)

As outlined in the CSIR Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention (2016:23), partnerships can organise around particular matters and each partnership needs to agree on its specific assignments and tasks. Tasks and responsibilities will grow as time progresses, as working relationships evolve and as collaboration increases.

Partnerships, as explained in the CSIR Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention (2016:23), could do the following:

- Share research and information regarding crime and violence and how to decrease it
- Identify gaps in the research and articulate a strategy to obtain more data
- Combined planning of crime and violence prevention actions
- Decide on and set priorities
- Organising crime and violence prevention actions
- Planning for resources
- Lobby for additional organisations to participate in stopping crime and violence

The rotation of responsibility for organising meetings and of the chairperson may be useful if they are problematic. Ideally, the partnership leader requires a sound comprehension of crime and violence prevention and of partnership strategies, as well as the ability to inspire the public to join the fight against crime and violence (CSIR, 2016:23-24). The leader should possess political and negotiation expertise and the ability to facilitate agreement between various members of the team. It would be beneficial if a partnership leader had access to decision makers and resources.

A minor secretariat can manage the partnership's business if resources are available. For example, a local council section can deliver this service. It could be beneficial to hire an organiser for administering partnership matters and performing tasks that arise between meetings (CSIR, 2016:24).

Partnership as outlined in the CSIR Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention (2016:24), might be formed at a provincial, district, municipal, ward or community level. Local conditions, the type of crime challenges that need to be tackled and geographical considerations would determine the level of partnership.

2.12.1 Structure of partnerships

According to Lab (2014:244), partnerships differ significantly, mainly owing to the importance of determining interventions to address a particular problem. The CSIR (2016:24) as well as Makin and Marenin (2017:1) posit that partnerships can operate both formally and informally. Both types of partnerships can be effective, but formal

structures are more viable. As roles and responsibilities become clearer over time, partnerships can become more formal.

CSIR (2016:24) describes informal partnerships as naturally loose systems of concerned parties and structures that hold meetings occasionally and frequently at short notice. Usually, they can react effortlessly to vicissitudes and difficulties. Similarly, they reduce friction between associates about leadership and roles. However, they also rely on individuals to perform and are negatively affected by the departure of key members.

A formally organised partnership, as explained in the CSIR Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention (2016: 24), could be a nominated crime prevention group or individuals who are official representatives of an agency or group.

Sustainable partnerships involving communities need not be bound by instructions and rules. Forming trust and cooperation in the partnership will empower it to find solutions to challenges and recognise the equality of those who contribute to it (Benit-Gbaffou, 2006:315). According to Miller and Hess (2005:174), partnership policing refers to the teamwork that occurs among police officers, community members, government agencies and other participants to prevent crime. It is an approach that emboldens partners to address crime and other social problems within the community (Mabunda, 2018:93; Sučić & Karlović, 2017:11).

2.12.2 Challenges of partnerships in policing

Research has shown that policing partnerships are not always successful. According to Robinson (2003:656), challenges may originate from the public or police in the execution of their initiatives. It is significant to acknowledge that keeping the community safe is impossible if the stakeholders' function separately rather than as partners. A partnership approach in fighting crime, reinforced by the citizens, business, civic organisations and other stakeholders, ought to be accepted to guarantee safety and security (Mabunda, 2018:97).

A lack of strong leadership and incentive could influence policing partnerships in practice. According to Segrave and Ratcliffe (2004:3), the police might be unwilling to prioritise policing partnerships. These challenges facing policing partnerships may

mean that other community participative structures such as SCs might be more viable in crime prevention. The study described in this thesis investigated the role of SCs in crime prevention. Mabunda (2018:99) posits that the efficacy of partnership policing requires resources. Service delivery is unimaginable where police have insufficient resources.

Partnership policing always requires proactive rather than reactive policing (Mabunda, 2018:100). The following section describes the role of SCs in the provision of services that meet community challenges.

2.13 THE ROLE OF STREET COMMITTEES IN SERVICE DELIVERY

SCs were established in the early 1980s as a direct response by citizens to offer community solutions to the challenges of the day. The WC is the only elected representative structure whose role is clearly defined in terms of legislation. The role of SCs in local governance is not clearly defined (Mngqibisa, 2009:12).

However, the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, which urges cities to create a conducive environment for community participation to flourish, and the Constitution of the Republic of SA, 1996, which mandates local administration to allow the community to participate in local governance, implicitly accommodate SCs (Mngqibisa, 2009:13). Only the ruling party, the African National Congress (ANC), has made numerous calls for the resurrection of SCs to combat crime. According to Mngqibisa (2009:13), municipalities are not compelled by any legislation to acknowledge the participation of SCs in local governance.

According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:7), SCs were a means for citizens to tackle crime, owing to the lack of trust in the police service at that time. These community structures proved effective in crime management, as well as in responding to serious issues with the provision of services, including water, sanitation, electricity, and infrastructure.

In performing their duties, SCs transcended the call of duty since they participated in other socioeconomic activities, which included the following:

- Preventing and resolving family violence

- Community wellbeing matters, including dealing with orphans, disabled people, the elderly, and so forth
- Interacting with local businesspeople
- Protection and empowerment of vulnerable groups, including youth and women
- Education
- Service delivery
- Improving the environment

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:8).

The role of SCs in service delivery will be further elucidated in the next chapter, Chapter 4. In this section, the researcher intended to explain the role of SCs in service delivery. The section below describes the significance of Operation Sukuma Sakhe (OSS) in service delivery.

2.14 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF OPERATION SUKUMA SAKHE IN SERVICE DELIVERY

In 2009, the KZN Provincial Government announced a flagship programme, later known as “Operation Sukuma Sakhe” (translated as “Stand Up and Build”), in response to the tripartite challenges of poverty, inequality and unemployment (Ngidi, Kuzwayo, Ndlovu, Moonlall, Mkhize, Ngwenya & Behari, 2013:215).

Public relations, behaviour transformation, economic development and environmental health are some of OSS’s key areas. The objectives of OSS are attained through forming and supporting cross-purposeful bodies at provincial, district, local and ward levels, which aim to provide combined services to individuals and families. According to Ndlovu and Msweli (2016:162), the cross-functional teams comprise nationwide/regional department officials and representatives of local municipalities.

The foremost intention of OSS, according to Ndlovu (2013:1), is to merge government, community organisations, the private sector, and citizens in actively contributing to the building of KZN. Moreover, OSS is based on the realisation that local government needs to move away from its old and rigid method of distributing services straight up to citizens and adopt cross-sectional groups, comprising various role players.

The OSS programme emphasises the war against illnesses, such as HIV, AIDS, and TB as well as famine. It encourages nutrition safety as well as women and youth empowerment. It fights against community challenges that include adolescent pregnancy, gender-based violence, drugs/substance abuse, crime, and street accidents. The OSS strategy means that areas of wards experiencing a sense of hopelessness and deprivation are prioritised.

An action room must be established in each ward, which is known as the “War Room” for fighting poverty. Public care workers, unpaid assistants and community members profile individuals and families that bring their needs to the War Room (Ndlovu & Msweli, 2016:262). Weekly meetings are conducted at the War Rooms, where ward issues are discussed and likely solutions for the problems proposed. The task team is formed by War Room members comprising representatives of various government, political, traditional, business, women’s, youth, and religious structures, to name but a few. This task team safeguards the implementation of integrated service delivery.

2.14.1 History of Operation Sukuma Sakhe

The original OSS programme was launched by the KZN in 2009. In 2011, at the State of the Province Address, OSS was re-launched, even though community participation had been poor during the initial implementation of the programme. According to Ndlovu and Msweli (2016:162), a new symbol was introduced for the programme in the form of a red ribbon, suggesting HIV, AIDS and TB challenges, and an image of open hands, indicating that people were prepared to build KZN.

2.14.2 Operation Sukuma Sakhe’s objectives

OSS’s main objective is to solve community challenges by means of combined service delivery. Through OSS, departments are expected to collaborate with one another for the efficient provision of services. OSS’s intention is to make the joint delivery of services model a lasting characteristic of the administration process.

Other objectives of OSS include poverty alleviation, public education on HIV/AIDS and recognising public needs, for example. Poverty alleviation is through community development programmes. According to Macwele (2014:45), these programmes involve the formation of small, medium, and micro enterprises (SMMEs) and agrarian

cooperatives that provide effective services. Moreover, the programmes entail enabling/supporting the development and education of SMMEs and agrarian cooperatives. These interventions are carried out by the Department of Economic Development, Tourism and Environmental Affairs (DEDT&EA) and the Durban Municipality Business Support Unit.

Moreover, the DEDT&EA Enterprise Development Programme gives monetary support to SMMEs and promotes youth commercial competencies development and the advancement of trading centres' infrastructure. The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) sees to the formation of employment prospects. OSS functions according to the nationwide rules of the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) (Macwele, 2014:45).

Although the community-policing framework was explained earlier in this chapter, the following section explains the role of leadership and SCs in community policing.

2.15 ROLE OF LEADERSHIP AND STREET COMMITTEES IN COMMUNITY POLICING

Fleming and Rhodes (2005:192) indicate that the numerous problems that confront police in their daily work originate from the challenges of merging a command-and-control body with prescribed responsibilities while simultaneously employing the customer-intensive method of public regulation. Wright (2002:60) maintains that community policing involves management, partnership and consultation as well as having confidence in the public. SCs may provide leadership and provide solutions to crime and violence and thus fill the void left by police problems. SCs have strong leadership since its leaders come from the community and are therefore acquainted with the community challenges. Police and SCs need robust leadership to work jointly in crime prevention.

There are varying theories and definitions of leadership. Stevens (2003:104) defines leadership as the ability to influence and manage the activities of others. Winston and Patterson (2006:7) define leaders as people who choose, arm, train and persuade one or more supporters who have varied gifts, aptitudes, and skills. Leaders make their follower(s) focus on an undertaking and its aims, causing the follower(s) to expend

emotional and physical energy in a determined and synchronised attempt to realise this

Leaders are also viewed as people who could “define policy problems in ways that both attract the attention of decision makers and indicate appropriate policy responses” (Mintrom & Vergari, 1996:423). According to Community Police Forum Pocket Guide (2014), in certain police stations in SA, failure to implement the Community Policing Framework and Guidelines is due to inadequate comprehension. The police, according to the framework, are required to create a conducive atmosphere for working with potential allies. Apparently, numerous South African police stations have witnessed the failure of management to safeguard the execution of this strategy and, consequently, community policing could not be successfully implemented (Mabunda, 2014: 51).

According to Ludman (2010:1), Johannesburg’s CPF chairperson, Stein, mentioned that each CPF’s efficiency and powers rely on the police at the station level. Stein maintains that a station officer or zone officer who is sympathetic to the coalition is needed for a CPF to function efficiently. Therefore, a CPF is useless without police support. An effective CPF needs eloquent people inspired to decrease crime, including a police force capable of implementing ground-breaking tactics (Malatji, 2016:41).

The case study conducted by Benit-Gbaffou (2006:315) indicated that workable community relationships need a reasonable level of assurance and endurance concerning the guidelines and rules. Establishing trust and forming a partnership, which can find locally relevant solutions to security challenges, hinge upon the identification, on both sides, of the key participants in the area. Endurance is a vital component of what is considered “public service” and is central to the security field. Endurance is also critical with respect to the community personnel engaged in partnerships between the public and the police. The success of these partnerships depends on the specific traits and personalities of the individuals involved.

Bennit-Gbaffou’s (2006:315) case study found that during an intermediate situation, police facility reshuffling needed capable black police officials to be swiftly elevated to management positions. However, this led to the disruption of procedures at the local

level that frequently disturbed developing relationships (and trust) and left people extremely distressed and disappointed (Benit-Gbaffou, 2006:315).

The case study conducted by Bennit-Gbaffou (2006:315) also indicated that in Yeoville, numerous SCs had been formed and occasionally motivated by the CPF. There is a belief in SA, mostly in political debates, that there are “good” methods and “bad” methods of community policing. The closing of streets is viewed as a “bad” method that is a reminder of the “*laager*” that was part of a society that separated itself from (and fought against) an external enemy, with a racial element added to the situation. However, SCs and CPFs are a “good” method of community policing.

2.16 SUMMARY

This chapter gave an overview of community participation in local governance. It also explained the nature and extent of community participation; its definitions and uses; community participation internationally and in developing countries; and community participation in crime prevention.

This was followed by an explanation of community participation in South Africa, especially as it is envisaged by the eThekweni Municipality. The chapter examined the role of local government and WCs in the provision of services; strategic partnerships in community policing; the role of SCs and the OSS in the provision of services; and the significance of leadership and SCs in community policing. The following chapter covers the statutory framework for public engagement.

CHAPTER THREE

LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK FOR COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this thesis is on the role of SCs in crime prevention in selected townships of the EMA. However, this chapter's key objective is to explain the South African legislative framework for community participation. It elucidates various policy and legislative guidelines that provide for community participation.

3.2 THE CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC OF SA, 1996

The Constitution is the country's highest law and calls for co-operation amongst, and effective management in, the national, provincial and local spheres of government. Safety and security are addressed in the Constitution, particularly the Bill of Rights, which is Chapter 2 of the Constitution. Democratic values such as dignity, equality, freedom and the right to safety and freedom of expression are captured in the Bill of Rights and Chapter 11 of the Constitution highlights the roles of the stakeholders in the criminal justice system.

Chapter 11 contains the points listed hereunder.

1. National security must reflect the resolve of South Africans, as individuals and as a nation, to live as equals, to live in peace and harmony, to be free from fear and want and to seek a better life.
2. The resolve to live in peace and harmony precludes any South African citizen from participating in armed conflict, nationally or internationally, except as provided for in terms of the Constitution or national legislation.
3. National security must be pursued in compliance with the law, including international law.
4. National security is subject to the authority of Parliament and the national executive (RSA, 1996a).

Community management is premised on basic standards and values. One of the basic values and principles enjoins institutions in the public arena to "respond to people's needs and encourage public participation in policy making".

3.2.1 Section 152 of the Constitution

One of the ideals of local administration, as espoused in Chapter 7 of the Constitution, is to inspire community participation and the engagement of citizens in local government matters that affect their lives (Sirovha, 2017:121).

Section 152 of the Constitution provides that local administration needs to perform the following list of tasks.

- Offer autonomous and responsible administration for local citizens
- Safeguard the sustainable delivery of services
- Encourage communal and commercial development
- Encourage a safe and healthy environment
- Inspire the participation of citizens and public organisations (RSA, 1996a)

3.2.2 Section 195 of the Constitution

Chapter 10 of the Constitution focuses on public administration and describes the elementary standards and values upon which public government should be based. Section 195 (1) (e) of the South African Constitution states that there must be provision for people's needs and that community involvement in policymaking must be encouraged.

3.3 THE WHITE PAPER ON TRANSFORMING PUBLIC SERVICE DELIVERY, 1997

The Republic of South Africa: White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997 (also known as the Batho Pele White Paper) encourages instruments to allow the government to optimise service delivery to all people. It unravels eight values for altering the delivery of services. Loosely translated, Batho Pele denotes "People First". It was offered with the intention to change public sector service delivery radically. It comprises eight values, which are associated with the Constitution (RSA, 1996).

The administration of SA conceived the Batho Pele principles as the foundation of all relationships between government institutions and the public. The eight Batho Pele principles are as follows:

3.3.1 Consultation

There should be consultation between government and the people regarding the level, nature, quantity, and the quality of services to be rendered. Various methods of consultation can be used, such as Izimbizo, workshops, campaigns, and meetings.

3.3.2 Service Standards

There should be public consultation about the level, quality and quantity of services and products the public obtains from departments and service providers. This principle reinforces the culture of involvement in the determination of values of amenities.

3.3.3 Access

There should be equitable access to the services delivered to the people. Inequalities and unequal distribution of services are tackled by this principle of Batho Pele.

3.3.4 Courtesy

Public sector members of staff should treat all citizens with politeness, consideration, and respect. Courtesy requires going beyond sympathy and should include empathy when dealing with citizens.

3.3.5 Information

Full and accurate information should be made available to citizens about service delivery. Fellow public sector staff members should have information about service delivery and the organisation.

3.3.6 Openness and Transparency

Knowing how national, provincial, and local administrative institutions operate is key to openness and transparency. The public should have knowledge and information about how government institutions use resources, how departments are managed and how much they spend.

3.3.7 Redress

There should be a well-known instrument for keeping records of public dissatisfaction. Staff members should be trained to handle complaints and resolve them proficiently.

3.3.8 Best Value

This principle involves giving customers the best service and includes eliminating wasteful expenditure, corruption, and fraud. (RSA, 2003)

3.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE (SAPS) ACT 68 OF 1995

According to Mabunda (2014:19), the role of the SAPS Act, 1995 is to create a conducive environment for interaction between the SAPS and communities. The Act delivers clear procedures for all features of the effective running of police service, from administration through to the behaviour of ordinary policemen. It spells out the objective for the Secretariat for Safety and Security and outlines the role and appointment conditions of a national commissioner and nine provincial commissioners (RSA, 1995).

The Act outlines the law regarding the establishment of a national police unit, municipal police services, CPFs and various boards. The Act gives clear legal guidelines regarding the establishment of a national police unit, which investigates organised crime, or any criminal activity that is considered risky to the whole country (RSA, 1995). Furthermore, the foundation for the establishment of municipal police services, which operate within the jurisdiction of a municipality, is established by this Act (RSA, 1995). The Act also includes a framework for CPFs because they guarantee active communication and cooperation between the police and citizens in the fight against crime.

The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 makes provision for the creation of the Independent Complaints Directorate. It also stipulates certain functions of the police regarding public security. Functions encapsulate the following:

- Forming and sustaining public relations
- Encouraging public communication
- Upholding collaboration in public policing
- Refining openness and responsibility to the public
- Enhanced partnership with citizens
- Better delivery of services at all stages
- Shared identification of the solution and the problem

(Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012:7).

According to Bezuidenhout (2019:305), at the time of the passing of the Act, it was the intention of the then President Mandela that everybody in SA should be equal before the law. Mandela envisioned that the SAPS would transform its military character to one more suited to interaction with the community. The changes envisioned in the Act were implemented in 1995. The police service was entirely restructured, and the term “force” was replaced by the term “service”. Thus, a more accountable and citizen-orientated police service was created. The generation of healthier partnerships between the police and the public and the adoption of a new mindset in policing was assured (Bezuidenhout, 2019:305).

3.5 THE CORRECTIONAL SERVICES ACT 111 OF 1998

Effective reintegration and incorporation of criminals into society is critical in the primary, secondary, and tertiary crime deterrence models. This responsibility is placed squarely on the Department of Correctional Services by the Correctional Services Act 111 of 1998. SCs serve as the eyes and the ears of the community. They are the first to know if there are visitors in the area and the first to know when prisoners have been released from prison. SCs occupy a specific role of integrating and incorporating criminals into the society. Former prisoners are encouraged through SCs to serve in SCs to assist in crime prevention. Participation of ex- convicts in crime prevention vehicles like SCs also assist in the swift acceptance of former criminals by the community.

3.6 THE MUNICIPAL STRUCTURES ACT (117 OF 1998 AS AMENDED IN 2000)

The Municipal Structures Act boosts community participation through encouraging the formation of WCs. WCs are aimed at entrenching democracy and improving the culture of involving members of the community in local governance. The Act stresses that municipalities and metropolitan councils should ensure that there is equitable representation of women and diverse interest groups in WCs.

All South African cities are obliged by legislation to provide administrative procedures that allow WCs to execute their responsibilities and perform their purpose efficiently.

Through the Act, provision is made for the participation of traditional structures that observe customary law.

According to the Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998 as amended in 2000), Section 72, only metropolitan centres and specified municipalities can have ward committees (WCs). A WC's objective in a local government is to advance participatory democracy. Section 73 (1) of the Municipal Structures Act states that should a metro or local council choose to have a WC, it should establish a WC for each ward in the municipality. Section 73 (2) states that a WC is composed of a councillor and ten or fewer people.

The Municipal Structures Act 117 Section 73 (3) states that a metro or local council is obligated to make rules to regulate the procedure to elect WC members considering the need for equitable women representation and for a diversity of interests' representation in the ward, the circumstances under which those members must vacate office and the frequency of the meetings of ward committees. According to the Municipal Structures Act 117(4), a metro or local council may make administrative arrangements to enable ward committees to perform their functions and exercise their powers effectively.

Regarding the powers and functions of WCs, Section 74 states that a WC may make recommendations on any matter affecting its ward to the councillor, through the ward councillor, to the metro or local council, the executive committee, the executive mayor, or the relevant metropolitan sub-council and has such duties and powers as the metro or local council may delegate to it in terms of Section 32.

Despite Section 73 of the Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998 as amended) and the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, metros or local councils do not exercise their powers to formalise, through local by-laws, policy for their jurisdictions or wards that can include arrangements to formalise street committees (SC) in the work of ward committees. The legislation is clear in this regard, as it allows municipalities to invoke their powers. However, municipalities have never yet invoked nor enforced their powers in this regard. SCs, therefore, fail to be legislated despite communities' belief and trust in them. Communities fail to hold municipalities accountable, and they also fail to recognise and understand their powers. WCs are formed by municipalities

mainly because the Act mentions them specifically. WC members are community members, yet they also fail to account for and motivate for the formation of SCs. The municipality decides what is suitable for the citizens.

The Municipal Structures Act (117 of 1998 as amended.2000), as well as the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 (discussed below) state that all cities should develop an IDP in discussion with local citizens. Active and full participation of the community in each ward in the development of an IDP is obligatory. An IDP is aimed at improving past ineffective procedures/structures and ensuring sustainable development.

3.7 THE MUNICIPAL SYSTEMS ACT 32 OF 2000

The Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 provides legislation empowering cities to develop their citizens by guaranteeing access to necessary services. According to the Act, a borough/ward is comprised of a political/administrative structure and local communities. The Act provides for the main values, instruments and procedures that are needed to allow boroughs to change gradually for the social and economic development of local people and guarantee universal access to basic services. Therefore, municipalities therefore have executive and legislative powers that help them to achieve their objectives.

Section 16 of the Act encourages boroughs to develop a philosophy of authority that shares power with the community. Thus, the official delegated administration accepts the participation of the community in local governance. Section 17 of the Act describes the instruments, procedures, and actions for community participation in municipal matters (RSA, 2000a). Section 18 of the Act enjoins municipalities to communicate information to its community. Section 17(1) of the Municipal Systems Act specifies the mechanisms, processes and procedures for community participation. It stipulates that participation by the local community in the municipality's affairs must take place through:

- (a) political structures for participation in terms of the Municipal Structures Act;
- (b) the mechanisms, processes and procedures for participation in municipal governance created in terms of this Act;
- (c) other suitable mechanisms, processes and procedures created by the municipality;

- (d) councillors and
- (e) commonly applying the provisions for participation as offered in this Act.

Section 18 of the Act enjoins municipalities to communicate information to their communities concerning:

- (a) the available mechanisms, processes and procedures to encourage and facilitate community participation;
- (b) the matters regarding community participation;
- (c) the rights and duties of members of the local community;
- (d) municipal governance, management and development.

Section 19 of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 addresses the public notice of meetings of municipal councils and states that the municipal manager of a municipality must give notice to the public, in a manner determined by the municipal council, of the time, date and venue of every:

- (a) ordinary meeting of the council
- (b) special or urgent meeting of the council, except when time constraints make this impossible.

According to Section 20 (1) of the Municipal Systems Act, meetings of a municipal council and those of its committees are open to the public, including the media, and the council or such committee may not exclude the public, including the media, from a meeting, except when:

- (a) it is rational to do so having regard for the nature of the business being transacted
- (b) and a by-law or a resolution of the council specifying the circumstances in which the council or such committee may close a meeting and in compliance with paragraph (a) authorises the council or such committee to close the meeting to the public.

The Municipal Systems Act Section 20 (2) states that a municipal council or a committee of the council may not eliminate the public, including the media, when considering or voting on any of the following matters:

- (a) a draft by-law tabled in the council;
- (b) a budget tabled in the council;
- (c) the municipality's draft integrated development plan, or any amendment to the plan, tabled in the council;
- (d) the municipality's draft performance management system or any amendment to the system, tabled in the council;
- (e) the decision to enter into a service delivery agreement referred to in Section 76(b)
- (f) or any other matter prescribed by regulation.

Section 20 (3) of the Municipal Systems Act stipulates that an executive committee mentioned in Section 42 of the Municipal Structures Act and a mayoral committee mentioned in Section 60 of that Act may, subject to Subsection (1) (a) close any or all of its meetings to the public, including the media.

According to the Municipal Systems Act Section 20(4) a municipal council:

- (a) within the financial and administrative capacity of the municipality, must provide space for the public in the chambers and places where the council and its committees meet and
- (b) may take reasonable steps to regulate public access to and public conduct at meetings of the council and its committees.

Regarding communications to the local community, Section 21 (1) of the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 specifies that when anything must be communicated by a municipality through the media to the local community in terms of this Act or any other suitable legislation, it should be done –

- (a) in the local newspaper or newspapers of its area;
- (b) in the newspaper or newspapers circulating in its area and regulated by the council as a newspaper of record;
- (c) using radio broadcasts catering to the municipal area.

It is mainly through the budget and OSS that communities take part in the affairs of their municipality. Ward committees exist but they do not perform any role in ensuring

community participation in the formulation of by-laws and other relevant legislation. Ward committees are mainly involved in political party matters. Section 17 (1) (a) participation by the local community in the municipality's affairs must take place through political structures, yet despite the ANC advocating for the formation of SCs, it is unheard of that any political party, including the ANC (that has been calling for the formation of SCs), has influenced the formation of SCs in the Councils it leads.

Section 42 stipulates that municipalities by means of relevant instruments, procedures, and actions (explained in Chapter 4 of the Act) should engage local people in the development, execution, and review of municipal systems and, particularly, allow citizens to engage in the establishment of relevant critical performance indicators and municipal performance goals (RSA, 2000a).

Chapter 6 of the Act gives an outline for performance supervision in municipalities. The Act stipulates that, cities should do the following:

- Grow a performance supervision structure
- Establish goals and oversee/assess performance based on goals related to the IDP
- Issue a yearly account of the performance of councillors, officials, and representatives of other government levels
- Integrate and give an account of general goals established nationally by the minister accountable for local administration
- Administer an internal performance review prior to submitting the account
- Engage citizens in establishing measures/goals and revising civic targets (RSA, 2000a).

3.8 THE MUNICIPAL FINANCE MANAGEMENT ACT (MFMA) 56 OF 2003

In addition to its directive on how public finances should be sustained, the Municipal Finance Management Act (MFMA) 56 of 2003 provides a framework of how citizens can be notified of a city's fiscal state. The Act emphasises that municipalities must ensure that there is transparency regarding its budget for all community members. According to the Act, provision not only refers to the city council or officials, but also other municipal bodies and provincial and national organs.

‘The National Treasury is obliged to fulfil its responsibilities in terms of Chapter 13 of the Constitution and this Act. A provincial treasury must in accordance with a prescribed framework, promote the object of this Act as stated in section 2 within the framework of co-operative government set out in Chapter 3 of the Constitution and assist the National Treasury in enforcing compliance with the measures established in terms of section 216(1) of the Constitution, including those established in terms of this Act. It is mandatory for the Provincial treasury to monitor compliance with this Act by municipalities and municipal entities in the province’. ‘The MEC for finance in a province may delegate any of the powers or duties assigned to a provincial treasury in terms of this Act to the head of the relevant provincial department of which the provincial treasury forms part. The accounting officer of a municipality must administer all the municipality’s bank accounts, including a bank account referred to in section 12. The accounting officer is also accountable to the municipal council for the municipality’s bank accounts.’

‘The mayor of the municipality must table the annual budget at a council meeting at least 90 days before the start of the budget year. The mayor of a municipality must, upon becoming aware of any actual non-compliance by the municipality of a provision of this Chapter, inform the council, the MEC for finance and the National Treasury, in writing, of such non-compliance’.

‘National and provincial departments and public entities must in their fiscal and financial relations with the local sphere of government, promote co-operative government in accordance with Chapter 3 of the Constitution, timely meet their financial commitments towards municipalities’. ‘In order to provide predictability and certainty about the sources and levels of intergovernmental funding for municipalities, the accounting officer of a national or provincial department and the accounting authority of a national or provincial public entity responsible for the transfer of any proposed allocations to a municipality, is obliged by no later than 20 January of each year to advise the National Treasury or the relevant provincial treasury, as may be appropriate, of all proposed allocations, and the projected amounts of those allocations, to be transferred to each municipality during each of the next three financial years’.

The Act states that ‘the Minister or the MEC in charge of finance in a province is obligated, to the extent possible, when tabling the national yearly budget in the National Assembly or the provincial annual budget in the provincial legislature, make public particulars of any allocations payable to each municipality in terms of that

budget, including the amount to be transferred to the municipality during each of the next three financial years.

According to the Act, 'the Minister, acting in agreement with the Cabinet member in charge of local government, may make regulations that recommend the manner, form and circumstances in which allegations and disciplinary and criminal charges of financial transgression must be reported to the National Treasury, the MEC for local government in the province and the Auditor-General, including'.

A councillor, municipality official or municipal entity, the board of directors' member of a municipal entity or any other person is guilty of an offence if that person intentionally or in a completely careless way obstructs an accounting officer from fulfilling the provision of this Act.

3.9 INDEPENDENT POLICE INVESTIGATIVE DIRECTORATE (IPID) ACT 1 OF 2011

Section 206 (6) of the S.A. Constitution, 1996 provides for the establishment of an autonomous police grievances body. In this regard, the Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) Act 1 of 2011 (Republic of South Africa: IPID, 2018/19:12), section 206 (6) states the following

On receipt of a complaint lodged by a provincial executive, an independent police complaints body established by national legislation must investigate any alleged misconduct of, or offence committed by, a member of the police services in the province (IPID, 2018/19:12).

According to IPID (2018/19:12), the IPID is housed in the Ministry of Police. It performs its functions independently of SAPS. The Minister of Police, the Honourable Bheki Cele, stated the following:

We reaffirm our commitment for the practical and working independence of the IPID, as the device created to play an oversight role by keeping in check the criminality within the ranks of the police (IPID, 2018/19:2).

The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 made provision for the formation of the Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD) in 1997, which was the predecessor to the IPID. Thus, the IPID Act 1 of 2011 (IPID ACT) replaced the ICD with the IPID (IPID, 2018/19:14). The IPID (2018/19:12) realises the provision stated in Section 206 (6) of the

Constitution by ensuring independent oversight of the SAPS and the Metropolitan Police Service (MPS). IPID concerns human rights protection (Smith, 2013:199). It is the obligation of this autonomous oversight organ to inculcate practices that yield accountability among all police officers (Berg, 2013).

The IPID Act 1 of 2011 provides powers to the IPID to investigate offences allegedly perpetrated by members of the SAPS and the MPS. The following are examples of such offences:

- Any death in police custody
- Deaths resulting from police activities
- Any grievance relating to the discharge of an authorised firearm through any police official
- Rape perpetrated by a police officer at or off work
- Rape of any person in police keeping
- Any grievance of torment against police during the execution of their responsibilities
- Matters of corruption in the police either brought up by the Executive Director, arising from a grievance from a community member or referred to the IPID by the Minister, Member of the Executive Council (MEC) or the Secretary for the Service.
- Any additional issue referred to the IPID because of the Executive Director's decision, or if demanded by the Minister, an MEC or the Police Service Secretary as the case may be (IPID, 2018/19:12).

3.10 THE RECONSTRUCTION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME (RDP)

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), which was legislated by the White Paper on Reconstruction and Development, 1994, is based on the notion that the capacitation and the empowerment of civil society is the essential aim of the programme. The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is a policy framework for cohesive and lucid socio-economic progress. It strives to mobilise all our people and our country's resources toward the lasting abolition of the consequences of apartheid. (Republic of South Africa, 1994). It provides our country with an exceptional opportunity to bring about renewal, peace, prosperity,

reconciliation, and stability (Republic of South Africa, 1994). It is the product of continuous consultation and has been accepted and supported by all political parties in the GNU and in Parliament, and by all sections of our society. RDP is premised on the foundation of a national consensus and encapsulates the vision of the future. The RDP comprehends the birth of a changed nation can only flourish if the people themselves are active participants in the process towards the realisation of these goals they have themselves helped to define. In this spirit, the RDP, which has developed through a process of consultation and joint policy formulation, will continue to encourage organisations within civil society to take responsibility for the actual implementation of the Programme (Republic of South Africa, 1994).

The RDP is cohesive and lucid, as well as having a social and financial policy agenda. According to the ANC (1994:4), the main aim of the RDP is to meet the community's basic needs and advance citizens' socioeconomic circumstances. Moreover, this programme for the sustainable development of all citizens was drawn up with the assistance of various community bodies and other delegated organisations.

3.11 NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGY OF 1996

South Africa experienced key policy and legislative changes after the transition to democracy. Crime was one of the issues that the country had to address. There was a recognition that a complex variety of factors drives crime. A new paradigm shift to tackle crime was needed based on a consideration of various historical and socioeconomic factors. According to Minnaar (2010:192), the senior administration of the newly transformed SAPS and the National Secretariat acknowledged that certain rules, regulation, and procedures for policing in the new South Africa needed revisiting.

Initiated in 1995 by the cabinet, the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was launched in 1996 (Minnaar, 2010:193). NCPS assumes two critical principles acknowledging crime as a social phenomenon and the significance of multisectoral partnerships in the war against crime (UNODC, 2010:32). According to Pienaar (2014:161), the main objective of the NCPS was to address the fundamental causes of crime and to reduce it significantly. According to Newham (2005:1), the NCPS was the product of research and engagement with a multifaceted squad of professionals comprising government representatives and citizens, who were assigned the task of

producing a long-term policy for tackling the fundamental causes of crime in SA. The NCPS adopted a developmental approach to crime prevention based on international models. Omar (2010:1) posits that those who created the NCPS acknowledged that crime could not be tackled by the police alone. According to Van Aswegen (2000:143), the main emphasis of one of the pillars of the NCPS is refining the efficiency of the criminal justice process, using, among other things, the effective investigation, prosecution and punishment of offenders. The NCPS envisioned the responsibility of crime prevention as shared by the community (Omar, 2010:1). SAPS (2014-2019:6), explains that the NCPS was founded on four supports:

- Enhancing the criminal justice process by increasing efficiency and effectiveness, thus serving as a deterrent for criminals
- Reducing crime through the CPTED approach, focusing on obstructing prospects for crime in the physical environment, including reshaping surroundings and systems
- Implementing values education programmes in the community to reduce crime, changing the way communities react to crime and violence and encouraging community participation in crime prevention
- Implementing a trans-national criminal syndicate programme to improve border security, control international criminal syndicates and strengthen relationships with neighbouring countries (SAPS, 2014-2019:6).

The developmental approach adopted by the NCPS (RSA, 1996b) aimed to reduce crime by means of the following:

- Building and integrating a detailed policy framework to monitor various government departments and shape the way in which all resources are utilised
- Generating a shared understanding of the objective of preventing rather than controlling crime
- Maximising community participation in crime prevention and instilling confidence in all South Africans that crime will be reduced
- Forming committed and holistic crime prevention capacity, which could involve continuous study, community assessment and departmental campaigns (RSA, 1996b)

Rauch (2002:12) explains that the NCPS was underpinned by the following principles:

- Government alone cannot solve the problem of crime
- Crime prevention requires the partnership of all three tiers of government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs)
- Dealing with crime needs more resources than law enforcement and the criminal justice system alone can provide. The NCPS proposes a move away from the old approach to crime management to a new approach, which emphasises social, as opposed to state prevention
- Integration of activities and better coordination between departments that constitute the system can assist the justice system to operate effectively
- For efficient crime prevention strategy planning and execution, crimes need to be disaggregated since they are different
- Criminal justice and crime prevention efforts should be focussed on victims of crime rather than perpetrators
- Crime prevention strategies need to acknowledge the fear of crime and need to instil confidence in the community
- All crime prevention efforts need to be consistent with constitutional arrangements (Rauch, 2002:12).

According to Omar (2010:2), the NCPS was, undoubtedly, one of the exceptional attainments of the post 1994 dispensation. Notwithstanding, the NCPS was confronted by several challenges, including the following:

- The main pillars of the NCPS and those of other strategies at the time were poorly articulated, resulting in an over-focus on the NCPS and less focus on the structures and processes of crime itself
- It did not commit any real funding towards its implementation and had left that responsibility to government departments
- It was too comprehensive and too ambitious
- There was an extensive disconnection between the strategy and its actual implementation as a national programme
- There were inadequate information systems and project management skills to sustain implementation (Omar, 2010:2)

3.12 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLAN (IDP)

Community participation in local governance is ensured through the Integrated Development Plan (IDP), budgeting, performance supervision and WCs (Mbelengwa, 2016:21). Community participation is inextricably intertwined with democracy, 'and it is a governmental condition that the local community is involved in the process through integrated development planning, budgeting, performance management and ward committees' (Mbelengwa, 2016:21). The South African Government relates community participation in the IDP process with democracy and governance. Community participation in the IDP process is regarded as one of the ways of allowing local government and citizens to interact (Madzivhandila & Maloka, 2014:654).

The IDP was unveiled in 1996 as a strategic plan for SA's local governments. IDP is SA's main device for guiding and monitoring municipal policies (Molaba, 2016:1). Each municipality is obliged to prepare its own IDP. Moreover, according to DPLG and GTZ (2005:33), the IDP spells out a particular area's priorities. It is reviewed annually and has a five-year lifespan. It ensures that a municipality's scarce resources are effectively used and that the municipality targets priorities. IDP sources funding from other spheres of government, and it consolidates community participation. WC representatives are allowed by law to partake in the IDP Representative Forum, which means that the community participates in discussions, negotiations and joint decision making with the municipality. Thus, role-players represent their communities and ensure their welfare. In addition, the IDP Representative Forum allows for the monitoring of WCs' planning and implementing procedures (DPLG & GTZ, 2005:33).

3.13 COMMUNITY POLICING: POLICY FRAMEWORK GUIDELINES OF 1997

The Community Policing: Policy Framework Guidelines were introduced by the Department for Community Safety and Security in April 1997. The document was released before the White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998 (Minnaar, 20010:193). It accentuates crime prevention and collaboration with communities. The framework emboldens communities to take part actively in the development of strategies for tackling crime. The document gives guideline for the setting up of new partnerships and for the evaluation of existing collaborative arrangements. According to Saye and Abrahams (2019:13), community policing is a practical and targeted policing strategy that augments police efficiency and effectiveness and generally

results in the improved protection of a community. Cossyleon (2019:1) opines that community policing has been diversely defined and executed over time and within varying circumstances, largely because it is a policing philosophy that is adapted to the varying needs of local communities. Unlike old policing, which aims to stop crime mainly through punishment, community policing models are a set of crime prevention techniques that encourage building relationships between police officers and the communities they serve, to prevent crime. Community policing approaches also aim to create trust among uniformed officers and the public (Cossyleon, 2019:1).

The concept of community policing implies that the police service acknowledges that the preservation of law and order and crime prevention are shared between law enforcement agencies and the community. Thus, the public and the police collaborate in investigating and meeting challenges, as well as developing approaches to tackle them (Mengistu, Pindur & Leibold, 2000:7). Without a single model fitting these different contexts, those involved in policing should constantly use their initiative to articulate what works for them. Each country modifies the concept to suit its unique situation, people and crime problems. Essentially, this is how partnership policing should be operationalised at a local level (Saye & Abraham, 2019:15). Community policing is a comparatively simple concept and practice that accentuates the significance of a solid bond and collaborative participation between the community and the police using an organised approach (Sulaiman et al., 2014). Community policing is also a practice that endeavours to bring communities and law enforcement together to jointly create safety (Oppler, 1997; Tufail, 2013; Suhaimi, Nazuri, Burhan, Rahman & Hamsan, 2021:519).

According to Suhaimi et al. (2021:520), this policing method cannot focus on reactive action alone, as communities undergo ecological change, population growth, educational polarisation, science and technological advancement and encounter more advanced, globally-shaped crime. De Maillard and Roche (2018:391) posit that community policing structures are significant but the essence of policing rests in the rules, norms and values that govern police activities on the ground. Using community policing, community members work jointly with the police officers in formulating approaches and policies, including executing the crime prevention programmes in their communities (Suhaimi et al., 2021:520).

Partnerships between police officers and community members are effective in crime prevention. Regular interaction between citizens and the police removes the “us-versus-them” syndrome. In addition, partnerships between the community and the police facilitate the participation of citizens in a wide variety of governmental services (Mengistu *et al.*, 2000:8) and community bodies, such as CPFs, CSFs and WCs. These partnerships ensure the inclusion of citizens from various societal sectors, including businesses, different faiths, the elderly, women, SCs, area committees and marginalised/disadvantaged groups.

As stated in Chapter 2 of this thesis, CSFs are directly linked to CPFs. CSFs originated from the requirements stipulated in the NCPS of 1996 and the White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998 (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012:4). The CSF’s policy provides for the development and management of security strategies at a local level by both provincial and local administration in partnership with the community (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012: 4). Thus, although CSFs resemble CPFs in that they both involve partnerships with the community, a CPF is a community organisation formed in accordance with the SAPS Act 68 of 1995 and is authorised to co-ordinate partnerships between the community and the police to ensure security in a specified police jurisdiction (Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2012:4).

3.14 WHITE PAPER ON SAFETY AND SECURITY, 1998

The NCPS of 1996 and the White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998, represent two crucial strategies formulated by the government for safety and security. However, other initiatives have been adopted by the South African government to address crime. The White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998 was initiated in response to the challenges presented by the transformation of the SAPS. Moreover, it aimed to equip the police to function efficiently in curbing crime in the new political dispensation. This required the redefining of police roles and their service to the public and focussing on protecting citizens from crime (RSA, 1998b).

The White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998 aimed to do the following:

- Offer a holistic protection and safety strategy to be implemented in a judicial and administrative context in which the community is involved

- Enable the establishment of a viable, well-sourced instrument that will synchronise, monitor, appraise and give an account of crime reduction measures undertaken sectorally (RSA, 1998b)

The White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998 sets out the roles of provincial/local governments and a crime prevention strategy. It advocates for consultation across sectors, cooperation; integrated/effective service delivery; public participation and liability at all spheres of government for the attainment of safe communities. Therefore, health, social development, criminal justice, and education systems are significant in tackling factors that undermine safety and contribute to violence. According to the Republic of South Africa: White Paper on Safety and Security (1998:3), the emphasis has shifted toward improved service delivery, at the heart of which is the principle that “a partnership between the police and communities is essential for effective service delivery”. The Republic of South Africa: White Paper on Safety and Security (1998:19) recommends interventions for “a safer and more secure society” in two main areas, namely law enforcement and social crime prevention.

3.15 THE WHITE PAPER ON LOCAL GOVERNMENT (1998)

The White Paper on Local Government (1998) mandates local government to meet developmental objectives by using strategies that enhance conditions for community development (RSA, 1998a). This is in line with the Constitution of 1996, especially sections 152 and 153, that instruct municipalities to structure and manage their administration, budgeting, and planning processes to prioritise the basic needs of the community and promote social and economic development.

Moreover, the developmental goal of this White Paper link with those of the Municipal Systems Act of 2000. Its preamble avers that its objective is to

...provide for the core principles, mechanisms and processes that are necessary to enable municipalities to move progressively towards the social and economic development of local communities, and ensure universal access to essential services that are affordable to all...

In addition, it states that it aims to

...define the legal nature of a municipality as including the local community within the municipal area, working in partnership with the municipality's political and administrative structures...

According to the Community Law Centre, (2007:8) the White Paper on Local Government (1998) outlines the following development strategies that local government should implement:

- Enhancing economic and social development by fulfilling its role and using its control mechanisms
- Organising local administration and assimilating the evolving actions of other local governments and non-government representatives in the municipal area
- Ensuring democratic growth through community participation in local administration that serves as a conduit for the community to realise the type of area in which they hope to reside
- Providing leadership and education to inspire community investment in the search for answers to local problems, endurance, and management of political issues

Civilian Secretariat for Police (2015:35) explains that local government is obliged to perform the following roles:

- Build CSFs
- Develop and implement local policies and plans that are in line with the White Paper on Local Government (1998), including national and provincial strategies on safety/security as well as crime/violence prevention.
- Assign objectives, programmes, as well as security, safety, economic and crime/violence prevention strategies at the local level
- Incorporate safety/security and crime/violence prevention strategies into IDPs
- Conspire in establishing shared protection and safety strategies and detecting possible areas for local administration involvement
- Confirm that IDPs acknowledge safety/security and crime/violence prevention.
- Organise safety/security and crime/violence prevention initiatives in a metropolitan area

- Confirm the efficient implementation of by-laws on safety/security and crime/violence prevention.

(Civilian Secretariat for Police, 2015:35).

3.16 THE SOUTH AFRICAN POLICE SERVICE INTERIM REGULATIONS FOR COMMUNITY POLICE FORUMS AND BOARDS OF 2001

The SAPS Act 68 of 1995, particularly Chapter 7, allows for the formation of CPFs and boards where the police can interact with citizens according to a vision of well-organised and sustainable service. In the SAPS Interim Regulations for CPFs and Boards of 2001 (the Regulations), guidelines were drawn up to strengthen the intention of the CPF as encapsulated in the SAPS Act 68 of 1995, and to control various actions of the CPF. The Regulations encompass numerous current police-public interaction forums and explains how these settings should be modified to be acceptable to the discussion procedure; and how a CPF should be organised for it to be operative.

3.16.1 Responsibilities of community policing forum

According to Malatji (2016:28), Community Policing Forums are established to augment communication between the SAPS and the community, to foster shared problem-solving and cooperation with a view to improving service delivery by the SAPS. Community policing involves a partnership between the police and the citizens and is designed to make the police responsive to the community's needs. The police will tackle crime efficiently if they are more closely tied to the community (Yesufu, 2021:69).

A police service can only be efficacious when it enjoys the confidence and support of the community it serves (Malatji, 2016:28). Pelsier (2002:13) explains that the role of the CPF is to make the needs of the community known to the police and help the police to meet those needs. Saye and Abraham (2019:13) posit that partnership policing includes the implementation of a proactive, problem-oriented response to crime and public safety. Relevant information and evidence determine the requirements and priorities for policing services and the most suitable and effective interventions and crime prevention strategies. According to Saye and Abraham (2019:14), partnership policing is a relationship involving the police, the community and other entities within local jurisdictions that aim to prevent and reduce crime and preserve law and order.

CPFs were formed to assist in building a police-public relationship so that the parties can jointly challenge the scourge of crime in the public (Malatji, 2016:32). The Regulations profiled the duties of CPFs in line with the SAPS Act 68 of 1995.

Section 4 of the Regulations, stipulates CPF duties as to:

- Provide guidance to the police concerning local patrolling strategies
- Assist in handling worries, difficulties and complaints from citizens regarding policing
- Complement relationships between the community and the police
- Request that the station commissioner delivers area policing data on a four-month basis
- Encourage regular comments from the public regarding the level of police service
- Solicit citizen-based crime prevention programmes.
- 'Inform the community about the activities of the CPF and engage them in these activities.'
- Guarantee 'the effective management of the CPF's.'

(Malatji, 2016:32).

3.16.2 Difficulties faced by CPFs in crime reduction

Malatji (2016:32) explains that according to available reports, certain police stations have ceased to have practical structures. Consequently, community and police relationships no longer exist, leading to poor liaison networks and inadequate information distribution.

In the context of SA, historically characterised by an oppressive government and a police force engaged in fighting the community, animosity arose between the police and the community. However, dealing with crime should be a joint venture between the police and the community. The problem is that in the absence of appropriate management in, and support from, either party, CPFs are ineffective. Based on the scenario of the past in SA, it is claimed that CPFs are apparently devoid of adequate management and hands-on backing from the administration.

According to Malatji (2016:34) and Stevens and Yach (1995:68), in the work *Community Policing in Action* sketched the challenges, which are continuously encountered by CPFs:

- Certain citizens, in black residential areas, do not have faith in the police, and yet are consequently still unsure about becoming engaged in any CPF
- It is not everywhere that crime threatens the safety of the community, which is problematic when attempts are made to interest the public in establishing a CPF
- Sometimes particular political party leaders disparage CPFs to gain a political advantage, which negatively affects their smooth running

The above section explained community participation, specifically in crime prevention in SA, and the legislation that supports it.

The following section briefly explores the statutory framework for SCs.

3.17 THE NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (NDP): VISION 2030

According to Molaba (2016:24) and Republic of South Africa: NDP (2012:14), the National Development Plan (NDP): Vision 2030 aims to eradicate poverty and reduce inequality. To achieve these goals, local government has the responsibility to promote the active participation of people in their own development, which would consolidate democracy. Thus, according to NDP (2012), the NDP was designed to address the weaknesses of current local IDPs and gradually develop the power and managerial competence of local government to implement the plan.

The NDP provides a new perspective on development that involves individuals, such as citizens, youth, workers and the jobless, participating in their own development, in a joint effort with administrators such as municipal officials, for example, which would ultimately lead to the development of the state. This strategy, which is also specified in other plans and policies outlined above, may overcome challenges, and improve the lives of South Africans (eThekweni Municipality, 2017/2018:206).

3.18 A STATUTORY FRAMEWORK FOR REGULATING STREET COMMITTEES

South African legislation does not make provision for the role of SCs in service delivery. Van Rooyen and Mokoena (2013:761) posit that CDWs were introduced by the government in 2003. In the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998 (Chapter 4, part 4), provision is made for the formation, purpose and powers of WCs in the local government system and CDWs and WCs are thus recognised in relevant legislation.

According to Mngqibisa (2009:12), the role of SCs in local governance is unclear in terms of legislation. A WC is an elected representative structure that has a clearly defined role. Chapter 4 of the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 mentions the need to introduce WCs to inspire hands-on democracy in local administration.

Municipalities are required to spell out guidelines that regulate the processes for electing representatives to the WCs (Mngqibisa, 2009:12). In addition, the Municipal Structures Act of 1998 provides an outline of the functions, powers, duration, compensation, and termination of WCs. It also outlines how to respond when openings occur in WCs. Putu (2006) and Tshabalala (2006) explain that the Act makes explicit provision for the creation of WCs as a conceivable vehicle for enhancing community engagement in municipal affairs. Nonetheless, there is no act that unambiguously obliges municipalities to acknowledge SCs as genuine representatives of the community (Mngqibisa, 2009:12).

SCs are possibly indirectly accommodated in the Municipality Systems Act of 2000. The Act necessitates cities to create a tradition of civic power that balances delegated power with a system of participatory governance (Mngqibisa, 2009:13). Tshabalala (2006) explains that a municipality should, therefore, establish a conducive atmosphere for community participation in its service delivery process.

According to Chapter 7 of the South African Constitution of 1996, local administration is permitted to allow citizens and public organisations to participate in local government issues (Mngqibisa, 2009:13). Mngqibisa (2009:13) maintains that since SCs are community structures, it can be argued that they are accommodated by the

Community. Nevertheless, no legislation forces municipalities to acknowledge SCs as representative organisations participating in local governance (Mngqibisa, 2009:13).

Skuse and Cousins (2007:984) explain that SCs perform by way of influential avenues for public discourse, the flow of data and organisation. Skuse and Cousins (2009:991) observe that SCs are a critical instrument for communication and inclusion in democratic power structures, and township residents perceive them as such.

SCs permit a textured, permeated use of old methods of governance such as the *imbizo*, which is “a system of old meeting where a chief listens to his people’s grievances and worries, within a modern setting of democratic standards and ideals” (Skuse & Cousins, 2007:991). Although there is no clear legislative framework for SCs, their role on the ground is visible, as they serve as a basic structure that represents and relays the issues of the community.

3.19 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 outlined the judicial background of community engagement. This contributed to an understanding of the role of various legislations in promoting community involvement in public administration. In particular, the chapter explained the role of the Constitution in the promotion of community participation. The development of local administration and the improvement of service delivery were explained in the section on the Batho Pele principles in this chapter. The functions and significance of the police relative to public safety were expounded in relation to the SAPS Act 68 of 1995. The role of the NCPS of 1996 in crime deterrence as well as the objectives and pillars of the Act were expounded. The chapter summarised the role of the community in local governance, as emphasised in the White Paper on Local Government (1998), and in crime prevention, as highlighted in the White Paper on Safety and Security of 1998. In addition, this chapter explained the role of the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 in promoting the social and economic development of the community. The IPID and its oversight role over police officers were explained in this chapter.

The following chapter evaluates literature pertinent to the study. It presents an overview of the nature of SCs and their role in crime prevention.

CHAPTER FOUR

THE NATURE OF STREET COMMITTEES AND THEIR ROLE IN CRIME PREVENTION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this thesis is to investigate the role of SCs in crime prevention in selected townships in the EMA. This chapter explains the nature of SCs and their role in crime prevention. It begins by defining SCs and explains their relevance and evolution in South Africa. The functions and uses of SCs are explained. The relationship between SCs and selected political parties, which are the ANC, the Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and the South African Communist Party (SACP), is described. This is followed by a description of a case study of the 2009 SC project in Chesterville. The chapter concludes with a summary and an introduction to Chapter 5, which deals with international crime prevention strategies.

4.2 DEFINITION OF STREET COMMITTEES

Available research on SCs shows that there are various definitions of these structures. Minnaar (2010: 2) perceives SCs as a form of community self-policing, “anti-crime street committees” and examples of self-managed “popular justice” found in the townships in the late 1970s and 1980s. Suhaimi et al. (2021:524) describe community-oriented policing as a strategy to achieve an improved level of protection and security in a neighbourhood that can be maintained through the involvement of local community members. Comprehending the situation in which community-oriented policing (COP) is executed is important for the strategy’s success and ignoring a community’s composition could make the objectives of minimising crime and enhancing legislation by building relationships with the citizens, unachievable. COP tactics differ across agencies, as a variety of tactics are required to address unique community-related matters (Przesclowski & Crichlow, 2018:2; Cossyleon, 2019:1; Felix & Hilgers, 2020:4). Community policing is a comparatively simple concept and practice that accentuates the significance of a solid bond and collaborative participation between the community and the police employing an organised approach (Sulaiman et al., 2014). Community policing also endeavours to bring communities and law enforcement together to jointly ensure safety (Suhaimi, Nazuri, Burhan, Rahman & Hamsan, 2021:519; Oppler, 1997; Tufail, 2013).

Mngqibisa (2009:7) and Swilling (1987:5) define SCs as structures, which are formed by street or area representatives and elected by a specific community, that willingly help the community within which they function and live.

Dosoudil (2018:5) asserts that SCs take different forms which can be the following:

- Legotla
- People's courts
- Street teams
- Self defence units
- Organs of people's power

According to Felix and Hilgers (2020:6), there is no commonly accepted COP model. However, all COP models emphasise the importance of police reform and strong police-community relationships.

SCs are small committees that are established by the residents of a specific street. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:7) and Vukukhanye (2009:7), members of these committees are chosen regardless of their political affiliation. They assist the community by communicating information, particularly that relating to crime prevention, through formal channels and by following up matters affecting the community.

Dammert and Malone (2006) and Muller (2010) cited in Felix and Hilgers (2020:1) posit that COP is aimed at bringing the police nearer to the people, promoting confidence in the police among community members, inspiring citizens to assist with crime prevention and improving police officers' efficacy in creating and maintaining safe surroundings.

The research study was based on the definition supplied by CRA/Vukukhanye. The relevance of SCs is elucidated in the next section.

4.3 RELEVANCE OF STREET COMMITTEES

Suttner (2015:14) asserts that in the 1980s, the opening demand of the 1955 Freedom Charter, which stated, "The People Shall Govern", inspired popular justice against apartheid structures and forced removals. Moreover, people took control

locally and communities established area and street committees, which assisted in controlling crime and solving disagreements at street, block, and other local levels. In some areas, SCs developed cooperatives, crèches, people's parks, and businesses (Suttner, 2015:14).

According to Pityana (2010:5), the government must collaborate with civil society and authorise communities to be participative and responsible for their own growth. Thus, communities could be involved in their own safety and security through crime prevention. However, this requires comprehending the causes of crime; possessing enough relevant information to assist law enforcement agents in making arrests and in prosecuting criminals; and visible community policing in the community (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7).

Community participation, collaboration, and organisation, which are features of SCs, are critical to realising the abovementioned community goals (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7).

4.4 EVOLUTION OF STREET COMMITTEES IN SOUTH AFRICA

There are different perceptions about the history and evolution of SCs. According to Swilling (1987:5), the process of establishing these structures commenced earnestly towards the end of 1985, marking the beginning of the fourth and possibly most significant phase of UDF politics. People's power structures encompass erudite forms of organisation grounded on street and area committees. Individually, street residents select a street committee, which in turn selects representatives to serve on an area committee. These structures grew most successfully in the Eastern Cape and portions of the Transvaal but also developed in several small Eastern Cape and Natal townships (Swilling, 1987:5-6). Minnaar (2010:196) explains that the SCs of old ANC were based on the M-Plan, which comprised command structures that oversaw public structures consisting of block committees represented by community members. Furthermore, in South African townships, the advent of SCs was linked to the formation of townships for black people

Governance structures were established by the government in these townships to represent communities (Mngqibisa, 2009:7). Advisory Boards were the first governmental structures established in the middle of the 20th century. These

consisted of white officials who appointed black residents to contribute to the administration of black townships. However, Advisory Boards were embroiled in internal squabbles, which led to their demise. The establishment of Bantu Councils, in 1967, followed Advisory Boards. According to Cloete, Schlemmer and Van Vuuren (1991), Bantu Councils, which were established by the apartheid government to strengthen the implementation of apartheid in urban areas, were answerable to the Department of Bantu Administration and Development.

Bantu Councils were rejected by black urban residents, resulting in their replacement by elected municipal councils in 1977 through the passing of the Community Councils Act the same year. Cloete et al. (1991) assert that these councils, which were responsible to Bantu Affairs Administration Boards (BAABS), were equally rejected by township residents and were labelled as well as defamed for being government puppets, whose mandate came from the government rather than from the local community.

According to Seekings (1992), between the late 1970s and the beginning of the 1980s, the SCs were becoming more revolutionary and developed considerably in the townships. This was in response to the rent escalations levied by the government and insufficient township development. In the period between 1983 and 1984, numerous SCs were established in black, coloured, and Indian townships motivated by political concerns, chief among which was the boycott of township councils elected in 1983. The intensified conflicts in townships and the failure of township councils led to the prominence of SCs in townships between 1984 and 1986.

Swilling (1987:5) explains that SCs were “alternative organs of people’s power”. The formation of these structures, which increased significantly towards the end of 1985, followed strict organisational procedures. Each street would nominate its SC, from which representatives would be selected for an area committee (Swilling, 1987:5).

According to Minnaar (2010:196), the new SCs, which adopted the Gauteng model, envisioned CPFs at the uppermost level, followed by area sub-forums, block committees and SCs at the lowermost level. The Gauteng provincial government, at the beginning of 1999, attempted to tackle prevalent public rage and outrage against

the apparent increase in crime by introducing a citizens' operation to arrange SCs based on those of the 1980s, to involve the community in crime prevention.

The Gauteng MEC for Safety and Community Liaison at the time, Paul Mashatile, strongly supported the formation of street and block committees. He believed that engaging citizens in small groups at grassroots level was the only way to attain success in crime reduction in a province (Minnaar, 2010:196). According to Mashatile, the difference between the community structures of the apartheid era and those proposed at the end of the 1990s was that the former was part of the machinery of government equipment, whereas the latter aimed to complement the criminal justice system. In each community, the Gauteng Secretariat for Safety and Community Liaison intended to aid the formation of SCs to prevent them from uncontrollably mushrooming on their own. The Secretariat planned to monitor the structures on an ongoing basis.

Another built-in safeguarding instrument in the Gauteng model was the involvement of the police, who were to be conversant with what the committees were planning. The pioneers of these SCs were implemented in Ivory Park. According to Masipa (1999), to promote this new public-regulating concept, to organise crime prevention and to address vigilantism, the Gauteng administration pronounced March 1999 as Safety and Security Month, when Mashatile and the then Gauteng Premier, Mathole Motshekga, visited areas in the province to encourage the SC system.

SCs were engaged in extensive negotiations with government institutions and business groups during late 1986. However, the SCs of some townships did not have an adequate number of committee members; moreover, in many townships a state of emergency had been declared. This meant that for a while, the SCs were not as active as before. Nevertheless, Cloete et al. (1991) and Seekings (1992) explain that the government's obvious disrespect of people's complaints and the conditions of townships not changing at all led to the recurrence of SCs committees during 1989-90.

Swilling (1993) explains that in the late 1980s, after the ANC was unbanned and the UDF was disbanded, citizens who were sympathetic to the ANC converged in 1991 and established the South African National Civic Organisation (SANCO) that covered

several regions. The transition process was confusing for the SCs, and the precise role that they played in democratic South Africa was undefined.

Before the abovementioned situation regarding SCs during the 80s and 90s, according to Shubane (1991:64), BLAs were introduced in 1982, which led to the formation numerous civic structures. However, according to Shubane (1991:72), civic organisations were in existence even before BLAs. In fact, the first civic organisation can be traced back to the Committee of Ten (CoT) in Soweto, which came into existence in 1977.

Even-though BLAs were formed to serve Blacks, they were not acceptable by the majority for political reasons. They were regarded as products of apartheid (Shubane, 1991:66). Those who served in the BLAs were treated as outcasts. BLAs, moreover, contributed to the social stratification of society, as those who served in their structures developed a hostile attitude towards the local community organisations that boycotted them. Boycotts led to resignations by BLS councillors in areas like Lingelihle, Cradock (Shubane, 1991:68). The Cradock Residents Association (CRADORA) was behind the concerted pressure that resulted in the resignations of councillors in this area. It is believed that the pressure exerted by CRADORA paved the way for the establishment of SCs in the whole country.

CRADORA was responsible for soliciting many township residents into SCs. Numerous SCs were subsequently formed in different townships, and they became synonymous with civic organisations in the whole of South Africa (Shubane, 1991:73). It is believed that during this time, security police had the upper hand when it came to detect the movements of ANC cadres who infiltrated the country; however, they could not do the same with the robust and impenetrable SCs. Moreover, SCs had become a nightmare for security forces, as they were formidable and could not be controlled nor policed (Shubane, 1991:73).

As stated above, SCs were established in the early 1980s for communities to deliver solutions to the challenges of the day. They were also a means for people to deal with crime, which the police service could not be trusted to do at that time. However, according to Botha (2015:20), SCs were established as part of a bigger strategy to attack security forces and were formed in the 1980s purely to enhance the objectives

of the liberation struggle. Nevertheless, these structures were efficacious in handling crime and responding to service delivery issues, including “water, sanitation, health and infrastructure provision” (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7).

Lodge and Nasson (1991:76-78) explain that SCs were replaced by youth-run people’s courts with dire consequences. According to Singh (2008:94-107), violent, illegal activities, under the guise of people’s courts, characterised the youth-dominated SCs of the late 1980s. This, together with their lack of responsibility to the community, encouraged efforts in the early 1990s to promote, through education provided by NGOs, SCs that were both democratic and accountable.

The ANC National Conference held in Polokwane, Limpopo, in 2007, acknowledged the fiasco of current systems of public regulating in black societies and resolved to promote the resurrection of SCs at local level to substitute or support the operations of CPFs. Thus, the ANC’s resolution contributed to a strategy for crime prevention that would involve SCs (Minnaar, 2010:204). Jacob Zuma, the former president of the ANC, visited numerous communities whilst communicating that communities did not have to wait for the administration or the SAPS to establish SCs, and ANC structures in the townships should proceed to reclaim the streets themselves by forming their own crime fighting SCs. This call was commended by Blade Nzimande, the SACP Secretary-General (Umsebenzi, 2008:1).

According to Quintal (2008), the then President, Zuma, was vigilant in his approach, as he elucidated that this new strategy was not a rejection of the police; neither was he approving vigilantism in the fight against crime. This support of SCs and CPFs in the fight against crime was noticeable for its omission of the usage of any public policing jargon.

The section below details the functions of SCs.

4.5 FUNCTIONS OF STREET COMMITTEES

SCs no longer fill the same role as that of 1980s since it has developed over time. Preservation of order in the communities is their main role in the new South Africa (Mngqibisa, 2009:7). Community policing can be seen as a move toward nation building, as it involves sharing knowledge and expertise in crime prevention and

managing crime in a partnership (Sulaiman et al., 2021). The history of community policing is often traced back to Kelling and Wilson's broken windows theory formulated in the early 1980s, which contends that crime prospers in communities in which messy behaviour is ignored. Kelling and Wilson recommended that crime and the fear of crime could be prevented by "managing" street life to attain public order (Cossyleon, 2019:2).

4.5.1 Objectives of street committees

The main objectives of SCs are to engage the public in establishing a nonviolent and productive environment and to inspire community residents to engage in and be responsible for their area (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:8). According to Nzimande (2008:1), street, block and village committees should not be established as party political structures, as they ought to organise our citizens regardless of their political association.

Community-based crime prevention depends on the following:

- Establishing security, safety, and community cohesion in the area
- Dissemination of safety information
- Inspiring more crime awareness
- Inculcating a community spirit
- Reshaping the environment according to CPTED principles

Key duties of SCs are to combat crime by means of the following:

- Information dissemination
- Shared identification of criminals
- Collaboration with the police
- Initial detection and crime prevention

Other crime-prevention functions of SCs include the following:

- Deterrence and resolution of family violence
- Welfare matters, for instance those concerning orphans, the disabled, the elderly, and so forth.

- Communication with businesspeople in the community
- Protection of women and children
- Education
- Improving the environment and service delivery

SCs' success depends on public engagement and effective communication with local administration, the police, social welfare, infrastructure services, and so forth (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010: 8).

The following functions are critical to attaining the abovementioned objectives:

- Community participation
- Engagement that ensures that information is gathered from and conveyed to the public
- Cooperation and collaboration
- Organised and responsible procedures for attending to community concerns, soliciting information, and giving explanations

4.5.2 Role of street committees in governance

The role of SCs in local governance is not explicitly stated in terms of the legislation. The WC is the only elected representative structure whose role is clearly defined. Local administration regulations provide for the creation of WCs in cities. However, instead of providing specific guidelines for community participation, the regulations only make provisions for a conducive environment for democratic participation (section 72 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998). The Municipal Structures Act enjoins municipalities to spell out rules regulating the process for electing representatives to the WCs. Additionally, it proposes an outline for the WCs' functions, powers, duration, and compensation. It also refers to the manner of dealing with vacancies and the disbanding of WCs.

Tshabalala (2006) posits that the Act shows overt support for the establishment of WCs as a conceivable way of broadening public participation in community affairs. Consequently, WCs are structures that intend to augment community engagement. They are one of the ways of empowering communities to have a voice in administrative procedures. Moreover, Van Rooyen and Mokoena (2013:766) argue that the key

purpose of WCs is to help constitutionally voted ward councillors to fulfil their mandate to act on behalf of the people in their wards.

Nevertheless, no act clearly compels municipalities to acknowledge SCs as legal community representatives. Mngqibisa (2009:13) postulates that perhaps by implication, SCs are covered in the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, since the Act necessitates that, cities cultivate a custom of civic power with which to balance municipal power in a participatory governance system. Tshabalala (2006) concludes that a municipality should build an environment that is favourable to local community participation in the process of service delivery.

Mngqibisa (2009:13) explains that Chapter 7 of the Constitution gives authority to the local administration to permit the public and community organisations to contribute to local administrative matters. Thus, it can be argued that SCs are covered by this Act since they are community structures. Nonetheless, no legislation compels municipalities to acknowledge SCs as representative organisations partaking in the governing of local communities. The following section expounds the uses of SCs.

4.6 USES OF STREET COMMITTEES

Crime disturbs every South African's quality of life. Decreasing crime and creating secure communities ought to be a priority for all citizens countrywide. For this to be realised, crime prevention should be organised at the citizen level. Communities should be mobilised through the development of community structures, which work with law enforcement authorities, social welfare departments, churches, non-profit organisations (NPOs) and businesses to produce a crime reduction strategy in the community.

Appropriate administration strategies and regulations are required for the local administration to take the lead in implementing crime prevention programmes. For example, numerous organisations working together in a partnership could be a prudent strategy for crime reduction; efforts would be synchronised and led by a dedicated squad. However, local administration is the best placed to implement such strategies (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:8).

An appropriate administrative strategy would be to enable grassroots community mobilisation and offer background support, facilitative structures, effective planning, implementation, guidance and direction to ensure SCs' success. CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:8) explains that SCs are dynamic civic structures whose envisioned purpose is to help with community development and service delivery as well as being the people's voice.

According to Vukukhanye (2009:7), SCs are spokespersons who are the nucleus of public and organised crime prevention by means of speedy information distribution and the delivery of education to the community. According to Skuse and Cousins (2007:991), SCs are vital autonomous instruments for the communication of government procedures, and township residents regard them as such. Skuse and Cousins (2007:991) accentuate that these committees allow for a "textured, interpenetrated expression of traditional forms of governance such as *imbizos*, a form of traditional meeting where a chief listen to his people's complaints and concerns, within a modern framework of democratic norms and values".

4.7 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STREET COMMITTEES AND SELECTED POLITICAL PARTIES

The relationship between political parties and SCs varies. Owing to the intentions of the research, the section below expounds the relationship between SCs and selected political organisations.

4.7.1 The South African Communist Party (SACP) and street committees

Mngqibisa (2009: 4) explains that SCs are key civic structures motivated to assist in community development and service delivery. Moreover, they aspire to be the voice of the people.

The role of SCs is controversial. Certain leaders like the General Secretary of the SACP, Dr Blade Nzimande, advocate that street, block and township committees should not be formed according to political party affiliations, as they should aim at organising the people, regardless of their membership (Nzimande, 2008:1). However, Nzimande explains that SCs are well positioned to recognise and work on a variety of trials facing households, owing to their closeness to the people and the knowledge gained during the 1980s. Moreover, SCs may be qualified to contribute to solutions to

community challenges, such as famine, orphans, child-headed households, needs related to social grants and family violence, for example (Nzimande, 2008:4).

4.7.2 The Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP)

Leaders of other political parties, like Prince Mangosuthu Buthelezi, the Inkatha Freedom Party leader, lambasts SCs as being tools for the realisation of the political agendas of certain political organisations. Prince Buthelezi cites the example of the way SCs were used to provoke violence against the IFP in the name of upkeep of order throughout the late 1990s.

According to Prince Buthelezi, the pronouncement made by the ANC at its Polokwane Conference in December 2007 that there should be a resuscitation of SCs to assist in fighting crime, among other aims, was part of a political agenda since SCs were used in the past for political violence against other political parties (Mngqibisa, 2009:4). According to IRIN (2008), in Mngqibisa (2009:4), the IFP perceived the call for the renaissance of SCs in 2007 by the ANC president as just a vote-winning tactic after fifteen years of democracy, when the ANC's governance was starting to be indecisive.

4.7.3 The African National Congress (ANC)

Available evidence suggests that historically SCs were established by community members. However, in the 1980s, they were based on the M-Plan, which was fundamental to the ANC's strategy (Minnaar, 2010:196). In addition, it was the ANC-led provincial government in 1999, in Gauteng, that advocated for the resurrection of SCs. Moreover, the first SCs that were established post-1994 were built in Ivory Park under the auspices of the ANC. Furthermore, the ANC National Consultative Conference held in December 2007, in Polokwane, Limpopo, passed the resolution aimed at the resuscitation of SCs (Minnaar, 2010:204).

Suttner (2004: 698) explains that when the ANC was in exile, its leadership called for the establishment of basic structures of public authority, but it could not anticipate exactly how various communities would respond to this. Nevertheless, because of grassroots initiatives, people's parks were built, SCs were established, and various community efforts were mediated (Suttner, 2004:698).

The ANC-led government has made a continuous appeal for the resuscitation of SCs to combat crime: “We iterate the call for ANC branches to provide support to law enforcement agencies in the fight against crime, including establishing and strengthening street committees,” (ANC, 2010:14). Moreover, the ANC has been campaigning for the revival of SCs through their January 8 Statements, election manifestos, national general councils, Lekgotlas, national elective conferences and other forums.

Evidently, SCs without any political affiliation have been formed by community members. However, available evidence suggests that SCs in the 1980s were formed based on the ANC’s M-Plan. Former President Zuma, various cabinet ministers and MECs have been calling for the formation of SCs. Jacob Zuma once participated in the formation of SCs in Newlands East, Durban. One can conclude therefore that most SCs in the past were established under the aegis of the UDF/ANC.

In the following section, a case study of the 2009 SC project in Chesterville is explained.

4.8 A CASE STUDY OF THE 2009 STREET COMMITTEE PROJECT IN CHESTERVILLE

4.8.1 Introduction

CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:6) explains that after a meeting between former President Jacob Zuma and a group of powerful KZN business and civil society leaders, on 16 April 2008, it was resolved by the attendees to work together, mainly in the anti-crime war in SA. The first recommended practical step was that a pilot community should be identified for the revival of SCs. The main motivation for the SCs was to ensure safety in a local area and to make it a more productive environment in which to live and work (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:6).

In June 2008, in view of Vukukhanye’s long association with Chesterville (Vukukhanye is an NPO/public benefit organisation formed in 2001), the significant achievement of SCs in this area and the knowledge/willingness of Chesterville public leaders, SCs were officially established in Chesterville, Cato Manor. Thus, since 2008, Vukukhanye and the CRA have interacted with businesses, the administration, and the public towards the establishment of formal SCs in Chesterville.

The implementation of working SCs commenced in June 2009 and in 2010, about 26 SCs had been formed. The main objective was to establish a prototype founded on broad values and strategies, which could be replicated in and accepted by other societies, once it had a proven track-record (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010: 6; Vukukhanye, 2009:2).

Therefore, it was envisioned that the model developed for, and implemented in, Chesterville should be used as a framework to guide the rollout of SCs in municipalities across KZN. Upon request from the HOD of The Department of Community Safety and Liaison for KwaZulu-Natal, a business plan was formulated. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:6), guiding documentation included an SC Policies and Procedures Manual and an SC Constitution. Numerous SC training materials and templates were formulated.

The principles behind the crime prevention strategy of Chesterville were founded on a paper commissioned by the South African Government and prepared by the National Crime Prevention Centre of the SAPS and the CSIR Crime Prevention Centre. In addition, the principles were based on the manual produced by the Institute for Security Studies entitled *A Manual for Community Based Crime Prevention – Making South Africa Safe* (2000). These documents provided clear rules and outlines, which if applied efficaciously, could lead to successful crime prevention.

The strategy was also associated with the NCPS and the eThekweni Municipality's crime prevention strategy (*Durban Safer City Strategy: 2000:1*). The strategy comprised newly formulated supervisory regulations that public security groups had to observe. The strategy, based on best practice globally, comprises the critical principals of prevention, teamwork, and a holistic approach. The strategy involved intervention at the social, environmental and law enforcement levels. In addition, it involved the realisation of the three fundamental rudiments of crime: the target/possible target, the criminal/possible criminal and the setting.

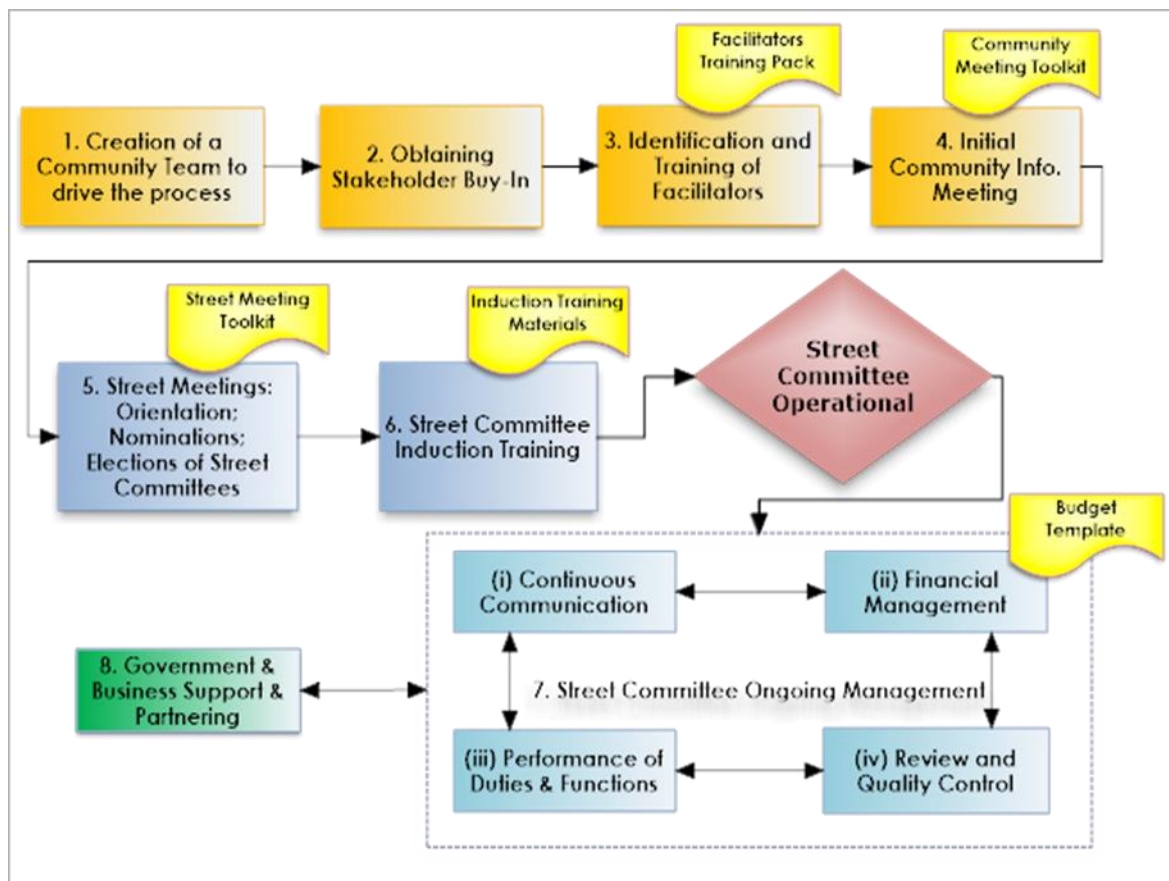
The implementation of an SC in a community should preferably be part of a broader, all-inclusive strategy for a wider target area, where several social and environmental interventions should be introduced following community consultation. Close collaboration with local SAPS and CPFs is essential for the efficacy of SCs

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:6). The following section explains the approach and planning of the SCs.

4.8.2 Approach

The approach entailed a partnership between government, business, and civil society. Replication of the project was based on the model that was developed and implemented in Chesterville, which was planned to be a framework for the rollout of SCs in municipalities across KwaZulu-Natal, and thus guarantee uniformity of structure in various communities (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:12). The actual stages of the formation of the SC, which are explained in detail later in this chapter, were as follows:

1. Creation of a community team
2. Obtaining stakeholder buy-in
3. Identification and training of facilitators
4. Initial community information meeting
5. Street meeting: orientation, nominations, and election of SC
6. SC induction training (see Figure 4.1 below)



Source: CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:12)

Figure 4.1: The outline of street committee formation

4.8.3 Planning overview

One critical element of the implementation of SCs, according to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:12), is planning, and the following must be considered:

- Establishment of a community team to drive the process
- Gaining buy-in and communication
- Preliminary community meeting
- Street mobilisation meeting
- Training
- Financial planning

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:12).

4.8.4 Street committee formation

The formation of an SC includes the following steps:

- A preliminary team is formulated by a community-based structure to motivate the establishment of an SC to the citizens.
- A public meeting is held to provide the community with a detailed outline of how SCs function and the significance of establishing SCs in communities.
- The residents of specific streets are then organised by the coordinators at these meetings.
- Additional information is given to the citizens.
- Community members are given the chance to ask further questions
- Upstanding members of the community capable of serving on the SC are identified and nominated by the residents.
- The residents then elect the SC, which should comprise a chairperson, secretary, treasurer and up to 10 people.
- Induction training is then undergone by all committee members to prepare them sufficiently to serve their street and the community.
- The chairpersons of several SCs form the area committees, which meet to discuss and decide macro matters facing the wider community (Vukukhanye, 2010:13).

4.8.4.1 Area Committees (ACs)

In the case of Chesterville, SCs did not work alone but worked in tandem with area committees (ACs). According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:19), SC members established ACs in a defined area. The ACs dealt mainly with matters that affected that area, rather than just a street, which could involve matters, such as public amenities and wide-ranging infrastructure matters, such as water, sanitation and electricity.

The ACs could also include important individuals from specific areas; these could involve spokespersons of churches, businesses, schools, sports bodies, and so forth. The following section explains the stages of the formation of an SC mentioned above and shown in Figure 4.1 above.

4.8.5 Creating a community team

SCs are significant bodies that play a critical role in developing the local community. Essential to SCs function as a community team is having a squad of associates who desire to create a robust community. Team members should embody ethics and competence as well as having the welfare of the public at heart.

An effective community team would comprise individuals representing businesses, administrative structures, spiritual organisations and trustworthy NPOs. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:13), frequently the best team members are those who have previously displayed commitment to the community have a proven track-record of participation in community affairs. As mentioned before, public groups should not be associated with political parties and should rather be based on a desire to serve the community.

4.8.6 Obtaining buy-in

Establishing a helpful and cooperative setting might ensure that various stakeholders buy into the formation of the SCs Committees. Crucial stakeholders include, but are not limited to, representatives of civic associations, responsible businesses, government, credible NPOs and religious institutions. Meeting with, and gaining the support of, key stakeholders and community leaders with a proven track-record of having the interests of the community at heart will lead to the establishment of a strong and effective SC (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:13).

4.8.7 Identification and training of facilitators

It is essential that facilitators support street meetings and offer the necessary training. However, they need to be identified and trained as indicated in the list below:

- Finding facilitators
- Getting appropriate venues and scheduling times
- Reviewing the available training material
- Highlighting the status of presenting the material as provided and not digressing
- Elucidating and presenting several educational aids

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:14).

4.8.8 Initial community information meeting

The meeting should be organised at a community hall, and residents should be invited. The meeting should be well planned and structured. Moreover, it should provide the following information:

- The need for the SC, stressing the effect of crime and other social and infrastructural challenges in the community
- The proposed solution through the implementation of a disciplined SC structure
- Other information related to SCs
- The need for the support of the community, unity amongst SC members and cooperation with its leaders

4.8.9 Street meeting: orientation, nomination, and election of SC

CRA/Vukukhnaye (2010:14), explains that prior to the street meeting being arranged, organisers should take account of the following:

- Timing
 - Should be suitable to the community - experience recommends weekdays, mainly Wednesdays after work (18h00), or Sunday afternoons (14h00)
 - Length should be restricted to 1hr.
- Arranged in advance – suggest that a proposed schedule of these street meetings be tabled at the community meeting
- Purpose to:
 - Introduce main stakeholders to the SC members
 - Explain the process of SC Committee establishment
 - Offer additional information required by the community
 - Make nominations
 - Vote in SC committee representatives
 - Recommend the induction training for the new SC members.

4.8.10 Street committee induction training

The initiation process for SCs encompasses the following:

- Securing suitable venues and scheduling times
- Scheduling meetings with several SCs
- It is suggested that this be arranged and/or confirmed at the follow up community meeting
- Booking facilitators/trainers for the required training sessions
- Presenting the induction training

Topics included in induction training:

- The approach to community safety
- Structure, roles, and responsibilities; reporting
- Child abuse and rape
- Child abuse and domestic violence
- Rape and forensics
- Community policing
- Case management
- Domestic violence
- Drugs/substance abuse
- Human trafficking
- Orphans and vulnerable children/youth
- HIV/AIDS
- The disabled

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:15).

4.8.11 Ongoing management of street committees

In the case of Chesterville's SC, management of meetings had to be an ongoing exercise. Moreover, it had to encompass the following:

4.8.11.1 Meeting Structure

It was suggested that SC meetings had to happen monthly and that they had to be followed by AC meetings. If there were substantial matters that required urgent attention, the individual SCs were small enough to set up emergency meetings.

Again, the meetings had to take place at a time appropriate to the community and were not supposed to last longer than one hour.

Minutes had to be taken and critical information forwarded to relevant AC members and the central office (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:16).

4.8.11.2 Communication

The central office had the critical responsibility of ensuring that issues communicated through the SCs and ACs were brought to the attention of the relevant departments and that meetings would be held to resolve the concerns. Furthermore, the outcomes of those meetings would then be communicated to the community through the SCs. It was recommended that this communication had to be in writing to circumvent miscommunication and misrepresentation of the facts.

4.8.11.3 Financial Management

It was critical to plan the SCs' finances. Volunteerism had been encouraged to reduce the ongoing cost of salaries. However, experience advocated that it was crucial to have at least one salaried individual to manage the information and communication required by the central office. It was also beneficial to have a budget for the initial setup process, although this budget would differ from community to community.

4.8.11.4 Role of Government and Private Sector Support

It was recommended that significant effort be made to create a positive working relationship with the government and its various departments.

Likewise, it was ascertained that building strong partnerships with business provided valuable access to skills and resources needed for an effective SC. A crime-free environment offers substantial benefits to the business community and as such, it should not be difficult to get this support.

4.8.11.5 Review and Quality Process

CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:17) explains that to ensure the continuing success of the SCs, a review and quality control process had to be implemented which included the following:

- Opportunities for SC members to raise concerns
- Concerns to be documented and followed up
- Use of a suggestion and an anonymous concerns box – this box to be reviewed by a sub-committee of the AC
- Quarterly or annual community meetings to be convened to afford opportunity for public debate
- Monitoring and evaluation of effect and success

4.8.11.6 Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring involves the recording of proceedings, outcomes, tactics and finances. It archives events and indicates difficulties to be alleviated in moving forward.

Evaluation involves deeper investigation and assists in explaining why a specific challenge has risen, or why a specific conclusion has happened or did not happen.

Monitoring and evaluation of Chesterville's SC was based on the SIDA (Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency) strategy (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:27).

- **Monitoring (Street Committee Rollout KZN):**
 - Was steered generally within (i.e., by officials and unpaid assistants)
 - An outside advisor was engaged for the simplification of a Log Frame for five projects, respectively, and the whole project (three days were required for this)
 - Monitoring was continuous, and it included officials and scheme squad meetings, regular scheme accounts, and so forth
 - Quarterly accounts generated by the project manager in six weeks of the end of individual quarter.

- **Assessment (Street Committee Rollout KZN):**

- Had to be undertaken once a year by an outside employed worker (10 days required)
- Evaluator's account was generated in two months of the year-end (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010: 27).

4.8.11.7 Roles and Responsibilities of Stakeholders

Roles for different stakeholders in the SC project were stated as follows:

- **Government**

National, provincial, and local municipalities have their roles clearly stated in the legislation on crime. Various legislations on crime and crime prevention were discussed in the previous chapter of this thesis. The Constitution clearly defines the role of administration in crime prevention.

Furthermore, this thesis explained the roles of different statutory structures like the CPF and SAPS.

- **The Department of Community Safety and Liaison, KwaZulu-Natal**

The Department of Community Safety and Liaison (DCSL) is a provincial government department that is charged with the monitoring and evaluation of the efficiency and efficacy of police in the province.

It aims to do the following:

- Monitor police competence and efficiency
- Encourage decent relationships and create partnerships between the police and society
- Simplify the development and organisation of community crime prevention strategies
- Encourage and sustain Victim Empowerment.

The Volunteer Social Crime Prevention Project in KZN emanated from similar initiatives in London, Manchester and the Western Cape, South Africa. A team of 1200 volunteers were selected and skilled under the management of a crew from the UK's

Greater Manchester Police. The amount of volunteers was set to surge to 2100 during the build up to the 2010 FIFA World Cup.

Some of the services, which DCSL sought to provide regarding community policing, included the following:

- Establishing a joint front against crime
- Ensuring the existence of CFPs in all districts; facilitating continued functionality, effectiveness, and efficiency of CPFs; promoting and supporting crime prevention initiatives by CPFs; and facilitating capacity building (basic induction and provincial CPF training)
- Facilitating the establishment of CSFs; supporting the MEC in leading briefing sessions and CSF launches at district symposia; facilitating provision of policy directives; creating interim CSF committees; developing a memorandum of understanding; developing Community/ District Safety Plans; launching of CSF structures with District Safety Plans; and implementing projects
- Proactively facilitating dialogue between and within communities to engage on issues of safety
- Facilitating the mediation of community conflicts in partnership with CSFs

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010: 22)

- **The Chesterville Residents Association (CRA)**

The CRA, a community civic organisation, is a registered Section 21 Company (1993/003182/08), formed in 1985. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:22), the CRA had considerable experience in the formation and operation of SCs; consultation with the community; facilitation of crime prevention; follow up; and service delivery. Some of its functions included the following:

- Consultation/advisory
- Training
- Serving as the contracting party

- **Vukukhanye projects**

Vukukhanye is a registered South African Public Benefit (18/11/13/2073) and non-Profit (017 325NPO) organisation. Its main functions include the following:

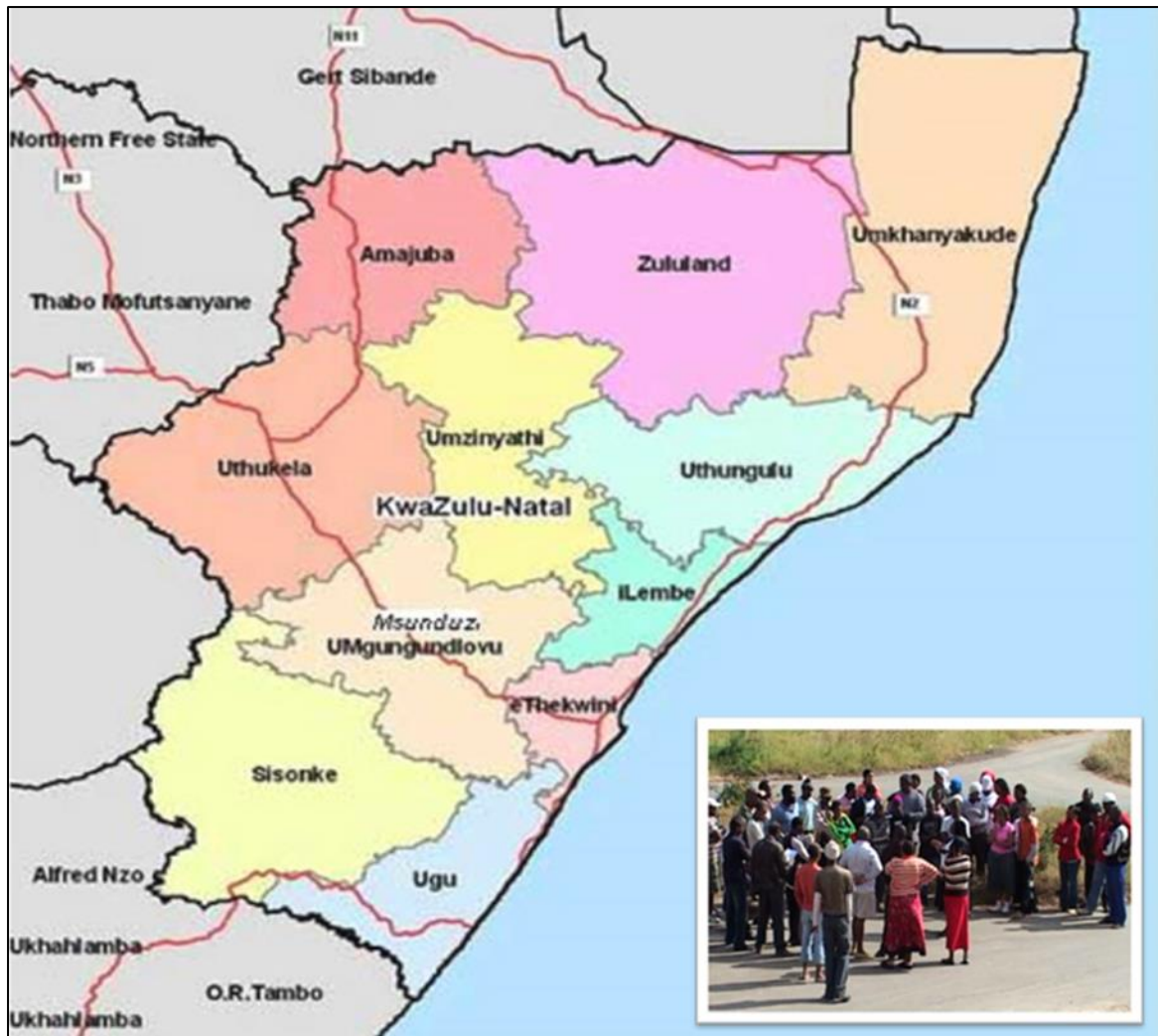
- Review (final integration)
- Support and logistics
- Contracting body
- Legal and governance body

- **Steering committee**

A steering committee was formed, which was responsible for the following:

- Overall management
- Engaging the Advisory Board
- Reporting to the MEC and HOD

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010: 23).



Source (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:1)

Figure 4.2: KwaZulu-Natal municipalities where street committees were earmarked for rollout in the 2009 street committee project

4.8.12 Street committee rollout in KwaZulu-Natal

The SC project was piloted in Chesterville but was rolled out in the whole of KZN. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:4), it was therefore envisioned that the model established for and implemented in Chesterville be used as a basis to guide the roll-out of street communities in municipalities throughout KwaZulu-Natal. A business plan was drawn up on request from the HOD of The Department of Community Safety and Liaison, KwaZulu-Natal. Guidance documentation comprised an SC policy; a procedures manual; an SC constitution; a facilitator-training toolkit; induction training resources; and various other SC training materials and templates (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:4).

4.9 SUMMARY

This chapter explained the nature of SCs and their role in crime prevention. It focused on the definition, relevance, evolution, functions and uses of SCs. It explained the relationship between SCs and certain political parties. Moreover, it presented a case study of the 2009 SC in Chesterville.

The next chapter elucidates international and national crime prevention strategies.

CHAPTER FIVE

INTERNATIONAL AND NATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explained the nature of SCs and their role in crime prevention. This chapter comprises two sections. The first section will describe various international crime prevention strategies. This will be followed by an explanation of crime strategies in BRICs countries and those in selected SADC countries (Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, and Swaziland). Then, international best practice will be discussed with a focus on Ottawa, Canada. The second section will describe the challenges facing community crime prevention and the opportunities for SCs to prevent crime in SA.

5.2 INTERNATIONAL CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES

The 2002 United Nations (UN) Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime (art. 3), as cited in UNODC (2010:9), describe crime prevention as encompassing policies and procedures that aim to prevent crime, its harm to humanity and the distress it causes, whilst addressing its numerous causes.

The underlying causes of crime and violence are termed “risk factors” (UNODC, 2010:10). These vary worldwide, but generally are factors affecting countries’ socioeconomic conditions; the local environment; families; relationships; and individuals, for example.

On a global level, causes of crime include rapid urbanisation; ecological disasters; economic downturns; vicissitudes in trade and communications patterns; and professional crime syndicates, for example (UNODC, 2010:11). These causes of crime have a negative impact on the infrastructure and administrative capacity of regional governments of countries. Weak government structures are exploited by international organised crime, and increased drug/human/gun trafficking can critically aggravate crime and violence levels. However, organised crime can be prevented by regional or national rules, such as immigration regulations that inhibit human trafficking

On a national level, disparities of wealth between the rich and the poor, dishonesty/corruption, and unsatisfactory social structures, for example, can be crime risk factors (UNODC, 2010:11).

On a local level, inadequate administration, insufficient housing and poor living conditions, a shortage of educational and health facilities, a high unemployment rate and easy access to drugs and small firearms can lead to an upsurge in crime. Inequality of the infrastructure of different parts of a city leads the development of areas conducive to criminal activity. Deprived or disorganised schools can result in violence in schools, school dropout and delinquency among young people, which leads to future criminal activities.

On an individual level, biological and psychological factors may lead to violent behaviour or severe drug misuse, for example. Social factors, such as inadequate parenting; severe or inconsistent discipline; child abuse; domestic violence; inadequate household conditions; a lack of privacy and security; and the negative influence of peers contribute to crime (UNODC, 2010:11).

UNODC (2010:12-13) avers that crime prevention strategies are classified into four categories in the UN Guidelines of 2002:

- Crime prevention through community development
- Community-based crime prevention
- Situational crime prevention
- Crime prevention through rehabilitation

5.2.1 The key role of governments

The UN Guidelines accentuate the necessity for administrations to make provision for crime prevention in their strategies and programmes. Moreover, administrations need to provide management, organisation, sufficient financial subsidies, and adequate resources.

5.2.1.1 Crime prevention as a permanent characteristic of administration

Every administration is obligated to generate, encourage, and maintain a collaboration between pertinent government institutions, the community, and the business sector, which could fill a crime prevention role (2002 UN Guidelines [art.2] in UNODC, 2010:29).

5.2.1.2 A permanent, essential directive

The UN Guidelines endorse the formation of a permanent, essential directive at the administration level for the implementation of a crime prevention policy. Nationally, nations might decide to reside crime prevention accountability in departments of justice or safety, a cluster of departments, or a distinct structure at the highest level (UNODC, 2010:30).

The following are examples of permanent central authorities for crime prevention established by different countries:

- Chile developed its National Public Safety Strategy in 2006 under the aegis of the Ministry of the Interior in collaboration with various sectors, including justice, education, labour, health, urbanisation, defence, planning and nationwide women's/youth organisations. Service coordination is provided by the Subsecretaria del Interior and the Division de Seguridad Ciudadana (UNODC, 2010:32).
- Sweden created a permanent National Council for Crime Prevention in 1974 that was strengthened during 1996. It aimed at implementing crime prevention policies nationally and locally. It is a permanently funded body that funds programmes, conducts research studies and monitors/evaluates these
- The National Crime Prevention Strategy of Canada, established in 1994, comprises part of the country's community security program. Canada's National Crime Prevention Centre is situated in the Ministry of Public Safety, and it provides support and financial subsidies to various schemes targeting challenges.

There is presently a concentration on youth and youth gangs. Various strategies, which are regularly assessed, are aimed at this challenge (UNODC, 2010:32).

UNODC (2010:33) explains that numerous administrations at the provincial level have formed permanent bodies charged with the formation and organisation of crime prevention strategies.

- UNODC (2010:31), explains that the State of Victoria, Australia, tested crime preventions strategies developed in 1999, involving various ministries. Crime Prevention Victoria was formed by the Department of Justice to oversee the implementation of the 2002-5 Safer Streets and Homes Strategy. The strategy involved the participation of state justice/health/school/police services, community organisations and members. The regional governments of New South Wales, South Australia, and Western Australia likewise developed strategies (UNODC, 2010:31).
- According to UNODC (2010:31), the State of Queretaro, Mexico, positioned accountability for crime prevention in the Ministry of Public Safety that developed a five-year provincial safety plan entitled “Order, Safety and Justice 2004-2009” in 2004. This functioned closely with more departments. This approach is modelled on the Guidelines for the Prevention of Crime. In Mexico, the UNODC endorsed the drafting of state-level legislation and family-oriented prevention strategies. It also produced a report on gender discrimination, which led to the founding of a Media Observatory for Gender Equality and Non-discrimination in Durango State. The UNODC trained more than 900 male and female police officials on gender matters and human rights in instances of violence against women (UNODC, 2014:63).
- According to UNODC (2010:31-32), the State of Lagos, Nigeria, formed the Lagos State Security Trust Fund by law in 2007, as a public-private partnership for supporting government in crime prevention. The Fund provided monitoring/evaluation, training, and funding for government crime prevention programmes. In Nigeria, the Office helped nine states in developing a three-year reform action plan. It maintained the national police in concluding a Human Rights Training Manual developed jointly with the National Judicial Council and

facilitated the reform of the performance evaluation and recruitment process for judges (UNODC, 2014:65).

- UNODC (2010:31) explains that the Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony, Germany, was established in 1995 because of a government resolve to reduce crime and develop a culture of security in society. It comprises 250 associated organisations and 200 civic crime prevention bodies. It has focussed on public security and developed standards for the administration of crime prevention strategies (the Beccaria Standards). The Beccaria Standards for Quality Management was established for the monitoring and evaluation of homegrown crime prevention strategies.
- According to UNODC (2010:35), the five-year Action Plan to Create a Crime-Resistant Society was approved by Japan in 2003. The Action Plan comprised five major objectives with 148 associated strategies to sustain them. This mainly involved community-based strategies to support society in becoming crime resistant, particularly regarding deterring youth crime. Moreover, it stimulated community participation in the prevention of substance abuse and organised crime. The National Police Agency was responsible for the implementation of the Action Plan in partnership with other national government departments and two local government clusters (UNODC, 2010:35).
- The states and territories of Australia share accountability for crime prevention with the national government (UNODC, 2010:35). The Australian National Crime Prevention Programme was adopted in 1997, with capital of more than \$AUS38 million to invest in the development and implementation of crime prevention strategies and research. Later, the Office of the Attorney General developed the National Community Crime Prevention Programme, which was inaugurated by the prime minister in 2004. This programme had AUS\$65.5million at its disposal to subsidise crime prevention programmes at a local level in communities over a four-year period (UNODC, 2010:35).

- According to UNODC (2010:35), Morocco accepted a four-year Security Action Plan 2008-2012, which comprised nationwide and local initiatives. It was aimed at strengthening police capacity by modernising the service; providing training; and promoting the devolution of power and capital to regional and local institution to meet community crime prevention needs. Local police services were established in urban areas where crime levels were high. The Action Plan entailed the building of partnerships between relevant government, the community, and the private sector to support and augment safety and crime reduction (UNODC, 2010:35).
- According to UNODC (2010:36), Scotland established a 10-year Strategic Violence Reduction Plan which was to be implemented by the Scottish Violence Reduction Unit, who adopted a 10-year crime reduction strategy in December 2007. This initiative, which fell under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Justice and Police and aimed to prevent crime sustainably, was inaugurated by the Cabinet Secretary for Justice and the Chief Constable of Strathclyde Police. The Plan's objective was to establish community participation in a collective crime prevention programme.

UNODC (2010:36) explains that subsidies need to be distributed to beleaguered zones with crime challenges, as determined by a country. Capital for crime prevention might come from subsidies provided by national or local administrations, universities and contributing nations/organisations/businesses.

- Burkino Faso, West Africa, formed a National Action Plan against Internal and Cross Border Trafficking in Children (2004-2008). This nationwide plan focussed on at-risk youth.
- The 2010-2014 Country Assistance Strategy formed jointly by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and Jamaica provided community and financial support to crime prevention projects in Jamaica. The main objective was to create safety and security by preventing crime and corruption. Moreover, community involvement in regulating crime was encouraged.

UNODC (2010:37) explains that advisory and coordinating committees, as well as representatives of a diversity of contributors from various sectors, frequently provide guidance and expertise in crime reduction programmes:

- The Philippines produced their National Crime Prevention Plan in 2004 guided by the Philippines National Police (PNP). This is a mixture of action packages, including execution policies formulated by criminal justice divisions, nationwide and local management. A technical committee and an interim committee of experts mobilised every pertinent division to execute the strategy. According to Patalinghug (2017:144), the PNP is charged with the preservation of peace and order, guaranteeing public safety and consolidating local government capacity in the administration and the basic services delivery to the community through the creation of a highly efficient and competent police force. Similarly, the Republic Act No. 8551 instructed the Philippine National Police (PNP) as a service provider for the conservation of peace and security of the citizens.
- The Indonesian Crime Prevention Foundation assumes nationwide organisation of crime preventions programmes that include interventions from the Department of Justice and Human Rights, the Department of Social Affairs, the Department of External Affairs, and the Department of the Interior. In Indonesia, the technological innovation for crime prevention typically still uses hard technology such as CCTV. CRIMEID intends to be a soft technology that could assist the crime prevention and public security programme (Yohanes et al., 2019:53).
- Hungary approved its 2003 National Strategy for the Social Prevention of Crime and selected a National Crime Prevention Board to execute the policy, supported by the Crime Prevention Unit of the Ministry of Justice. Youth crime, urban crime, family violence, assistance to victims of crime and recidivism were the five priorities of the crime prevention project. The Board was made of delegates from health, housing, and education services; the police; correctional services; local governments; academic institutions; churches and NGOs (UNODC, 2010:37).

- Although the Police Directorate occupies a central part in crime reduction, in Norway, the National Crime Prevention Council (KRAD) formed by the administration, offers the Directorate and other administrative divisions, guidance in crime prevention and implements programmes for them
- A consultative committee was formed in the province of Quebec, Canada, in 2000, after the inauguration of its regional Crime Prevention Policy, which was accountable to the Ministry for Public Security. The consultative committee comprised delegates from various departments, the police, cities and the community (UNODC, 2010:37).

The section below explains various relationships between national governments and universities or specialised institutions in recent years.

- The administration of Australia has worked successfully with the Australian Institute of Criminology (AIC), an expert administration-sponsored institution, in developing, monitoring, and evaluating crime prevention programmes. It has also subsidised significant university studies on topics, such as early criminal involvement; crime control; violence against women; crime prevention; and Aborigines and crime. The Ministry of the Attorney General, for instance, initiated an investigation of the crime prevention plan “Pathways to Prevention” that was implemented by the state and local administrations.
- In Chile, the Ministry of Justice cooperates with universities in projects, such as the Program de Seguridad Urbana at the University Hurtado, in assessing nationwide programmes. Moreover, it supports a diploma programme on city security.
- The Centre for the Study of Citizen Security at the University of Chile offers diploma and master’s programmes, as well as workshops on youth crime and community crime prevention, for example.
- In SA, the CSIR works with national administration departments and the SAPS. It has contributed to the development of crime preventions strategies; planned and implemented programmes at grassroots level; assisted communities in developing their own crime prevention strategies; held conferences; and

instituted training programmes for local and national administration officials (UNODC, 2010:45).

According to UNODC (2010:71), the Guidelines established procedures that administrations can adopt in developing national policies for the prevention of organised crime.

- A nationwide anti-smuggling strategy was approved by the Czech Republic administration in response to increased human trafficking in the 1990s. The strategy's main aim was to prevent the smuggling of women and children, especially girls, in and out of the country. The plan included increasing community awareness and educating the public; monitoring the activities of drug dealers and other criminals involved in smuggling; forming partnerships with the police and NGOs; and improving border control, for example.
- In Italy, the programme "On the Road" is run by an NGO in partnership with local and national organisations to prevent the sexual manipulation of children, teenagers, and women, of whom several are prohibited migrants and victims of human trafficking, and to provide support to sex workers and victims. In Sicily, a programme to increase awareness in children regarding organised crime was established and implemented in schools for many years.

According to UNODC (2010:74), governments receive numerous requests for funding from various public organisations. Governments are willing to fund crime prevention programmes but need to find ways to facilitate a fair allocation of money to organisations. The section below describes various viable procedures for capital distribution.

- Mexico's Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL) formed its Recover Public Spaces programme in 2007, which funds local organisations that work towards the security of community places based on crime prevention using an environmental strategy. Community organisations and municipalities representing areas with more than 50,000 people are eligible to request funding. In Mexico, the Office encouraged imprisonment alternatives for minor crimes through drug treatment courts and similar models in which the justice

sector and health and social services work closely together. The UNODC established a network of public and private sector partners that aims to provide prevention, treatment and social rehabilitation services by training more than 50 justice sector professionals (UNODC, 2014:59).

- The nationwide administrative plan to strengthen public security, the Comuna Segura Programme, was promulgated, in 2001, in Chile. It was an integral part of the administration's plan to grant independence to town managers and community organisations permitting them to develop their own security strategies. However, less influential cities received little funding, which made it difficult for them to implement effective programmes. Nonetheless, many organisations requested and received funding. In the project's first four years, US\$23.3m in total was assigned for funding and 2,727 programmes were subsidised.
- The Community Crime Prevention Grant Programme under the management of Alberta Solicitor General and Public Security was introduced in the Province of Alberta in Canada. It provides subsidies to community crime prevention programmes directed at at-risk individuals and their relatives; Aboriginal individuals and societies, crime reporting; and safe community strategies, for example. Priority is given to local programmes rather than international ones. In 2009, \$600,000CAN was available to programmes that could request funding of up to a maximum of \$50,000CAN (UNODC, 2010:75).

The Federal Government of Germany has a nationwide crime prevention plan particularly for violence against women. The section below explains how the administration in partnership with various stakeholders participated in successful crime reduction strategies.

Two Action Plans for combatting violence against women were delivered in 1999 and 2007 by the Federal Government of Germany. The 1999 Action Plan included a diversity of objectives:

- Deterrence, regulation, and executive law
- Partnership with the German Crime Congress and NGOs

- Rehabilitation of criminals
- Promoting awareness among experts and the community
- Global collaboration (UNODC, 2010:75).

These objectives were envisioned to protect women from violence. For example, if a woman were compelled to vacate a violent home, the law would protect her. Moreover, working with criminals to alter their conduct and disposition was expected to prevent further violence, and creating community awareness of violence against women would mean that perpetrators were no longer able to operate in secret.

To further comprehension of the challenge, a Representative Study of Violence against Women in Germany was authorised by the Federal Ministry of Families, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth and promulgated in 2004. This study was based on more than 10,000 consultations with women aged between 16 and 25 years old.

A study, commissioned by the Ministry in 2004, was conducted to evaluate programmes that aimed to reduce domestic violence entitled “Working Together to Combat Family Violence: Collaboration and Involvement”. It reviewed the development and success of various programmes that viewed violence against women as a community challenge that required communal solutions.

Emanating from the knowledge and experiences gained from the implementation of the 1999 plan, the second Action Plan of 2007 included a sequence of nine objectives:

- Deterrence, regulation, and managerial rules
- Support system to aid, including therapy for women affected by violence
- National networks for the support system
- Collaboration amongst administrative and non-administrative structures
- Working with criminals.
- Promoting awareness
- European and global collaboration
- Procedures to support women overseas (UNODC, 2010:76).

According to UNODC (2010:76), the Crime Prevention Council of Lower Saxony, which included the council, administration, public councils, non-administration bodies and educational bodies, brought together more than 250 associate organisations. This structure has been accountable for executing a national strategy for family violence. It functions with various departments, including emergency involvement with the police. Moreover, it is involved with criminal prosecution, defending victims of violence, advancing support systems, organising conferences, and holding meetings with local communities.

The example of Bogota, Colombia, below shows how a city responded to escalating violence/murder in a methodical and intentional way, as well as implementing a sequence of efficacious initiatives, which reduced crime and involved the public. The city of Bogota experienced a reduction in its homicide rate from 80 to 28 per 100 000 people, between 1993 and 2002 (UNODC, 2010:84). Incidents were halved and although there was not an upsurge in the police force size, the law enforcement agencies augmented imprisonment percentages by 400 per cent. The example of Bogota is a clear illustration of the significance of a party-political pledge, endured transversely through three dissimilar arrangements. Moreover, although not large, there was a reduction in violence because of firearm and alcohol control (UNODC, 2010:84).

The following are some of the other strategies implemented in Bogota:

- **Actions to Recuperate Decayed Urban Spaces**

In Bogotá, Avenida Caracas and the Cartucho zones, which were two violent areas, experienced an urban and transport infrastructure revamp. Crime and violence levels decreased considerably in both areas as a result. In Avenida Caracas, from 1999 to 2003, murder decreased by 60 per cent, whilst in the Cartucho zone, mugging declined by 70 per cent between 2000 and 2003.

- **Frentes de Seguridad.**

Crime Watch groups comprising members of the community established supportive relationships between police officials and the people, which eliminated former mistrust on both sides. Consequently, a surge in crime preventions occurred.

- **Domestic Police Stations**

Research data indicated that the prevention of violence against women and domestic violence was effective when police stations were used for reconciliation procedures.

- **Police Professionalism**

The police service improved and experienced transformation when a strategy highlighting outcomes-based performance was followed. Supporting policing education has been extensively acknowledged by communities as an effective way of preventing violence and developing communal harmony (UNODC, 2010:84).

The Western Australia example below illustrates officials and the public engaged in the development and implementation of crime reduction strategies.

In Western Australia, the Office of Crime Prevention, which is the dominant coordinative body, forms Community Safety and Crime Prevention (CSCP) partnerships with the state police, Departments of Correctional Services, Health, Education and Training, Communities and Social Services and Public Works, for example. Moreover, the partnerships include nationwide administrative bodies; Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander communities; businesses; youth organisations; marginalised communities; colleges and universities; spiritual organisations; and the Austrian Broadcasting Corporation, for instance (UNODC, 2010:96).

In El Salvador, the existence of an administration-public relationship originated from the desire of the community to be involved in crime prevention.

A broad-based coalition, the Society Without Violence was designed to eliminate gun violence, was formed in El Salvador in 2003. Supported by the United Nations Development Fund, El Salvador assumed an inclusive approach to meet the challenge of violent crime. Jointly with the National Council of Public Security, the Society Without Violence petitioned administration for ratification (UNODC, 2010: 96).

The Ministry of Security in 2006 enacted legislation to improve the regulations for the use of weapons, such as registration, possession, ownership, use of guns in public and a tax, which was to be used for health facilities. In addition, legislation was passed to limit the carrying of firearms in public, which led to a reduction of violent crime. The

Safety Without Violence coalition effectively petitioned administration to form a National Commission on Community Safety and Social Peace, which represented the entire five political parties; universities; businesses; and spiritual bodies, for example. Seventy-five proposals for reducing armed violence were contained in their 2007 report (UNODC, 2010:96).

The examples below show numerous other strategies, particularly in North America and Europe. They are diverse but all involve community participation, a problem-solving approach and organisation:

- Problem-oriented policing
- Broken windows approach
- Pulling levers policing
- Third party policing
- Hot spots policing
- Evidence-based policing
- Compstat
- Reassurance policing
- Chicago alternative policing strategy
- Intelligence-led policing

(UNODC, 2010: 98).

In Chicago, USA, the use of a community-oriented policing model proves that a metropole can improve relationships between the public and the police as well as prevent crime.

In 1993, the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy (CAPS) was introduced in Chicago, (pop. in 2005, 2.8 million inhabitants, 4.7 police officers per 1000 inhabitants) in five city districts with three objectives. These were the re-organisation of policymaking powers and police roles; the resolution of community challenges by means of local crime-based data and active community participation; and improved coordination among community members (UNODC, 2010:99).

UNODC (2010:99) explains that the 25 police districts were divided amongst 279 patrol groups, each comprising 10 officers, respectively, and accountable for 4,100 families. Officials were allocated to a rapid intervention squad to answer to meet emergencies demands, whilst others patrolled to solve residents' problems with community participation. To identify the biggest crime issues in the community, patrol teams held monthly consultations with representatives from the community. The implementation of the strategy was carefully evaluated. The results indicated an increase in trust in the police on the part of the community and a reduction in the crime rate. Although an improved police service was not only factor in the reduced crime rate, but crime was also less in the areas that implemented the policing model than in other areas (UNODC, 2010:99).

In Dar es Salaam, Tanzania, in the 1990s, an auxiliary police service was designed as part of the Safer Cities Programme. The police oversaw local trafficking; law and order issues; and patrolling to ensure police presence (UNODC, 2010:101).

- The Dar es Salaam Auxiliary Police (AP), who wear uniforms, were formed in Tanzania in 2001. They were trained by the Police College and were originally assigned to four municipalities, to provide a visible police presence and enforce the law. They worked in partnership with volunteer community guards, known as Sungu Sungu at ward level and offered support throughout wards court assemblies (UNODC, 2010:101).

In countries, such as the Philippines, Tanzania, and India, as explained below, the lack of control in rural or isolated zones led to the formation of structures to provide control in these areas.

- In the Philippines: The BAC-UP unit of the community policing began in Bacolod City in the 1980s, where the only police station was substituted by 8 precincts and approximately 3000 volunteer Youth Barangay Tanods trained in crime prevention to back the police. This led to a reduction in organised and general crime in the metropole during the following years.
- In Tanzania, as part of the Dar es Salaam Safer Cities programme, the Sungu Sungu, which is a crime prevention group consisting of young people, ensures

safety and provides environmental assistance to underprivileged communities voluntarily. The group is trained by the Dar es Salaam Auxiliary Police with whom they work. The scheme not only prevents crime but also allows the participants to learn skills that lead to employment and income when they are not policing.

- In India, the Panchayat Policing System, in Mumbai, was formed to allow the police to gain admission to slum areas, where a lack of trust in the police meant that crime was not reported. Inhabitants of slum areas did not have the safety and security of well-developed areas. Moreover, they were more likely to be victims of crime. However, women inhabitants had been trained to work in the police stations in the slum areas. They worked with the community to increase faith in the police and encourage crime reporting (UNODC, 2010:102).

UNODC (2010:107) explains that regarding the rehabilitation of prisoners, a diversity of methods exists. These can be inside prison programmes that prepare prisoners for freedom; programmes that offer protected accommodation to allow prisoners to adapt to staying out of jail; programmes that provide for the public by surveillant and supervising the ex-prisoner; and programmes that provide support and training for the prisoner both in jail and in the community.

Social workers in Uganda work with convicts prior to them being freed from jail. They help them to plan how they will relate to others and, generally, what they will do when they are free. When they are released, they receive help from probation officials and members of the community.

Interaction with community leaders is key to them adapting to life after prison. In Guatemala, the NGO, Grupo Ceiba, offers numerous programmes to stop teenagers from joining gangs. The members of the group work in underprivileged neighbourhoods, fostering relationships with the community by offering substitutes to joining gangs and violence. They use a peer support system to contact youth and offer numerous programmes that include a street university, alternative colleges and learning centres, day-care for children of young mothers, and business and technological education. They work with government and prison administrators to establish training centres in jails to

help prisoners prepare for freedom (UNODC, 2010:107). El Salvador, Guatemala and Honduras passed legislation with support from the UNODC, while Bangladesh, India, Nepal, the Maldives and Sri Lanka were aided in recognising gaps in national anti-corruption laws and institutions (UNODC, 2014:75).

- A Volunteer Probation Aide (VPA) system has existed since 1978 in the Philippines. The VPAs are enlisted and trained by probation officers with whom they work in supervising and supporting prisoners released from jail. They help the community to accept former prisoners. This programme was given new life in 2003, with help from Japan and UNAFEI. Currently, approximately 10,000 VPAs work with municipalities and probation officers (UNODC, 2010:107).

UNODC (2010:114) describes examples of organisations working with administrations to establish programmes for at-risk teenagers, including rehabilitation programmes. One such programme is the Central American Coalition for the Prevention of Youth Violence (CCPVJ).

- The Central American Coalition against Youth Violence (CCPVJ) has gathered some 16 NGOs working in Central American nations to prevent youth violence. They have formed a collection of efficacious prevention and rehabilitation strategies for teenagers engaged in violence in the area.
- In El Salvador, numerous prevention programmes for youth involved with gangs in partnerships with the community have been formed the National Council for Public Security. These include a reintegration farm school for youth between 12 and 25-year-old, a tattoo removal programme and rehabilitation programmes conducted inside jail (UNODC, 2010:114).

Numerous national and local administrations have established strategies for collaborating with businesses in crime prevention. They comprise committees to encourage private sector participation and collaboration in community projects (UNODC, 2010:115).

- In Nigeria, the Lagos State Government instituted the Lagos State Security Trust Fund by law, in September 2007. This is a community/business relationship with the objective of assisting Lagos State with security problems by promoting collaboration in crime prevention and control; soliciting subsidies; and assisting with police training/accessing resources. It provides the latest data on security and crime prevention developments, using its website. Moreover, it has initiated a study of victimisation in Lagos State in partnership with the NGO “CLEEN”. In Nigeria, the UNODC helped to undertake assessments regarding the influx and outflow of prisoners in prison and remand facilities, the number of pre-trial detainees and the pre- and post-release rehabilitation services in the country (UNODC, 2014:58).
- In the Netherlands, the National Platform for Crime Control, formed by representatives from pertinent departments, the police, local authorities, insurance companies, banks, the retail sector and organisations of employers and employees, was formed in 1992 to fight crime challenges affecting business.
- In Scotland, the Scottish Business Crime Centre (SBCC) was formed in 1996, under the Business Crime Reduction Strategy for Scotland, for offering valuable guidance to the business sector in developing plans for business crime prevention and reduction
- In Canada, the Business Network on Crime Prevention (BNCP), comprising delegates from Canadian businesses, was founded in 1999 to form partnerships amongst businesses (locally, nationally, and globally) with a view to supporting the implementation of crime prevention strategies by the community (UNODC, 2010:116).

The following section describes instances of government in partnership with the private sector on crime prevention.

- In Australia, the National Motor Vehicle Theft Reduction Council (NMVTRC) is an autonomous, non-profit organisation (NPO) in a partnership with all the Australian governments and insurance businesses. The NMTVRC initially

commenced the process, in 1999, for a 5-year period; however, it was later prolonged. The NMVTRC intends lessening Australia's high car theft rate, whether it is due to organised crime or is a crime of opportunity. Theft reduction plans include, inter alia, increasing the visibility of the police; making car registration numbers easily accessible to the police; and discouraging youth from stealing cars. The NMVTRC internet site includes information about car theft prevention and risk reduction (UNODC, 2010:116).

Instances of partnerships in crime prevention involving the private sector include programmes for community housing, youth gang deterrence and school violence.

- The San Romanoway Revitalisation Association (SRA) based in Toronto, Canada, works with national, provincial, and local government in fighting social causes of crime in the community. San Romanoway has many young people, but inadequate work opportunities and recreation facilities for them. Moreover, many of them are immigrants. The Business Action Program (BAP) of the National Crime Prevention Strategy provided a subsidy of (CAD) \$300 000 for three years to the Cultural Social Enrichment Programme. This programme focusses on environmental interventions, such as outside lighting and landscape gardening. In addition, it provides after school care and other community programmes.

The private sector plays a significant role in the programme, ensuring a support network and community development. It has created community parks (Home Depot), improved the SRA's workplace and provided employment opportunities for college dropouts or those who had already clashed with the law. A particular member of the private sector donated (CAD) \$75,000 for the hiring and training of young people in the building trade. Several private sector organisations donated computers and provided internet access to a computer centre, refurbished tennis courts and provided free tennis lessons in summer. Evaluation of the programme after three years revealed a noticeable decrease in violence and damage to property as well as a feeling of safety amongst the people (UNODC, 2010:117).

The section above provided a brief explanation of the UN Guidelines of 1995 and 2002 about planning and implementing crime prevention and community security programmes. The Guidelines accentuate the role of government, the private sector, and the community as partners in the realisation of these programmes.

The Guidelines document explained that no single method is ideal, but a variety of methods may answer crime and violence prevention challenges in the short- and long term.

5.3 CRIME PREVENTION STRATEGIES IN BRICS, SADC COUNTRIES AND INTERNATIONAL BEST PRACTICE

This section explains crime prevention strategies in BRICS and selected SADC (Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, and Swaziland) countries. In addition, it explains international best practice focusing on Ottawa in Canada.

5.3.1 Crime prevention in BRICS countries

According to Transparency International's Corruption Perception Index (CPI) for 2017, among the BRICS bloc of key developing economies, South Africa is graded the best (71st out of 180 countries), followed by China (77th) and India (81st), while Brazil is ranked 96th and Russia 135th. The Transparency International's CPI ranks countries and territories based on how corrupt their public sector is alleged to be. A country or territory's score indicates the perceived level of public sector corruption on a scale of 0 (highly corrupt) to 100 (very clean) (Kurakin & Sukarenko, 2018:58).

The following section focusses on crime prevention in BRICS countries.

5.3.1.1 Brazil

The population of Diadema, Brazil, increased by 3.4 % between 1995 and 1998. However, the homicide rate rose by 49% as well, during this epoch (de Filippi, 2007:92). According to UNODC (2010:84), in 2000, Diadema in the Sao Paulo Metropolitan Area, Brazil, had the greatest number of homicides. During the same period, crime and violence trends increased as well (Brazil Policy Note, 2018:1). According to Brazil Policy Note (2018:2), Brazil was ranked 11th amongst violent countries, with a murder rate of 26.7/100,000 populations in 2015 (UNODC, 2010:84).

According to the UNODC (2014), the murder rate in Russia was the highest in Europe and globally. WHO (n.d.), as cited in Lysova and Shchitov (2015:258), observe that in 1994, the Russian murder rate was the highest at 33 per 100,000 persons. However, MVD (n.d.) and Rosstat (n.d.), as cited in Lysova and Shchitov (2015:258), maintain that in the 2000s, the official homicide rate in Russia was lower, with estimations fluctuating from 10 per 100,000 persons (police data) to 13 per 100,000 persons (mortality data).

Between 2009 and 2015, the general homicide rate in India decreased by 10% from 3.8 to 3.4 per 100 000 people (UNODC, 2019a:48). In 2016, Hong Kong, China, reported a homicide rate of 0.3 % per 100 000 people, which was like that of the Republic of Korea (UNODC, 2019b:9). In 2016, the homicide rate in South Africa was reported at 35.9 % per 100000 people (UNODC, 2019b: 22).

According to UNODC (2019a:48), the murder rate in 2014 in Honduras was 66.9 per 100 000 people in 2014. The same year, Mexico experienced a murder rate of 16.1 per 100 000 people (UNODC, 2019a:48). In 2016, in El Salvador the murder rate was 82.84 per 100 000 people (UNODC, 2019b:9). Japan and the Republic of Korea were similar with low homicide rates of 0.2 and 0.3 per 100 000 people, respectively (UNODC, 2019:9). In Europe, the homicide rate is similar in Germany and Switzerland, with Germany at 1.18 per 100 000 people and Sweden at 1.08 per 100 000 people (UNODC, 2019b:9).

According to Jaitman (2019:4), Brazil is one of the countries with obstinately high homicide rate in Latin America. It has observed an increase to 30 murders per 100,000 population, with some North-eastern states surpassing 50 homicides per 100,000 population, despite having observed rates ranging from 20 and 26 in the past (Jaitman, 2019:4).

In the whole world, Latin America remains the solitary region where homicides surged between 2000 and 2010 (Miraglia, 2016:2). This scourge affects the young, particularly young men. Considerable amount of this violence is committed by 'organised crime groups' connected to drug, gun, 'and human trafficking, among other activities' (Miraglia, 2016:2). According to Miraglia (2016:2), Brazil remains one of the most

violent countries globally with a murder rate of 27.1 per 100,000 people in 2011. In Brazil, drug trafficking and arms trafficking are intertwined (Miraglia, 2016:6)

Ten interventions for safety and the prevention of crime have been introduced since 2001 by the City Council of Diadema (de Filippi, 2007:93). According to UNODC (2010:84), thorough investigation recognised the periods and areas of greatest violence and other problems. The plan comprised community health strategies, for instance, closing bars and restaurants at night, city regeneration, particularly in shantytowns, changes to policing and community development initiatives.

Using a participating planning procedure, regular consultations were held with individual municipal ward representatives and the council to address concerns, develop strategies, and allocate budgets to programmes chosen by the community. Murder percentage dwindled significantly by 2004, and the municipality's position fell from number one to number 18 amongst the cities in the area (UNODC, 2010:84).

Diadema's Ten Interventions comprised the following:

- Formation of a Municipal Department of Social Policies and Public Security and geographical tracking of crimes committed every day.
- The integration of all police services operating in the city (municipal, military, and civil regional)
- Passing a new regulation whereby liquor outlets should be closed from 11:00pm to 06:00am
- Introducing the Municipal Council for the Safety and the Prevention of Crime
- Growing the Municipal Police Force by 70% and founding the group "The Neighbourhood Angels" who police using bicycles
- Founding the programme "Young Apprentice Project" for at-risk youth
- Introducing social and environmental policies, which includes "favela" and school programmes
- Installing surveillance cameras
- Conducting reviews and law enforcement operations

- Introducing three main community education crusades: Disarmament of Firearms Campaign; Children's Disarmament of Toy Guns Campaign; Drug and Alcohol Awareness Campaign' (UNODC, 2010:85)

Diadema in Sao Paulo, Brazil, presented a geographic information system (GIS) in 2000, as part of its ten-fold strategy for community security and crime prevention. This was utilised by the recently founded Municipal Department of Social Policies and Public Security in analysis, monitoring/evaluation, and tactical preparation of crime prevention procedures (UNODC, 2010:65).

UNODC (2010: 38) explains that in 2007, Brazil introduced its new community security scheme, PRONASCI (the National Program for Public Security with Citizenship). It fell under the Ministry of the Justice and included 94 Structural Actions and Local Programmes, which depended on partnerships with other Departments on precise matters. The Structural Actions involved the modernisation of police and prison services, as well as the training of specialists.

The programme objectives were to develop about 3.5 million community security experts, youth, and their households, as well decreasing the homicide rate from 29 per 100 000 people to 12 per 100 000 over the four years. The Local Programmes targeted the important civic zones, and engaged in three kinds of subsidy streams:

- Territory of peace – supporting joint community management and partnerships among local bodies, such as the police and the Offices of Integrated City Management (GGIM); founding Communitarian Councils of Public Safety as mediums for community security deliberations; providing tools to provide information to the community about their roles and rights
- Family and youth integration – a programme scheme for providing aid and training to young people exposed to city and national violence with citizenship and leadership lessons; conflict resolution; sports; cultural activities; and a Citizen Reservist project for youth discharged from military service, to avoid them being lured into crime (UNODC, 2010,39).

- Safety and sociability – creating open areas in crowded city zones and underprivileged communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Cities; learning programmes concentrated into a short period of time in particular communities, in partnership with the Ministry of Education; and a sequence of programmes on libraries, museums and youth spaces in particular poor communities (UNODC, 2010:39).

UNODC (2010:39) explains that Brazil's National Strategy on Public Security (CONSEG) was created after participative discussions with interested shareholders from all areas of the country. CONSEG hosted the first National Conference on Public Security in August 2009, with delegates from all government sectors and community structures to plan and sustain the strategy's development.

According to UNODC (2010:45), the state of Minas Gerais and the city of Belo Horizonte in Brazil, worked jointly with the Study Centre on Crime and Public Safety (CRISP) of the Federal University of Minas Gerais. Besides developing effective data analysis and training programmes, the Centre cooperated in the development and assessment of an efficient youth murder prevention programme "Fica Vivo", which means "Stay Alive".

UNODC (2010:66) elucidates that the Centre for Studies on Public Safety (CRISP), at the Federal University of Minas Gerais, in Brazil, developed an Atlas of Criminality for the city of Belo Horizonte and the state of Minas Gerais. The Atlas merged information from the 1980s to 2000 from the military and civil police; the Ministry of Health; and socioeconomic and census data. CRISP did the same for other Brazilian cities and states on the themes of murders, drug crimes, family violence and theft. In Brazil, awareness-raising efforts encompassed rewarding national initiatives against corruption. The schools programme 'One for All and All for One: Ethics and Citizenship' was reorganised in 2014 (UNODC, 2014:81).

The Municipal Guard in Guarulhos, Sao Paulo Brazil, was established in 1998, mainly for ensuring building and property security. It became a significant part of civic security from 2001. It is now proficiently skilled and dispersed in an increased number of stations. It works towards improving community-policing standards in collaboration with communities and schools (UNODC, 2010:101).

In Brazil, a sequence of community discussions about women and their security occurred in the country's four areas, before the first National Conference on Public Security in August 2009. Its objective included evaluating women's perspectives in various cities on urban violence and developing feasible proposals for presentations at a nationwide conference.

The Dialogos sobre Seguranca Publica was established in seven main municipalities. Clusters of about 30 women between 15 and 69 years of age related their experiences and made recommendations over a two-day period. They represented a variety of social/educational/cultural backgrounds and included prisoners and other socially excluded groups (UNODC, 2010:110).

The Brazilian Forum for Public Security is an NGO working with all administrative echelons. It was instituted in 2006 to stimulate discussion among the police and public on matters of safety and security. It holds a yearly conference where administrative planners, the police, professionals, and NGOs meet to discuss views, developments and best practice. It issues yearly statistics on violence in Brazilian urban areas and organises workshops where municipalities meet to share their thoughts on crime prevention (UNODC, 2010:113).

In Brazil, the UNODC resolved the 'Expressive Youth' project for 100 at-risk young people through youth-led creativities in high-crime satellite cities around Brasilia (UNODC, 2014:62).

Regarding the Anti-Corruption Law, the Brazilian Federal Executive Branch implemented Decree No. 8420 of 18 March 2015 (Anti-Corruption Decree), ordering, among other things, the sixteen criteria to be used by Brazilian authorities to evaluate anti-corruption compliance programmes when implementing the Anti-Corruption Law in administrative proceedings (Kurakin & Sukarenko, 2018:62).

5.3.1.2 Russia and Crime Prevention Strategies

Despite numerous improvements in the criminal system, many Russians continue to harbour negative views of their police and refuse to collaborate with them (Semukhina, 2016:1). According to Semukhina (2016:2), Russian police underwent a period of stability with moderately low crime rates and positive public views during the 1970s

and 1980s. Semukhina (2016:2), maintain that because of the rapid economic and political change that occurred during the perestroika (restructuring) in the 1990s, Soviet police found themselves heavily understaffed and underfunded while faced with a rapid increase in the crime rate.

According to Semukhina (2017:1), the poor public image of the Russian police is not exclusive; numerous post-Soviet countries experience grave issues concerning the public validity of law enforcement institutions. Russia was ranked the second-lowest country among 13 post-Soviet countries about public trust of police, based on the 2004 Barometer study (Ibid).

Semukhina (2017:2), explains that bribery followed by the refusal to accept reports of crimes from the victims and falsification of criminal cases are the commonest forms of police corruption in Russia. It is the belief of many citizens that the Russian police force is one of the most corrupt government institutions in the country, even though the exact scope of police corruption is unknown (Ibid). According to Semukhina (2017:3), police officers often concede that nearly no police work can be performed without some abuse of the law. Semukhina (2017:4), explains that from 2010 to 2011, numerous significant steps were taken by the Russian government to improve the performance of Russian police, and subsequently to advance its public image. These steps included increased wages/benefits and a review of all police officers' personnel files (recertification) to remove the bad apples from the police force.

Numerous steps were taken to reinforce the professionalism and discipline of Russian police officers. The Ministry of Internal Affairs developed a Code of Professional Ethics for police officers that spelt out officers' chief tasks and potential regulations of professional ethics (Semukhina, 2017:4). Kolokoltsev, the new Minister of MVD (Ministry of Internal Affairs) proclaimed his policy of personal responsibility for police chiefs. Kolokoltsev proposed dismissing superior police officers when their underlings committed serious crime. Because of this proposal, several police chiefs were dismissed for crime supposedly committed by their subordinate police officers. Kolokoltsev also proposed the retrospective discharge of police officers who had committed criminal and administrative abuses. In 2012, within the Investigative Committee, an independent unit was established to investigate all crimes committed by police officers (Semukhina, 2017:4).

5.3.1.3 Community-Oriented Policing in India

Querish, Frank, Lambert, Klahm and Smith (2017:9) explain that the Indian police are judiciously dispersed and are classified at the national stage. Each of the 28 districts has a police force supervised by an official ranked as Director General of Police. The police of the seven amalgamated areas are administered by the Indian federal administration.

Services and the public relations of Indian police require improvement. It is significant to observe that Indian people's demands for openness concerning numerous features of administrative operatives, which include regulating, resulted in the Indian Parliament passing the Rights to Information Act, 1995. Thus, the right to information developed into a dominant right under Article 19 (1) of the Constitution of India (1950) (Querish, et al, 2017:16).

The manpower shortage in the police force, is one challenge that faces India. Pradeep (2015:158) opines that the sanctioned and actual police workforce per 100 000 inhabitants at the all-India level numbered 145.25 and 117.09 respectively on January 1st, 2007. Two hundred and twenty (220) is the minimum United Nation's norm.

In 2005, the megacity policing plan was established by the government under the Modernisation of Police Force (MPF) scheme. It had attained substantial maturity by 2010, as the system was used for confirming the successful and event-free Commonwealth games in Delhi (Pradeep, 2015:159). According to Pradeep (2015:159), the Ministry of Home Affairs (MHA) delivered additional stimulus to the megacity-policing programme by assigning additional funds for the period 2013-17.

The Andhra Pradesh (AP) Police Department launched the electronic computerised operations for police services (E-COPS) project in 2002. Conceptualised to ensure smart policing through using state-of-the-art technology, the project has changed the AP Police Department that now displays prompt response, amplified competence, open policing, and healthier interacting with the public of Andhra Pradesh (Pradeep, 2015:159). The decision to establish E-COPS was to improve policing and service across the state, in collaboration with the community, which allows Division Heads and Senior Officers to solicit material that might not have been available to them before

(Pradeep, 2015:159). Grievances can be lodged by a citizen at a police station, which is appropriate, comfortable and without jurisdictional restrictions.

According to Pradeep (2015:160), the introduction of smart policing (computerised data driven policing) is a breath of fresh air. The smart police station can be viewed as the building block of smart policing. A smart police station is anticipated to be citizen friendly and amicable. In addition, it should meet the operational and welfare needs of the police officers posted there.

The new trend of engaging app policing bridges the communication gap. Apps enable the community to connect with the local police and send an emergency alert to the nearby police station. India's security apps are as follows:

- Hawk Eye: Some of this app's features include reporting violations, pursuing grievances and women safety features
- Himmat: An initiative of Delhi Police Commissionerate, this app includes emergency alarms and a women's safety/distress call
- ICE: An initiative of Mumbai Police Commissionerate, this app includes safety tips, SOS alerts and the contact details of family members
- Safety Pin: An initiative of the Kerala Police Department, this app includes SOS alerts; information about safe and unsafe areas; and GPS tracking
- Segway Patrollers: A new move made by Delhi Police Department that bought a batch of Segway Patrollers Scooters to augment traffic management and community policing abilities

Thrust areas of reform in police organisation and urban-specific policing issues include the following:

- Urban-specific policing training
- Reorganisation of the hierarchy
- Reforms at station level
- Police performance and morale
- Separation of investigation from law-and-order duties
- Police association in urban planning (Pradeep, 2015:162).

In India, the UNODC created a national referral system of contacts in vigilance and anti-corruption desks to improve management between federal and state structures (UNODC, 2014:77).

5.3.1.4 China and its crime prevention strategies

According to Chen (2002:1), in China, emphasis is placed on the role of the public in the control and socialisation of people. Under the tutelage of the dominant administration, the entire community is mobilised to prevent crime and reform criminals, thus creating a nonviolent community. The community is expected to be willing to assume the responsibility of assisting the government in upholding social order. According to Zhong (2009:158), the police-public relationship can be typified figuratively: the police are fish, and the masses are water. The police are assigned the function of mobilising the public's response to the administration's demand for upholding rules, guiding citizens in preserving public peace and community safety, as well as recognising deviant behaviour in fellow citizens.

Chinese citizens choose to tackle the challenge of crime in their community, instead of handing the problem over to the professionals. Thus, almost all society members appear to have developed into active managers of crime, instead of silent spectators. Community organisation is based on mass participation through a network of committees. In fact, mediation and public security committees are popular justice systems, which are both hands-on and reactive in recognising possibly upsetting communal circumstances; preventing crime; and managing aggressive conduct (Chen, 2002:2).

Functions of the Community

- **Public security committees**

Public security committees, formed at the grassroots level in almost all communities, comprise members elected by the public. According to Chen (2002:3), they are considered influential in creating/preserving peace and establishing a connection between the police and the community. The committees are commonly comprised of neighbourhood teams and older member of the community. Common sense and optimism are considered desirable traits in

committee members, although aptitude to deal with community matters and knowledge are appreciated (Chen 2002:3). Although the committees are perceived as informal in the West, in China they are viewed as official bodies for regulating the community. They are legitimately constituted and incorporated into the process of official activities.

Consequently, they could be viewed as the first tier of administration, which undoubtedly has an immense effect on neighbourhood crime. Chen (2002:) elucidates that public security committees assist the police in maintaining peace in the community. They are authorised to observe and inspect possible challenges to peace and reduce opportunities for crime. Moreover, they are permitted to be initial responders when crime occurs. They train activists (*jiji fengzi*) to support them in carrying out their many responsibilities, which include organising community protection teams (*lianfangdui*) to guard the community. According to Chen (2002:3), they are expected to be vigilant for unlawful behaviour and suspicious persons. They report to the police when they discover suspicious individuals or movement in the vicinity.

Since an informer is not treated with contempt, as is the case in the West, the public security committees are efficient in mobilising inhabitants to collaborate with the police. These bodies manage numerous communities regulating activities and perform a key function in maintaining order in the community. These committees also oversee neighbourhood issues, such as drinking, fighting and noise, for example. A committee was successful in ensuring seven crime-free years in an area that was famous for its high crime rate (Chen 2002:3). In addition, a public security committee performs the following duties: patrolling; organising youth programmes; lecturing youth about the law and morals; and sending youth to plantations and farmsteads to work alongside labourers. Because of the success of public security committees, the Chinese government has made a greater effort to maintain law and order.

- **Mediation committees**

According to Chen (2002:4), mediation committees perform a key function in maintaining law and order in China since they help resolve conflict in the community through communication and negotiation, as opposed to litigation. Traditionally, Chinese communities prefer reconciliation and cooperation instead of a lawsuit. The 1982 Constitution of the Republic of China and the People's Mediation Law of the People's Republic of China (2010) acknowledge the importance of mediation committees (Chen, 2002:4). A mediation committee is comprised of 7-11 members of the community and functions at a local level. Its membership is based on votes cast by the community, and it has a few unpaid assistants. Membership lasts for three years and is renewable. Qualifying criteria include ideological commitment; the ability to manage and strategise; and communication and negotiation skills (Chen 2002:5).

- **The system of household registration**

Chen (2002:6) maintains that the system of household registration *hukou* is a means of policing and controlling with a long history in China. Its main objectives are to preserve peace in the community; to defend the public's rights and welfare; and to contribute to the building of a communist society. It monitors population movement to determine whether citizens are eligible for state services/welfare. It checks the amount of rural people moving into municipalities. However, owing to the high level of labour migration and the escalation of free markets, the once efficient and significant manner of regulating the population has proved to be ineffective in preventing rural people from moving to urban areas.

The system of household registration is overseen by the *gongan* (police). The police station in every community has a section for household registration. According to Zhong (2009:159), household registration is the responsibility and the registration officer of the local police station.

- **The role of the community police**

Zhong (2009:162) explains that community policing appeared in numerous China municipalities during the late 1990s, primarily in the form of the Building Little Safe and Civilised Communities (BLSCC) organisation. Zhong (2009:162) posits that in March 2002, the Ministry of Public Security called for the comprehensive implementation of community policing in main and middle-sized municipalities nationally, by the end of 2004. However, to the Chinese people, the established police and judicial structures are not considered enough for ensuring social order. In fact, in China, the ratio of police to inhabitants is small. According to Chen (2002:8), China's policing strategy in China relies on the Chinese communists' belief in the people's inborn understanding of the need for social order. In other words, the masses are mobilised to be part of a board-based and wide-ranging structure of social control.

As in many other countries, the Chinese police has realised that collaboration with the community is critical to effective crime control and prevention. Police cannot function without the support and cooperation of the people (Chen 2002:8). It is the police's primary responsibility to mobilise the masses in the fight against crime. Local police stations constantly work with local administration and other community structures in taking economic, educational, administrative, and legal action to improve community control.

Police in China not only investigate crime, but also undertake numerous instructive programmes at the local level, for instance, educating the public about rules and rights. Moreover, they hold public meetings to discuss community challenges (Chen, 2002:9). The Chinese crime prevention and policing system follows a bottom-up approach that relies on the contribution of the community. Importance is placed on community-based rather than official approaches of community policing and crime prevention.

5.3.1.5 Crime Prevention Strategies in South Africa

National, provincial, and local governments are three separate but symbiotic levels of South African government (UNODC, 2010:34).

- **The role of national government in crime prevention**

According to UNODC (2010:34), the Cabinet of SA approved the NCPS in 1996, which reveals the national government's emphasis on strategic planning for crime prevention. The NCPS acknowledges crime as a significant challenge to South African communities and recognises the integrated roles of the different sectors in the war against crime. The White Paper on Safety and Security, which was published by the South African government in 1998, supports the implementation of the NCPS by stipulating the duties of the various government spheres. The National Secretariat for Safety and Security, under the auspices of the Department for Safety and Security, was allocated police supervision in the implementation of the crime prevention strategy of the NCPS (UNODC, 2010:34). The South African Justice Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS) Cluster advises crime prevention initiatives and comprises national and provincial departments accountable for security; law and order; and crime prevention.

- **The role of provincial governments in crime prevention**

According to UNODC (2010: 34), Secretariats of Safety and Security as well as provincial departments organise crime prevention strategies at provincial level. The White Paper on Safety and Security mandated provinces to prevent crime. Provinces are responsible for initiating, organising, and allocating resources for community crime prevention programmes; assessing and supporting these programmes at the local level; and creating public-private partnerships to sustain crime prevention (UNODC, 2010:34).

- **The role of local governments in crime prevention**

South African municipalities are mandated to prepare IDPs that have been informed by the socioeconomic needs of communities. In conjunction with the police and the Provincial Department of Safety and Security, municipalities in South Africa are obliged to devise sectoral plans for crime prevention and establishing law and order to meet the security requirements of citizens locally (UNODC, 2010:34).

In South Africa, the CSIR works a great deal with the national government and the police. The CSIR has developed crime prevention guides and a toolkit “The Local Government Toolkit” to be implemented at grassroots level. This initiative assists local municipalities in creating crime prevention plans. Moreover, the CSIR organises conferences to enable conversation and best practice, as well as providing training schemes for local and national government staff members. This demonstrates a working relationship between national/local governments and the CSIR. Moreover, it is an example of a research institute focussing on research on the South African public sector (UNODC, 2010:45).

According to UNODC (2010:101), in Johannesburg, SA, the Johannesburg Metropolitan Policing Department (JMPD) directs and organises the metropole’s crime prevention strategy under the authority of the metropole. Its responsibilities include the following:

- Policing for crime prevention and patrolling of dangerous places
- Creating a data managing scheme for sharing crime information with the police
- CCTV in community areas
- Fraud prevention technology
- Signs warning pedestrians and tourists about dangerous places
- Efficient streetlights in dangerous places
- Private security collaborations and partnerships with businesses in crime ridden areas
- Community and family programmes for highly dangerous places
- Meetings with citizens and the police

According to UNOCD (2010:105), in the city of Durban, South Africa, urban renewal has made the city accessible and led to the development of effective community security.

The Warwick Junction Project in eThekweni (Durban) SA is another example of urban regeneration as a contribution to prevention. Started in 1997, the project was aimed at improving the security and quality of life around the transportation centre of Durban (UNOCD, 2010:105). The project headquarters was in the locality itself, instead of City

Hall. It involved urban renewal in terms of designing a safe environment, but also accounted for community needs after intensive discussions those who used the area.

This included the street sellers trading merchandise brought in everyday from rural areas and townships. Sellers helped in controlling and supervising the new marketplace. Lockups offered nocturnal safety for merchandise, and lavatories monitored by surrounding stand holders were safe and spotless. The effect on crime was evident, with a decrease in occurrences and violent deaths; an increase in general wellbeing; and financial benefits. About 14,000 positions of employment were established citywide, and the area became a tourist site. The project was followed by ITRUMP, which was an upgrading of the original project to other places in the metropole (UNODC, 2010:105).

UNODC (2010:105) maintains that in SA, the National Institute for Crime Prevention and Reintegration of Offenders (NICRO) and Khulisa are examples of NGOs that work with government to develop strategies to help at-risk youth and to reintegrate them into society.

Numerous national and local governments have devised ways to engage the private sector in crime prevention. For example, committees are formed to encourage partnerships with businesses in implementing crime prevention strategies at a local level (UNODC, 2010:116).

According to UNODC (2010:116), in SA, Business Against Crime (BAC) was formed in 1996, after an appeal from the government for the private sector to play a role in fighting crime. Instances of crime prevention projects developed because of partnerships between businesses and communities include community housing, youth gang deterrence and school violence prevention.

UNODC (2010:117) states that BAC, in SA, ran Tissa Thuto, a school-based crime prevention project that involved pupils, teachers, parents and the community. This project drew on the expertise of the police, CPFs, educational experts and sports organisations. Moreover, it involved organisations that specialised in peer/trauma/abuse/victimisation counselling, conflict resolution and mediation. All experts contributed their services. For instance, the Centre for the Study of Violence

and Reconciliation (CSVR) coached parents, teachers, and school governors in trauma management, offered peer therapy and assisted in establishing school safety groups. The project comprised school safety groups; teacher empowerment; conflict resolution; HIV/AIDS; sexuality trauma management; the management of resources; and mentorship. The programme improved relationships between teachers/children/parents, teacher support and responsiveness to children's needs. The Tissa Thuto programme was extended to 500 schools in three provinces (UNODC, 2010:117).

5.3.2 Crime prevention in SADC countries

The following section explains crime prevention strategies in SADC countries.

5.3.2.1 Crime Prevention Strategies in Zimbabwe

Hajek, Barker, Makoni and Choi (2008:173), argue that the history of Zimbabwe has produced a supportive dynamic between the people and the government. A problematic economy, a rough and aggressive police force and a population that is progressively conscious of its rights have powered this dynamic. Richardson (2005), as cited in Hajek *et al.* (2008:173), explains that the Whites' colonisation of indigenous black Africans' property and the reallocation of this property to blacks by the former President of Zimbabwe, Robert Mugabe, and the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) party set the tone for current relationships between the people of Zimbabwe and their police. According to Hajek *et al.* (2008:173), ZANU office-bearers train ZRP to defy court rulings to remove illegal landowners.

Hajek *et al.* (2008:173) opine that the functions of the police, according to the Constitution of Zimbabwe, are to uphold interior safety; maintain law and order; adopt reasonable measures to maintain the peace and protect property from malicious harm. Other functions include observing suspicious behaviour, arresting criminals, and suppressing all forms of public disorder. In Zimbabwe, the Criminal Procedure and Evidence Act grants the police the right to investigate crime; apprehend crime suspects; imprison offenders; search for criminals; and confiscate stolen property.

However, it is claimed that the Zimbabwean government uses its police force to suppress political parties who oppose the ruling party. Members of other parties and civil society have been harassed and dispirited (Hajek *et al.*, 2008:174). The ZPR's harsh tactics continue to be criticised by the community in the form of official complaints and public proceedings. Moreover, media exposure communicates the abuses globally.

Nyabvedzi and Chirisa (2012:69) explain that street crime is a serious problem in urban Zimbabwe neighbourhoods. The declining state of the country's economy exacerbates the crime situation. There was an increase in robbery and car theft in 2009, in comparison with 2008 (Ibid). Tourists and the homes of the rich were targeted by criminals. Criminals were known to use knives and firearms. Harare is the most unsafe city where the crime rate is the highest in the country. The increase in the number of homicides in Harare is blamed on disputes over areas of urban agriculture, which is a means of survival in the city, as people do not have enough money to buy food from shops (Nyabvedzi and Chirisa, 2012)..

5.3.2.2 Crime prevention in Zambia

The Constitution of 1991 and the Police Act of 1965, amended numerous times, provide for the establishment and organisation of the Zambian Police Service (ZPS) (Robins, 2009:2). A volunteer Police Reserve exists over and above the ZPS. In addition, the president is permitted by the existing emergency legislation to detain individuals indefinitely. The Paramilitary Battalion, the Mobile Unit and other special units provide support during extraordinary circumstances to the police (Robins, 2009:2).

The total ZPS workforce is 13 000, which is fewer than half what is mandatory to meet the suggested UN level of one police officer to every 400 citizens. Ineffectiveness and insufficient communication within the force are attributed to the centralised and bureaucratic management practices in the ZPS. Numerous agencies lack investigative capacity, resulting in a severe impediment to the delivery of an effective and efficient criminal justice system (Robins, 2009:3).

Robins (2009:3) explains that critical issues facing law enforcement are as follows:

- The police are abused by politicians and government members for their own agendas.
- All forces have suffered from staff shortage; there is insufficient communication and transport infrastructure, and this negatively affects the quality of police work; and there is insufficient evidence handling and forensic expertise.
- Newly recruited workers are not well educated; human rights abuses continue unabated.
- A lack of police trust disturbs community policing; there is a negative community perception of the police.
- Police take bribes because of meagre pay and work conditions.
- There is inadequate oversight.

(Robins, 2009:3).

Mwiya, Phiri and Lyoko (2015: 211) explain that one of the biggest challenges facing Zambia is crime and owing to the various opportunities that Lusaka provides to criminals, it has become the home to many. Lusaka is also a relatively violent city.

Transformation is highly recommended at all levels of the criminal justice system to ensure an outline that will permit the police to meet their people's needs by investigating and preventing crime (Robins, 2009:3). Relevant legislation must be executed to ensure that the police force has a framework for functioning efficiently and autonomously. Torture should be banned, and the UN Convention against Torture (1984) needs to be embodied in domestic legislation. The inspector general of the ZPS needs to be appointed by an independent body and protection provided in law for whistle-blowers who seek to expose corruption and other incidents of crime within the force (Robins, 2009:4).

The World Justice Project supported an effort by Street Law Zambia to educate 400 scholars (ages 11-14) in four schools in the Lusaka slums on their legal rights when experiencing police and gender-based violence. Programmes of this nature assist in empowering youth by offering strategies and resources for them to access safety and to occupy a role in their communities (Commings, 2018:8).

5.3.2.3 Crime prevention in Mozambique

Mozambique has experienced challenges in preventing crime in the country. Adedokun (2017:14) explains that the 2010 Chatham House Report emphasised that criminal networks operating in Mozambique are one of the threats to democracy. About 14 abductions for ransom were reported in 2012. In 2013, 44 kidnappings were reported by authorities, including six in Maputo in one week during October. Vines *et al.* (2017:14), reports that based on police reports, 11 Mozambicans of South Asian origin and three Portuguese were abducted during October and the commencement of May 2015. The substantial upsurge in abduction for money in Mozambique illustrates the lack of safety in Mozambique.

Slegh, Mariano, Roque, and Barker (2017:17) explain that Mozambique is presently undergoing an increase in organised crime organisations who are a parallel power to the government. Opulent and affluent individuals (particularly of South Asian descent) are victims of a current wave of kidnappings. This serves as a clear sign of both the feebleness of the government to prevent crime and of the continuous social and economic inequality of the country, which causes individuals to resort to organised crime to obtain money to improve their living standards.

According to Slegh *et al.* (2017:17), the nation's justice system and community safety schemes are generally feeble and inadequate in terms of resources and skilled staffs. Notwithstanding some developments concerning legal and psychosocial assistance to survivors of gender-based violence (GBV) in recent years, it continues unabated and frequently considered normal in Mozambique (Ibid).

According to the Mozambique Crime and Safety Report (2018:1), all of Mozambique's borders, the coastline and airports are unsecured and enable the trafficking of drugs, humans, and illegal wildlife goods. Moreover, criminals sporadically use powerful tactics, work in planned groups, and carry weapons that increase the likelihood of physical injury.

Bertelsen and Chauque (2015) posit that Mozambique has one of the world's lowest officer-citizens ratio (one officer to 1,088 citizens). Furthermore, the Mozambique Police Force (PRM) is faced with a lack of material/financial resources; insufficient human resources; poorly trained and equipped staff; and extensive corruption

(Mozambique Crime and Safety Report, 2018:4). In addition, police reaction is sluggish and unpredictable.

The crime investigation branch of the police, the PIC, is also plagued with a shortage of resources and incapacity. Cases under their authority are frequently left unsolved (Mozambique Crime and Safety Report, 2018:4). Bertelsen and Chauque (2015) aver that corruption is rife throughout the PRM, and police officers are frequently guilty of crimes against immigrants and the affluent. Owing to economic decline, resulting in non-payment of government officials, police seek to complement their income by soliciting bribes from drivers and pedestrians.

Consequently, a community policing system, the Policiamento Comunitario (PC), has been progressively established in urban areas, from the early 2000s onwards, to decrease crime through public participation; and to reinforce the internal unity of communities and their confidence in the police (Bertelsen & Chauque, 2015:2). In addition, there has been an increase in the number of armed private security guards in the more affluent areas, which involve off-duty PRM officers. Vigilante-style neighbourhood watch groups have also been developed.

In some cases, technical advice and capacity-building need to be supplemented with on-the-job mentoring. To that end, an anti-corruption adviser was appointed by the UN to assist the Prosecutor-General in Mozambique and another to help the United Republic of Tanzania to develop institutions for the investigation and prosecution of asset recovery cases (UNODC, 2014:77).

5.3.2.4 Crime Prevention in Swaziland

His Majesty's Government Programme of Action (2013-2018:13) states that Swaziland's administration intended to adopt a zero tolerance of crime and terrorism for safeguarding a nonviolent community, which is defended by the safety services of Swaziland. Providing security is the main element of service delivery. The Royal Swaziland Police Service is dedicated to constantly working towards a secure nation, specifically aiming at the reduction of the crime rate by increasing policing in residential and commercial areas.

According to His Majesty's Government Programme of Action (2013-2018:13), police patrols were to include 20 police officers from each police station and extra officers, when patrolling in strategic areas. Surveillance cameras were to be connected in line with police plans in main areas, including busy streets and shopping complexes, with the objective of having 45 new areas covered by CCTV, in 2018. About 60 community police per *inkhundla* (area) were to undergo physical training in the following five years.

His Majesty's Government Programme of Action (2013-2018: 13) planned to include the community in its crime prevention strategy. Two campaigns for crime prevention were to be run by each of the 24 police stations per year, and the number of schools with anti-crime clubs was expected to rise by 20% per annum so that in 2018 alone, 96 new anti-crime clubs would be formed. The outreach programme was to include the establishment of a new design of a neighbourhood watch scheme. Moreover, the outreach programme was to develop and initiate four new schemes each year in addition to running the current ones.

Another crime prevention strategy included in His Majesty's His Majesty's Government Programme of Action (2013-2018:14) was to build a forensic science laboratory with two officials trained yearly to operate the equipment. Moreover, a monthly programme of around 800 vehicle patrols and 200 roadblocks were also planned for ensuring national security (Ibid). In the period of five years from 2013, a large quantity of advanced apparatus for road traffic surveillance was to be bought. To engage the community in security procedures, around 50 road safety campaigns were to be held yearly, including 20 school educational programmes per region.

According to His Majesty's Government Programme of Action (2013-2018:15), improving immigration control at all ports of entry would improve national safety by ensuring legal immigration. The Swaziland administration intended acquiring six more automated border control systems in 2018, to speed up movement at border posts and ensure national security (His Majesty's Government Programme of Action, 2013-2018:15). This and the other strategies described above in this section were intended to lead to a drop in crime by 3% per annum by 2018 in Swaziland.

5.3.3 International best practice, Ottawa, Canada

Ndwamato (2013:40) explains that CPTED strategy was successfully followed Ottawa, Canada, to combat crime. This success is attributed to a partnership involving the community, police, and security personnel. According to Pra Inc. (2009), residents were encouraged to have fences, locks and burglar doors to protect them and their property.

In addition, the community had implemented CPTED strategies that included making sure that streetlights were working; target hardening (strengthening the security of buildings); and closed-circuit television (CCTV) outside houses and at the end of roads. Ottawa's citizens had suggested that CPTED should be applied at the start of an area's development to prevent crime, instead of waiting until a zone was already a crime hotspot.

According to Pra Inc. (2009:3), a study conducted by the Ottawa Police Service showed that appropriately executed CPTED strategies had lessened Ottawa's crime. Ten locations audited during initialisation of the strategies and 10 sites, where strategies had already been carried out, the audit of which had been requested by citizens, had been randomly sampled for the study.

Pra Inc (2009:3), elucidates that the researchers in the study conducted in Ottawa found that areas where strategies were implemented before crime had been committed were kept secure from criminal activities. Furthermore, it was established that the crime anticipated by the CPTED analyst had happened and were even amplified in areas where the strategies had not been implemented. Likewise, when the residents of areas, where crime was currently a challenge, followed the analysts' recommendations, crime was reduced (Pra Inc.,2009:3).

Kruger, Landman and Liebermann (2006) maintain that crime prevention should not be an additional strategy but rather incorporated into fundamental city business and that all pertinent departments must acknowledge its purpose and strategies. According to Pra Inc. (2009:5), various municipal departments in Ottawa integrated CPTED into their objectives. For instance, the Building Inspections Departments introduced regulations to ensure that construction initiatives and existing buildings meet security requirements.

The Parks and Recreation Department assumed a novel safety strategy in the design and maintenance of parks and recreational areas, which included providing free self-defence lessons for women (Pra Inc. (2009:5). The Public Works Department improved the lighting of numerous town roads with energy-saving, pedestrian-friendly streetlights. The Housing Department encouraged, approved, and evaluated widespread CPTED-based additions to current amenities. The Planning and Development Department included security in its principal strategy and produced future CPTED strategies (Pra Inc., 2009).

This section elucidated international crime prevention strategies. Furthermore, this section described crime prevention strategies in BRICS and selected SADC countries, as well as explaining international best practice in Ottawa, Canada.

The next section will describe the crime prevention challenges facing South African communities and opportunities for SCs as well as legislation regarding SCs. Moreover, it will discuss the relationship between SCs and local councillors; voluntary participation in SCs versus unemployment; the impact of inducting SC members; SCs, civic organisations and political committees; and attitudes of community members towards SCs.

5.4 COMMUNITY CRIME PREVENTION CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR STREET COMMITTEES IN SOUTH AFRICA

South African communities face crime prevention challenges, some of the strategies for which were outlined earlier in this chapter. However, the need for community involvement in crime prevention indicates that there are opportunities for SCs to contribute to the fight against crime in South Africa. Chapter 4 of this thesis elaborated on the nature and role of SCs in crime prevention. Chapter 3 referred to the statutory framework of SCs. Chapter 3 noted that, whilst no mention is made of SCs in legislation, WCs and CDWs are some of the public participation structures that were introduced by government.

The section below describes the relationship between SCs and local councillors.

5.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STREET COMMITTEES AND LOCAL COUNCILLORS

The relationship between local councillors and SCs varies according to the area where they operate. According to Mngqibisa (2009:24), the SC is mandated by the community to ensure that the local councillor serves community members, regardless of whom they elected and their skin colour. Staeheli (1994) postulates that community participation in local governance requires metaphorical and literal space, where the emphasis is placed on the capabilities of community members to participate in shaping the policies that govern their daily lives.

According to Mngqibisa (2009:24), in a study that was conducted in Waterworks Township, Grabouw, the SCs offered the local councillor that kind of space when they requested to meet him to engage on issues. However, the local councillor of this community refused to meet with the community, even after four requests had been made. Mbuyiselo Gelem, a community member (17/06/08), in Mngqibisa (2009:23), explained that the local councillor informed the SCs that he was not accountable to them, as the whites and coloureds had voted for him.

This local councillor reflected an attitude imbued with negative implications, as it revealed that he disrespected the constitutional provision for communities to contribute to local governance (Mngqibisa, 2009:24). Khosa (2002) observes that the local councillor's attitude had adverse consequences for community participation, democracy and service delivery, which are the foundations for the development of the informal settlement residents in the councillor's ward.

In her study on SCs, Dosoudil (2018:14), points out that all the ward councillors that she interviewed agreed that SCs ought to be non-political. In addition, the ward councillors were of the view that SCs augment community participation and improve communication between them and the community. Presently, the councillors are unable to reach all the people, and SCs would be of great assistance (Dosoudil, 2018:15). Moreover, the ward councillors interviewed thought that all SCs should propel their own process individually (Dosoudil, 2018:14). However, according to Dosoudil (2018:15), SCs could assist the ward councillor in detecting issues that are particular to a street and allow the ward councillor to assist where possible.

5.6 VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION IN STREET COMMITTEES AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Several different reasons have been mentioned as the causative factors for the formation of SCs, in addition to crime prevention. In a study conducted by Mngqibisa (2009:20), one of the SC members stated the following:

The street committee came about because police shot and killed one gentleman, and then we had to formulate a committee that would open a case. The police commissioner said before they can ever help us with the case we must formulate/elect a committee, which I was not part of. Then I got elected in the street committee in 1999 because people from various towns from Transkei were fighting each other.

Mngqibisa (2009:7) explains that SC members serve the community, within which they function and reside, on a voluntary basis. Most members of SCs are unemployed but despite their financial quagmire, they continue to serve and participate in these structures.

5.7 THE IMPACT OF INDUCTING STREET COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Adato, Hoddinott and Haddad (2005) discuss the lack of capacity of SCs and recommend that members undergo an induction process to be trained to understand the functioning of local government and the role of SCs in governance. Mathekga and Buccus (2006) opine that SCs' ineffectiveness should not be used as an excuse for excluding them from decision-making processes. They should not be mere spectators when decisions are made that affect their communities.

Dosoudil (2018:19), mentions that members of SCs, once informed about local governance, could be trained as trainers by attending the workshops, with the intention of continual skills transfer within and between communities. Skills development in areas responsibilities, such as project management and small business development/entrepreneurship, will empower and increase the abilities of communities to help and develop themselves. Expertise and capacities of different streets can be shared, thereby ensuring community unity/social cohesion, and opening opportunities for people to work together as equals (Dosoudil, 2018:19).

Although SCs are formed in various parts of the county, it is not always the case that they undergo induction. Therefore, perhaps they perform their roles because they understand the issues of the day that directly affect them. However, the SCs established during the 2009 Chesterville pilot project were inducted, which meant that they learnt about numerous pertinent subjects.

5.7.1 Documentation and templates created for Chesterville pilot project

CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:17) confirms that an outside service provider was appointed to prepare documents to direct the implementation of the Chesterville SC pilot project. This was conducted jointly with CRA and Vukukhanye members. Some of the documents involved training resources and procedures. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:17), the following are documents were used:

1. Policies and procedure manuals
2. SC constitution
3. Committee training toolkit and templates
 - 3.1 General information
 - 3.2 Community meeting toolkit
 - 3.2.1 Facilitators' guide
 - 3.2.2 Meeting invitation and agenda
 - 3.2.3 Meeting checklist 1 (Preparation)
 - 3.2.4 Meeting checklist 2 (On the day)
 - 3.2.5 Appendices:
 - Planning the first street meeting
 - Invitations to the street meeting
 - Brochure
 - Stationery form
 - 3.3 SC meeting toolkit
 - 3.2.1 Facilitators guide
 - 3.2.2 Meeting invitation and agenda
 - 3.2.3 Introduction to crime prevention, NCPS and the community
 - 3.2.4 The history of SCs
 - 3.2.5 Current SCs
 - 3.2.6 Voting for SCs
 - 3.2.7 Appendices:

- Attendance register
 - Phone tree
 - SMS request contribution form
 - SC list
 - Voting forms
 - Stationery form
- 3.4 Power Point presentation (and flash cards) – for facilitators of community meetings
- 3.5 Roll-out templates
- 3.5.1 Roll out programme
 - 3.5.2 Street map
 - 3.5.3 DVD case example
- 3.6 Street committee induction
- 3.6.1 Invitation and agenda
 - 3.6.2 Certificates and thank you letters (presenters)
 - 3.6.3 Certificates (attendees)
 - 3.6.4 Attendance register (template)
 - 3.6.5 DVD of 2-day workshop
- 3.7 Record keeping and reporting
- 3.7.1 SC contact details spread sheet
 - 3.7.2 Incident report form
 - 3.7.3 Incident flow process
 - 3.7.4 Minutes template (example of planning meeting)
 - 3.7.5 Contract of employment (street committee facilitator)
 - 3.7.6 Equipment responsibility form

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:17).

According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:15), the initiation process for the SCs encompassed the following:

- Securing suitable venues and scheduling times
- Scheduling meetings with the various SCs
- Suggestion that the above be arranged and/or confirmed at the follow up community meeting
- Booking facilitators/trainers for the required training sessions

- Presenting the induction training

Topics included in induction training:

- Strategies for public safety
- Structure, duties, and tasks
- Reporting child exploitation and abuse
- Child exploitation
- Rape and forensics
- Public policing
- Case management
- Family violence
- Drugs/substance abuse
- Human trafficking
- Orphans and vulnerable children/youth
- HIV and AIDS
- The disabled

(CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:15).

It is evident that inducted SCs are exposed to numerous topics related to crime, thus augmenting their comprehension of issues. These committees are different from those that simply report criminal activities.

The relationship between SCs, civic organisations and political parties is explained in the following section.

5.8 STREET COMMITTEES, CIVIC ORGANISATIONS AND POLITICAL PARTIES

The nature of the relationship between SCs and three selected South African political parties, which are the SACP, ANC and IFP, was expounded in Chapter 4 of this study.

CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:4) explains that the historic success of the SCs in the community of Chesterville is attributable to the harmonious relationship that existed between Chesterville community leaders and Vukukhanye. Since June in 2008, Vukukhanye and the CRA had engaged the private sector, local government, and the

public to support the formation of formal SCs in Chesterville. The actual initiation of operative SCs commenced in June 2009, and 26 SCs were formed in 2010 (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:4). CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:4) maintains that the aim was to generate a prototype founded on values and procedures that could be adopted by other citizens once it had a proven track-record.

Ndwamato (2013:53) claims that there was a good relationship between the ANC councillor, Fawzia Peer (Ward 24), and CRA, the local civic organisation. This was evident when the CRA, which was implementing SCs in 2009, in Chesterville, consulted with the councillor before meeting with shack dwellers who were erecting shacks. The CRA, after consulting the local councillor, approached the shack dwellers and dissuaded them from erecting illegal structures (Ndwamato, 2013:53). Moreover, CRA/Vukukhanye (2010) maintains that the ANC councillor of Ward 24 had also collaborated with SCs in Fast Track West, an informal settlement to the west of Chesterville, to remove unlawful wires that draped over a small river where children played.

Vukukhanye (2009:7) points out that the formation of official, effective, and functioning SCs in Chesterville that represented the community, as well as preventing crime by circulating information and educating people, brought hope to Chesterville's citizens. Furthermore, the SCs were supervised by the CRA and had to function in line with regulatory bodies, such as CPFs and the police. The creation of a local magistrate's court was another indication of the SCs commitment to law and order (Vukukhanye, 2009:7).

Heller and Ntlokonkulu (2001) note that civil leaders lost their status as the leaders of political mobilisation after 1994. Nonetheless, they have secured a substantial presence and legitimacy on the streets. According to Dosoudil (2018:9), the South African National Civic Organisation (SANCO) claims to represent the common people and the broader population in disadvantaged and destitute communities.

5.9 ATTITUDES OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS TOWARDS STREET COMMITTEES

Mngqibisa (2009:50) maintains that in a study that was conducted in Waterworks Township, Grabouw, there were conflicting views about the SCs in terms of whether they were doing their work properly, as required by the community. Most participants felt that the SCs were trying their utmost best but had been disappointed by local government officials.

Dosoudil (2018:3) mentions that SCs generate a constructive change by broadening participatory democracy in the new South Africa. Dosoudil (2018:5), explains that there is a need to enhance democracy by decentralising power to the people so that they can make decisions that touch their daily live.

According to Pityana (2010:5), the involvement of civil society is a prerequisite for sound governance. Thus, a critical role of SCs is to assist CDWs, WCs and ward councillors, as well as monitoring and evaluating the performance of local government. SCs have the capacity to widen participation in all legislated structures and mechanism (Dosoudil, 2018:5).

Suttner (2003) explains that before the struggle against apartheid was strengthened, SCs were not formal structures and were formed impulsively as a survival mechanism in the townships in an endeavour to make the most of opportunities for improving daily life. According to Hlongwane (2010), SCs addressed community issues such as family violence, disobedient children, alcohol abuse and anti-social behaviour, including loud music. SC members who were literate assisted those who were illiterate, by interpreting documents, such as hire purchase agreements and accounts.

Hlongwane (2010) holds that the 1994 elections raised expectations that have not been realised. Therefore, SCs are as essential as they were during the struggle era. However, livelihood issues still exist, and constructive engagement is a better solution than protesting. One of the biggest challenges currently, is that owing to the urgency of livelihood matters, communities disregard their more significant roles in defining developmental projects. According to Nzimande (2008), during the apartheid years, SCs demonstrated that they were tools of mass mobilisation and that people at the public level have the capacity to recognise and invent solutions to their problems.

Mngqibisa (2009:21) emphasises that the SCs in the study conducted in Waterworks represented residents' concerns to the municipality and acted as a catalyst for rallying protests against the municipality and the ward councillor. Moreover, SCs organised numerous marches to protest about poor service delivery. According to Mngqibisa (2009:21), the SCs facilitated the residents' decision-making under harsh conditions. However, some participants in the study were apathetic towards SCs and mentioned that they did not attend SC elections or become involved in their issues (Ibid).

5.10 SUMMARY

This chapter comprised two sections: the first section focussed on international crime prevention strategies; crime prevention strategies in BRICS and SADC countries; and international best practice. The second section of this chapter explained crime prevention challenges facing the community and opportunities for SCs in SA. In addition, it discussed the relationship between SCs and local councillors; voluntary participation in SCs and the country's unemployment rate; the impact of inducting SC members; SCs and civic organisations; and the attitudes of community members towards SCs. The following chapter elucidates the theoretical framework for the study.

CHAPTER SIX

THEORETICAL MODELS FOR THE CONTEXTUALISATION OF THIS STUDY

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter illuminated on the international and national crime prevention strategies. This chapter will expound on the theoretical framework of this study. The choice of a theoretical framework depends on its suitability, ease of application and descriptive supremacy. According to Swanson (2013:122), “the theoretical framework is the framework that can hold or support a theory of a research study”. The theoretical framework supports researchers to validate their arguments and rationalise the findings and recommendations (Kivunja, 2018:48). The theoretical framework presents and describes the theory that explains why the research problem under investigation exists. In this study, public policy-making and elite theory were employed to explain the phenomena and support the arguments. The first section of this theoretical framework defines public policy.

6.2 WHAT IS PUBLIC POLICY

Public policy is a government action plan formulated to achieve set goals (Mustafa et al., 2021). According to Anyebe (2018), public policy is developed and implemented by government agencies, officials, and non-state actors. Roux (2002:425) posits that public policy refers to a planned course of action developed by the government or guidelines to follow to attain goals and objectives and is subject to the effects of ecological change and influence. Public policy is an authoritative statement about what the government chooses to do or not to do (Roux, 2002) and incorporates or implies the authoritative allocation of values for society. Wissink and Ballard (2018:81) posit that the word policy emanates from the term *politia* that signifies a form of government or a social organisation that is given an official right to apply norms in a society and permits the authority to resolve how it wants to impose the execution of and compliance with such policies. Cloete and Wissink (2005:3) define a policy as “a statement of intent.” According to Anderson (2006:6), policy characterises the conduct of an actor or actors, for example an official, a legislative agency or a government, in an area of action.

De Coning and Wissink (2018:4) posit that policy management involves the institutional and governance provisions of the state and civil society that have a deep effect on how policies are formulated, implemented, and appraised (or not). Democratic countries such as South Africa accentuate the governance relationship between the state and civil society as a critical feature for success during this process. South Africa is regarded as a developmental state (De Coning & Wissink, 2018). When the government believes it understands development, it is essential that it prioritises critical development issues and acts and intervenes in those priorities (De Coning & Wissink, 2018:4). In a developmental state, the type and status of the government and civil society in public policy are as significant as the government's routine responsibilities. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), community-based organisations (CBOs) and other social partners such as unions and the private sector all have specific opportunities and tasks to perform in developing and executing public policy (De Coning & Wissink, 2018).

De Coning and Wissink (2018) posit that policy stipulates the elementary principles to be followed to achieve specific goals. Policy interprets societal values and is frequently embodied in the management of relevant projects and programmes. The policy process contains several phases, namely initiation, design, analysis, formulation, dialogue and advocacy, implementation, and evaluation (De Coning & Wissink, 2018; Cloete & Wissink, 2005). Policy analysis is described as the methodical analysis of the dimensions and variables that influence public policy and is a crucial element of policy management.

The intention of policy analysis has historically been to offer policy makers with data that could be used to exercise rational decision-making in finding solutions to policy details (De Coning & Wissink, 2018). Consequently, policy analysis has an essential, practical method that originates from the applied social sciences. Policy analysis methodology has changed remarkably historically (De Coning & Wissink, 2018) and the development thereof is closely linked to various societal changes, while policy management denotes a deliberate method of addressing policy matters and processes from start to finish. A policy is frequently expressed as a formal policy statement (De Coning & Wissink (2018). The ensuing section describes policy instruments.

Policy instruments are diverse approaches or tools to advance perceived policy matters or problems in society (De Coning & Wissink, 2018). Certain policy tools are more authoritative than others and are more fitting in specific contexts (De Coning & Wissink, 2018). In a democratic setting, it is advisable to first attempt persuasion and the inducement of voluntary citizen acceptance and compliance with new policy changes (the carrot approach) rather than implementing new rules of behaviour with sanctions attached to perceptions of non-compliance (the stick approach). A balanced approach is normally the most effective (De Coning & Wissink, 2018).

Overall, Cloete and De Coning (2018:43) note that public policy is a social science subject that resembles numerous others. It carries political, social, cultural, economic, administrative and other sectoral dimensions and implications. Significant contributors to policy change are interest groups and the pressure that they apply or can apply on policy makers to change policies in their favour. Worth noting, however, is that diverse interest groups often strive to affect policy in a democratic policy system (Cloete & De Coning, 2018). The ensuing section presents a discussion of public policymaking, management, and analysis intricacies.

6.3 PUBLIC POLICYMAKING, MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS INTRICACIES

The public policy-making process and the environment have varied models that explain these phenomena. Policies or plans of action approved by an individual or social group using an official government process can also become enforceable norms referred to as law (Wissink & Ballard, 2018:81). Law is proclaimed by legislature through a public governmental process. A policy product could be illegal and unethical, but policymakers cannot hide behind the law to validate immoral policy decisions. The policy-making stage model is explained in the ensuing section.

6.3.1 The stage model

The stage model of policymaking advanced by Wissink (1990:32) is a South African contribution to process models (Cloete & De Coning, 2018:48). This model perceives the policy-making process as entailing often present but ignored activities in modern models. These activities comprise initiation or becoming aware of a public problem through civic, political or stakeholder action and setting the agenda or introducing the issues on the agenda and selecting priorities. This entails recognising the problem and

the main stakeholders, considering the choices and classifying the possible actions to resolve the problem. One of the actions is selected and the decision is made public. Special provision is made for allocating resources as part of the implementation, which involves designing and initiating a programme of action. According to Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991:33) cited in Cloete & de Coning (2018:49), the model also allows for adjudication, which comprises the policy enforcement using administrative and legal means before effect assessment and feedback. The ensuing section presents a discussion of the regulatory policy framework in South Africa.

6.3.2 Policy regulatory framework in South Africa

According to Wissink and Ballard (2018:96), legislation and official policies in the public sector and within organisations usually regulate the content and implementation of ethical behaviour in governmental organisations and their settings. In South Africa, the key regulatory frameworks comprise the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996; the Prevention and Combating of Corrupt Activities Act 12 of 2004; the Promotion of Administrative Justice Act 3 of 2000 and the Protected Disclosure Act 26 of 2000. These acts are applicable to all organisations in the public and private sectors and encourage ethical behaviour, honesty and moral governance (Wissink & Ballard, 2018:96).

6.3.3 Public policymaking in South Africa

Swilling (1992:7) cited in Cloete (2018:138) avers that policy in South Africa is about power and that policy production is similarly about constructing the agenda for social and political life. Cloete (2018:159) posits that when devising new or changing current policies, choosing proper goals and objectives is important. A national or provincial government or local authority typically articulates its transformative vision as a framework to monitor its activities. The vision states the anticipated changes to the status quo that the government would like to bring about over time to best advance its society or community. Decision-making has a specific implication for public policymaking, as public policymaking encompasses diverse decisions and involves diverse stakeholders. The process of public policymaking involves choosing the most appropriate course of action from among the alternatives. The value of the decision making will augment the quality of the policy-making process, which will eventually also contribute to the efficacy thereof (Cloete, 2018:189).

The implementation of policy encompasses the concrete delivery and action response to policy intent. In South Africa, improving public policy implementation has become a major emphasis and the implementation capacities of government in partnerships to deliver services have become critically significant (de Coning, Cloete & Burger, 2018:225).

According to Anyebe (2018:9), numerous theories, models and approaches for analysing policymaking have been developed by political and social scientists. Public administrators have often been more inclined to theorise about public policymaking than study policy and the policymaking process (Anyebe, 2018:9). There is a need for theories to direct the study of public policy, to facilitate communication and to offer relevant explanations for policy action. Theories are useful to the extent that they guide our attention to significant political phenomena, help to clarify and organise our thinking and propose explanations for political activities such as formulating public policies.

According to Anyebe (2018:9), the theoretical approaches comprise elite theory, group theory, political systems theory and institutionalism, policy output analysis, incremental theory and rational-choice theory, which mainly relate to public policymaking as a process. In view of the failure of municipalities, councillors and officials to implement community recommendations (SCs in this instance), this study adopted the elite theory.

6.4 ELITE THEORY

According to Anyebe (2018), the elite model posits that, contrary to the belief that pluralism has a built-in procedure for ensuring equity in the share of power and influence in society, to a large extent public policy is the reflection of the ruling elite's interest. According to Anyebe (2018:9), Gaetano Mosca, an Italian sociologist, posited in his work titled "The Ruling Class" that, historically, oligarchy was the only system of government that had ever existed. They contend that in all societies, from societies that are inadequately developed and have hardly accomplished the dawn of development to the most progressive and influential societies, there are two classes of people, a ruling class and a class that is ruled (Mosca, 1939; Mariotti, 2020). The elite class, always a small minority numerically, executes all political functions,

monopolises power and enjoys the rewards that power brings, while the majority, superior numerically, is directed and controlled by the small minority elite class. Mosca (1939) also believed that apart from the fact that the minority is usually comprised of superior individuals, the fact that they are a minority benefits them to be more organised and also noted that the larger the political community, the smaller the proportion of the minority and the more difficult for the majority to organise a response against the minority (Mosca, 1939 cited in Anyebe, 2018:9).

Mosca also said that in the 'circulation of elites', once the ruling class loses its ability to command and exercise political control and those outside the ruling class develop an ability to lead and wield political control, they will overthrow the old class and take over. Mosca (1939) believed so strongly in the status role of the middle class in a political system that he labelled it the "sub-elite". Mosca (1939) nonetheless contends that the stability of any political creature hinges upon the level of ethics, acumen and activity that this second stratum has accomplished and that the policies formulated by the ruling class are made in the interests of the elite class but contained in ethical and legal clothing. He believed more in ethical unity than physical force (Anyebe, 2018:9). According to Mariotti (2020:1), "in every society, the majority of the existent resources economical, intellectual, and cultural – are concentrated in the hands of a small group of individuals which use them to exercise power over the rest of the population".

From an elite theory paradigm, public policy can be viewed as reproducing the values and choices of a ruling elite (Mosca,1939; Mustafa, 2021). The quintessential elite theory argument is that public policy is not governed by the demands and actions of the people or the masses but rather by ruling elite whose preferences are carried into outcome by political officials and agencies. In other words, according to this theory, the elite simply believe that they alone can regulate the policies to promote the welfare of the masses and execute them. Consequently, policies flow downward to the masses from the elite. The policies made by the elites reproduce elite values and favour the status quo over fundamental changes (Anyebe, 2018:10). Dye and Zeigler's (1990) synopsis of elite theory is presented in the points listed hereunder.

Society is divided into the minority who have authority and the majority who do not have authority. Societal values are allocated by the minority; public policy is not decided by the masses.

The few who rule are not characteristic of the masses who are governed. The elites are drawn unevenly from society's upper socio-economic layers.

The mobility of non-elites to elite positions must be slow and continuous to uphold stability and evade revolt. Only non-elites who have acknowledged the basic elite accord can be accepted into governing circles.

Elites share an agreement about the elementary values of the social system and the conservation of the system.

Public policy does not address the demands of the masses but rather the dominant values of the elite. Changes in public policy will be incremental rather than radical. Incremental changes allow responses to events that threaten a social system with the least modification or displacement of the system.

Vigorous elites are subject to comparatively little direct influence from the indifferent masses. Elites impact the masses more than the masses impact the elites (Dye & Zeigler, 1990).

The foregoing assumptions presume that if the government is devoted to serving the interest of the masses it must do something about limiting the extremes of the elite. This could occur through implementing a participatory approach to policymaking and involving all crucial stakeholders, thus subduing the unwarranted manipulation of the elite. On accomplishment of this feat, the societal structure would move away from the hour-glass shape to a more horizontal or flatter shape. However, for this objective to be attained, the government itself must first get rid of elite manipulation in terms of selections and appointments to political positions. The core of this model is that public policy is governed by the ruling elite and effected by public officials and agencies. Dye (1981) cited in Anyebe (2018:10) summarises the implication of this theory as demonstrating that public policy replicates elite values, attends to elite objectives and is a consequence of the elite. The consequence of this supposition is that the general community or the masses are indifferent and ill-informed and do not regulate or effect policy through their demands or actions.

In this study, the communities of Clermont and Chesterville were calling for the resurrection of the SCs in which they believe and that:

If SCs were to be legislated, they would make a significant difference to the crime in the community.

SCs assist in fighting crime

SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime

SCs are needed to keep crime levels down in the community

Crime levels drop where there are SCs

We request that the government becomes involved in ensuring that street committees are legislated.

We hope that the government will one day acknowledge the role performed by street committees.

In conclusion, politicians, and other officials, despite the relevant legislation and despite their powers to pronounce on SCs through by-laws and other legal avenues, SCs remain unlegislated. Dye (1981) cited in Anyebe (2018:10) articulates the alienation of the masses through public policies, when they observed that public policy replicates elite values, attends to elite objectives and is a consequence of the elite. The consequence of this supposition is that the general community or the masses are indifferent and ill-informed and do not regulate or effect policy through their demands or actions.

6.5 SUMMARY

The chapter provided a theoretical framework for the study. It defined public policy, public policy-making, management and analysis intricacies and elite theory. The following chapter elucidates the research methodology.

CHAPTER SEVEN

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The study's key objective was to investigate the role of SCs in crime prevention in selected townships in the EMA of KZN. The research methodology of the study is elucidated in this chapter. A research methodology chapter is critical because can be viewed as a plan or road map that the researcher uses in discovering new information. The chapter presents the following sections: the research process; the aims of research; research types; philosophical theoretical and methodological foundations of research; the research design; research strategies; data collection; the research sample; analysing of data; and data quality control. The following section gives an overview of the research process.

7.2 AN OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Creswell (2012:3) defines research as a process of gathering data to enhance comprehension of a subject. Research involves three steps:

- (a) Posing a question
- (b) Gathering information to respond to the question
- (c) Providing a response to the question (Creswell, 2012:3).

A study involves an exploration for knowledge and a methodical quest for relevant data on a specific topic. A study is a sculpture of technical enquiry (Kothari, 2004:1). According to Bhattacharjee (2012:3), the objective of scientific research is to determine laws and postulate theories that can elucidate natural or social phenomena. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:2), "research is a systematic process of collecting, analysing and interpreting information in order to increase our understanding of a phenomenon about which we are interested or concerned".

John W. Best, as cited in Pandey and Pandey (2015:8), defines research as the formal, methodical, and exhaustive process of transmitting the technical technique of analysis. It comprises an organised body of enquiry, typically resulting in a reasonably official record of actions and a statement of outcomes.

In the section below, the aims of the research are expounded.

7.3 AIMS OF RESEARCH

Sekaran and Bougie (2016:19) describe the distinguishing features of a study: purposiveness; thoroughness; testability; replicability; precision and confidence; objectivity; generalisability; and frugality. The main aim of this study is to explore the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont. The following section briefly describes these features:

7.3.1 Purposiveness

The research has a particular aim or purpose. It has a purposeful focus.

7.3.2 Thoroughness

Thoroughness implies carefulness, meticulousness, and precision in the research study.

7.3.3 Testability

Testability is a characteristic that is applicable to the hypothesis of a study. It is a trait of scientific research.

7.3.4 Replicability

Confidence in the findings of a study depends on whether they can be replicated in another study. In other words, credence and faith in a study's findings are ensured if similar findings emanate from a study conducted by others applying similar methods. Replicability is one of the features of scientific research.

7.3.5 Exactness and assurance

Exactness implies that the research is conducted meticulously and that the findings are accurately reported and correctly interpreted.

Assurance refers to the likelihood that researchers' assessments are accurate, although they might declare with confidence that 95% of the time their outcomes have a 5% probability of being incorrect.

7.3.6 Objectivity

Inferences made after the interpretation of the results of the data analysis must be objective (impartial). In other words, they must be based on the facts and unbiased, as opposed to being influenced by the researcher's personal emotions or opinions.

7.3.7 Generalisability

Generalisability refers to making the findings of a specific study more general and widely applicable. The findings of a study of a particular research population are made applicable to a wider population of the same type.

7.3.8 Parsimony

Simplicity in elucidating theories is favoured over complex statements. Parsimony can insure comprehension of the significant aspects of a theory. (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:22).

According to Pandey and Pandey (2015:9), the aim of research is to determine responses to queries using technical measures. A key driver of a study is to discover the truth that has not been revealed thus far.

Every study has its specific motivation; however, study aims fall into several extensive groups:

- (a) To access understanding and new knowledge about a phenomenon (studies with this aim are termed “exploratory” research studies).
- (b) To describe the attributes of a specific phenomenon or population in detail (studies with this aim are termed “descriptive research studies).
- (c) To investigate the underlying cause of a phenomenon (studies with this aim are known as diagnostic research studies).
- (d) To test the prediction of results of a study, including relationships between variables (such studies are known as hypothesis-testing research studies) (Kothari, 2004:2).

7.4 RESEARCH TYPES

Social science is the study of society and the relationships between members of society. The study that is the focus of this thesis falls under the category of social science. However, in addition to social science, as Bhattacharjee (2012:2) points out, research can involve other types. Basic science is the study of the basic processes of life and includes biology, anatomy, and physiology, for example. Applied science applies scientific knowledge in a practical setting and is the type of research involved in engineering and medicine (Bhattacharjee, 2012:2).

The section below expounds the philosophical, theoretical, and methodological foundations of research.

7.5 PHILOSOPHICAL, THEORETICAL AND METHODOLOGICAL FOUNDATIONS OF RESEARCH

Babbie (2008:12) asserts that logic and observation are the two pillars of research. It is essential for the systematic comprehension of a phenomenon to (1) make sense of and (2) relate to the observed phenomenon. Together these foundations are vital to research and relate to three main facets of the overall research enterprise: theory, data collection and data analysis. Data gathering and data analysis are deliberated later in this chapter.

7.5.1 Defining a paradigm

A paradigm is one of the frames of reference used to organise the research. It shapes understanding of a phenomenon (Babbie: 2008:34). Bhattacharjee (2012:17) refers to paradigms as intellectual representations or reference frames utilised in systematising our cognition and explanations. Furthermore, the way the research is conducted is shaped by a paradigm, which is a belief system or mental model.

According to Bhattacharjee (2012:17), the word “paradigm” was made popular by Thomas Kuhn (1962) in his book “The Structure of Scientific Revolutions”, where he scrutinised the history of the natural sciences to recognise the designs that framed their development. According to Rubin and Babbie (2011:17), in the process of gaining knowledge, nobody ever starts with an entirely clean slate. Paradigms are

philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality that frame research, systematise our view of a phenomenon, shape our observations and affect the way it is explained

The positivist paradigm supports the notion that a phenomenon can be observed through an empirical investigation and explained logically and objectively. The social constructivist paradigm maintains that the context of the research determines the results and general laws cannot be applied. Postmodernism maintains there is no objective meaning to life, and each individual subjectively interprets it (Rubin & Babbie, 2011:17).

Sliffe and Williams (1995), as cited in Creswell (2009:5), argue that despite paradigms remaining mostly hidden, they have an impact on research and need to be identified. Creswell refers to paradigms as worldviews, which represent an overall positioning of the universe and methods of research (Creswell, 2009:6). The research paradigm determines whether qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods are used in a study. Creswell (2014:6) explains that the researcher's choice of paradigm is influenced by the discipline of the study as well as the researcher's predisposition and skills.

This study applied an advocacy/participative/transformative paradigm, as it is equally suitable for qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods research. The advocacy/participatory paradigm, which entails collecting qualitative and quantitative data, determines research involving politics and the notion of reform. Therefore, the study involved an action programme for change in the lives of the respondents. The transformative paradigm addresses social injustice and inequality, which are features of South African society. Moreover, this paradigm entails mixed methods research and determines the collection of data related to these features..

7.5.2 Creswell's four worldviews

The following section explains the following worldviews: post positivism, constructivism, the transformative worldview, the advocacy/participatory worldview, and pragmatism. Table 6.1 below illustrates post positivism, constructivism, the transformative worldview, and pragmatism. The advocacy or participatory worldview is explained in the paragraphs that follow the table. The researcher adopted both the transformative and the advocacy/participatory paradigms. The similarity and difference between them are explained in the previous paragraph.

Table 7.1: Worldviews

Postpositivism	Constructivism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Determination• Reductionism• Empirical observation and measurement• Theory verification	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Understanding• Multiple participation meanings• Social and historical construction• Theory generation
Transformative worldview	Pragmatism
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Political• Power and justice oriented• Collaborative• Change-oriented	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Consequence of actions• Problem-centred• Pluralistic• Real-world practice oriented

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2014:6)

7.5.2.1 The postpositivist worldview

Traditional research has been represented by a postpositivist paradigm, which is more suited to quantitative research methods, as opposed to qualitative ones. This worldview, which is a reformation of positivism, can involve a technical process of doing empirical scientific research (Creswell, 2009:6). Phillips and Burbules (2000), as cited in Creswell (2009:7), explain that postpositivism accepts that objective reality exists as emphasised by positivism, but the researcher's subjective views might influence perceptions of reality. This means that the researcher needs to carefully eliminate bias

According to Smith (2000) as cited by Creswell (2009:7), the postpositivist tradition comes from 19th-century writers, such as Comte, Durkheim, Newton and Locke. Postpositivists embrace a deterministic philosophy whereby causes beyond the control of the researcher affect outcomes. The problems studied by postpositivists therefore mirror the necessity to recognise and evaluate these causes. It is also reductionist since the aim is to decrease a complex phenomenon into smaller components, such as the variables of hypotheses and research questions (Creswell, 2009:7).

Information through a postpositivist lens is based on cautious reflection and dimensions of impartial reality. Accordingly, studying the behavior of individuals and developing numeric measures of this are vital for a postpositivist. The results of a study of a phenomenon need to be substantiated for the phenomenon to be understood. Scientifically, a postpositivist study starts with a model that describes the phenomenon; analyses and interprets the information gathered about it; and then conducts an assessment of the validity of the findings in terms of the model (Creswell, 2009:7).

According to Phillips and Burbules (2000), as cited in Creswell (2009:7), the following are key expectations of postpositivism:

- Information is hypothetical (also antifoundational) – complete validity does not exist. Therefore, the interpretation of the results of a study may be flawed and imperfect. This is the motive for researchers mentioning that they do not verify a hypothesis; as an alternative, they determine that there is nonsuccess for discarding the hypothesis.
- Study is the procedure of selecting results of data analysis that are significant and leaving out those that are not. Numerous quantitative studies entail assessing the significance of data.
- Information is gathered by means of evidence gathered directly from participants or from observations documented by the investigator.
- A study strives to develop pertinent, factual reports, which assist in answering the research questions. In quantitative research, investigators find connections between variables to answer the research questions and evaluate hypotheses.
- Objectivity is a vital characteristic of a valid study; it is essential for researchers to scrutinise approaches and inferences for possible bias. For example, the level of objective reasoning and consistency is significant in a quantitative study (Creswell, 2009:7).

7.5.2.2 The social constructivist worldview

Creswell (2009:8) explains that social constructivism would require the use of qualitative research methods. This worldview originated from Mannheim, a German sociologist of the first half of the 20th century, from the efforts of Berger and Luckmann's (1967) "The Social Construction of Reality" and Lincoln and Guba's (1985) "Naturalistic Inquiry". According to Creswell (2009:8), other works based on this worldview include those of Lincoln and Guba (2000), Schwandt (2007), Neuman (2000) and Crotty (1998). Social constructivists embrace the expectation that individuals pursue comprehension of the world in which they live and work.

The objective of a study determined by a social constructivist paradigm is to depend fully on the respondents' opinions of the phenomenon being researched. The research questions should enable the respondent to formulate their opinions during interviews or focus group discussions, for example. Open-ended questions are suitable since the researcher needs to make sure that the respondents' perceptions are fully explained in their complexity, although the researcher will have to sort the data out into meaningful units during the analysis. Frequently the respondents' personal views are informally gathered in context, as they are often constructed through social interaction with others. Moreover, they are formed as a result of social constructs that determine and operate in people's lives (Creswell, 2009:8).

According to Creswell (2009:8), the researcher should determine to understand and interpret the connotations people attach to their lives. Instead of beginning with a model describing the phenomenon (as in postpositivism), researchers induce a model as a result of the investigation. Crotty (1998), as cited in Creswell (2009:8), identifies numerous expectations:

- (a) Individuals formulate meanings when interacting with their world. Qualitative research entails using open-ended questions to facilitate the sharing of participants' ideas.
- (b) People interact with their world and understand it according to historical and communal viewpoints. Consequently, qualitative research entails understanding the participants' situation through personally gathering data in their real-life setting. Moreover, the participants' understanding of the

phenomenon under study might be influenced by the researcher's personal perspective and background, which are evident during the research interaction and in the nature of the questions formulated by the researcher.

- (c) An individual creates meaning during interaction and communication with others. Thus, the researcher makes sense of a phenomenon inductively from the information gathered on the ground.

(Creswell,2009:8).

7.5.2.3 Transformative/advocacy/participatory worldview

Creswell (2009:9) mentions that many researchers embrace the expectations of the advocacy/participatory worldview. This worldview is similar to the transformative paradigm in that it involves politics and the notion of reform. The transformative paradigm entails notions of social injustice and inequality. Creswell (2009:9) explains that in the 1980s and 1990s, researchers felt that postpositivist assumptions involved operational rules and views that were not appropriate to ostracised groups of people and matters of social justice, which needed to be addressed. Although it can be a basis for quantitative study too, this worldview is characteristically involves qualitative research.

According to Creswell (2009:9), advocacy/participatory (or emancipatory) paradigms appeared in the works of Marx, Adorno, Marcuse, Habermas, and Freire (Neuman, 2000). In addition, Fay (1987), Heron and Reason (1997) as well as Kemrnis and Wilkinson (1998) support this worldview (Creswell, 2009:9). Researchers who adopt these paradigms feel that other positions do not promote an action programme to assist disadvantaged and marginalised individuals. In particular the advocacy/participatory worldview is interwoven with politics and a political agenda.

The study that is the focus of this thesis investigated an action program aimed at transforming people's lives and their communities. Furthermore, subjects, such as empowerment, injustice, inequality, domination, alienation and marginalisation, needed to be tackled (Creswell, 2009:9). In such a study, the researcher views one of these subjects as central to the research. Moreover, the researcher ensures that the participants are not additionally marginalised as a consequence of the investigation. Consequently, they are allowed to contribute to designing questions; collecting and

analysing data collection; and interpreting the findings. Thus, the study represents the participants' voices and ensures their participation in a study of their perceptions, which might lead to a transformation of their lives.

Creswell (2014:12) upholds that the transformative worldview informs research for improving society in terms of establishing social justice and equality. Therefore, it concerns allowing disadvantaged participants to have a say about their desires for a transformed society (Creswell, 2014:12). The study adopted a transformative paradigm in investigating people on the ground who are obligated by the Constitution to partake in local governance and service delivery.

Kemmis and Wilkinson (1998), as cited in Creswell (2009:10), provide a synopsis of characteristics of the transformative/advocacy/participatory paradigms:

- Participatory action is focussed on delivering transformation in practice. Consequently, a researcher advances an action agenda for change that might occur as a result of the research study.
- These paradigms are concerned with the liberation of individuals from restrictions found, for example, in the media, in language, in work procedures and in the relationships of power in educational situations. Transformative/advocacy/participatory studies frequently start with a significant social challenge such as empowerment.
- They are liberatory paradigms since they concern the liberation of people from injustice that limits their development and self-esteem. In addition, these paradigms generate political discussions about transformation.
- These paradigms determine practical and collaborative research. Studies are conducted with the direct and active participation of the research subjects and not only on them.

(Creswell, 2009:10).

7.5.2.4 The Pragmatic Worldview

Creswell (2009:10) describes the pragmatic worldview (pragmatism) as emanating from the work of Peirce, James, Mead and Dewey. Current authors comprise Rorty (1990), Murphy (1990), Patton (1990) and Cherryholmes (1992) (Creswell,200:10). This paradigm, which manifests itself in numerous research methods, is concerned with actions that result from theory, rather than focussing on predetermined theoretical models (as in postpositivism) (Creswell, 2009:10).

According to Patton (1990), as cited in Creswell (2009:10), research based on this paradigm is focussed on the practical application of theory in answering research questions. Researchers focus on the research questions and practical ways to solve answer them. According to Creswell (2009:10), this paradigm entails the use of mixed methods in research studies. According to Creswell (2009:10), Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), Morgan (2007) as well as Patton (1990) maintain that this paradigm implies the use of as many methods deemed appropriate to solve the research problem.

According to Cherryholmes (1992), and Morgan (2007) as cited by Creswell (2009:10), pragmatism offers a practical foundation for research:

- Pragmatism is not dedicated to any one particular way to interpret the world or do research, as there is more than one reality. It leads to mixed methods research, which means that quantitative and qualitative data inform the research findings.
- Researchers are free to choose the methods and techniques to be used in their studies with a view to practical actions.
- Researchers base their methods on envisioned practical results. They determine the mix of quantitative and qualitative methods depending on the desired outcome.
- Researchers acknowledge that studies take place in various social, historical, and political settings. In other words, like postmodernism, the pragmatic paradigm admits that there is no objective meaning to life. Life has a subjective

meaning that depends on the individual. This means that life and research could be viewed in terms of social justice and political concerns.

- Cherryholmes (1992), as cited in Creswell (2009:11), explains that pragmatism involves a view of both a universe that exists outside the human mind as well as one that exists within the mind. However, it emphasises that research should focus on action as a result of a study, as opposed to asking questions about reality and the laws of nature.
- Therefore, pragmatism welcomes numerous approaches; diverse worldviews; varied assumptions; and diverse data collection and analysis methods.

7.6 RESEARCH DESIGN USED IN THIS STUDY

This study employed a mixed methods research design, which involves the use of the strengths from both qualitative and quantitative techniques. A research design can also be referred to as a research method. The use of a mixed methods approach ensured methodological triangulation because different methods of gathering data were used, which led to a balanced explanation of the phenomenon under study. Triangulated mixed methods design involves the researcher in collecting quantitative and qualitative data purposefully to ensure a thorough scrutiny of the study problem. Interpretation of the findings of the analysis of both types of data contributes to a full understanding of the phenomenon under study.

Hakim (2000:1), as cited in Almalki (2016:290), observes that a research design is determined by the research goals in terms of the restraints of location, time, money, and the accessibility of the researcher. Bhattacharjee (2012:35) explains research design as an all-inclusive strategy for information gathering in an empirical research project. It is an outline for experimental study designed to answer particular study questions or testing definite hypotheses and must stipulate a minimum of three procedures: (1) the data collection process, (2) the instrument development process, and (3) the sampling process.

According to Bhattacharjee (2012:35), the excellence of investigation strategies can be defined in terms of four crucial design qualities: internal validity, external validity, construct validity and statistical conclusion validity. Walliman (2011:13) describes

research design as responsible for providing an outline for the gathering and analysis of data and then demonstrating which study approaches are appropriate.

This section of the research explains three research approaches: (a) qualitative, (b) quantitative, and (c) mixed methods (Creswell,2013:32). Creswell (2013:32) mentions that most frequently the contrast between qualitative and quantitative studies is that the former entails the use of words, and the latter involves numbers. Moreover, qualitative data is often obtained through open-ended questions and quantitative data through closed-ended questions. Newman and Benz (1998), as cited in Creswell (2013:32), explain that qualitative and quantitative methods must not be regarded as distinctly separate. Instead, they should be considered diverse ends on a continuum. A study may be inclined to involve qualitative data more than quantitative data, or vice versa. Mixed methods is a design in its own right but as a research approach belongs in the middle of this continuum since it includes both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The following section further explains the three research approaches:

7.6.1 Qualitative research approach

Creswell (2013:32) describes qualitative research as an approach that could be followed in investigating and comprehending a social problem experienced by individuals or groups. This approach could involve developing questions to gather data in the participants' natural setting; analysing a large amount of data in terms of general themes; interpreting the findings; and forming conclusions.

Dawson (2002:14) elucidates that qualitative research investigates the attitudes, behaviour and experiences of research participants, using methods, such as interviews, focus group discussions and observation. According to Kothari (2004:5), the researcher's function is to record participants' words, in the case of interviews and discussions, or his/her impression of their behaviour, in the case of observation.

Sekaran and Bougie (2016:332) describe qualitative data as information in the form of words. Thus, notes and transcriptions of audio/video recordings of interviews/focus group discussions, notes made during observations; transcribed accounts on the

Internet and in news articles, and so forth, are some examples of qualitative data (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:332).

After data analysis, a qualitative study is governed by careful description of the meaning of the words or behaviour of the participants in terms of themes and interrelated subthemes (Walliman, 2011:73).

7.6.2 Quantitative research approach

The quantitative research approach can involve testing a hypothesis by means of collecting numeric data in the form of variables to determine whether there is empirical evidence supporting it. These variables and their relationship to one another are measured and analysed through statistical procedures. According to Walliman (2011:72), quantitative data can be measured because they include a system of scales, typically articulated in statistics. According to Dawson (2002:15), quantitative research produces statistics using large-scale survey research, questionnaires, or structured interviews with closed-ended questions, which can reach many people in a short period.

7.6.3 Mixed methods approach

Creswell (2013:32) maintains that the mixed methods approach comprises gathering quantitative and qualitative data, as well as analysing each type of data by means of separate strategies. The findings can then be collated and interpreted. The advantage of this approach is that the grouping of qualitative and quantitative approaches offers a comprehensive understanding of a phenomenon than either one on its own could do. Moreover, it ensures methodological triangulation, which is the use of different methods to arrive at a balanced understanding of a phenomenon.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), as cited in by Creswell (2012:535), a mixed methods research approach can be used in a solitary investigation or a sequence of investigations addressing a research problem. Mixed methods research not only entails gathering two separate strands of research, but also consists of integrating the strands. Moreover, the mixed methods approach ensures that the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative data are included in the research study (Creswell, 2012:535).

According to Creswell (2012:535), quantitative data is in the form of numbers, which is useful in understanding trends/tendencies in a large population. However, qualitative data is in the form of words, which is useful in understanding a phenomenon from the perspective of a relatively small group of individuals. According to Miles and Huberman (1994:42), as cited by Creswell (2012:535), mixing quantitative and qualitative data ensures thorough research and means that the research problem is tackled if one type of data is insufficient. Additional information expands on the first database. In addition, a researcher may explore the phenomenon qualitatively to identify variables for a quantitative data analysis. However, a researcher might follow a mixed methods approach when following up a quantitative study with a qualitative study to gain additional evidence or understanding (Creswell, 2012:535). This study used a mixed methods design. Glesne and Peshkin (1992:8) cited in Golafshani (2003:600) posits that combining qualitative and quantitative data leads to the researcher enjoying “the rewards of both numbers and words”.

7.7 RESEARCH STRATEGIES

As it had adopted a mixed methods approach, the study described in this thesis followed both quantitative and qualitative strategies with the purpose of presenting balanced findings about the research phenomenon. Creswell (2009:11), elucidates that qualitative and quantitative strategies each offer a particular route in gathering and analysing data.

7.7.1 Quantitative strategies

Investigation strategies linked to quantitative research were those that appealed to the postpositivist worldview during the late 19th and throughout the 20th century (Creswell, 2009:12). According to Creswell (2009:12), these comprise true tests, less hard tests termed “quasi-experiments”, correlational studies (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) and specific single-subject experiments (Cooper, Heron & Heward, 1987; Neuman & McCormick, 1995). Lately, quantitative strategies have included difficult experiments with numerous variables, such as factorial designs and repeated measure designs.

They have similarly encompassed intricate physical equation models that include causal paths and the identification of the collective strength of multiple variables. Surveys and experiments are two strategies of inquiry that are discussed in the following section:

- Survey research offers a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a sample of that population. Babbie (1990), as cited in Creswell (2009:12), explains that survey research comprises cross-section and longitudinal studies, through questionnaires or structured interviews involving closed-ended questions for data collection, intending to generalise from a sample to a population.
- Experimental research strives to determine the results of a particular behaviour. This influence is evaluated through offering a particular behaviour to one group and keeping it back from another, and then ascertaining how both groups performed. Keppel (1991), as cited in Creswell (2009:12), explains that experiments are true experiments if the subjects are randomly assigned to treatment conditions, and quasi-experiments if they follow a nonrandomised design.

7.7.2 Qualitative strategies

Creswell (2009:12) explains that qualitative research strategies developed during the 1990s and the 21st century. Literature has summarised the numerous kinds. For example, Wolcott (2001) identified 19 strategies, and complete procedures are described in various research sources (Creswell, 2009:12). For instance, Clandinin and Connelly (2000) depicted what narrative researchers do (Creswell, 2009:12). According to Creswell (2009:13), Moustakas (1994) explained the logical doctrines and the measures of the phenomenological technique, and Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998) recognised the measures of grounded theory. Wolcott (1999) summarised ethnographic procedures, and Stake (1995) recommended procedures encompassed in case study research (Creswell, 2009:13).

Creswell (2007) in Creswell (2009:13) describes ethnography as the researcher investigating an entire cultural group in a natural situation over a lengthy period by collecting observational and interview data. LeCompte and Schensul (1999), as cited

in Creswell (2009:13), elucidate that the study procedure is malleable and progresses naturally in response to the reality encountered in the situation.

Creswell (2009:13) elucidates that grounded theory is a research approach wherein the researcher originates a universal, abstract theory of a process, action, or interaction grounded in the participants' opinions.

According to Channaz (2006), Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), grounded theory encompasses numerous stages of data collection, including the modification and interrelating of categories of information. Two main features of this design are the continuous contrasting of information with developing categories and the sampling of different groups to maximise the similarities and differences of information.

Case studies are a strategy of inquiry in which the researcher performs an in-depth study of a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals. Stake (1995), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), explains that case studies are constrained by time and the availability of participants, and researchers collect detailed information using a diversity of data collection procedures over a sustained period.

Creswell (2009:13) describes phenomenological research as the researcher acknowledging that knowledge about a phenomenon is defined by the research participants. Moustakas (1994), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), illuminates that comprehending the lived experiences marks phenomenology as a philosophy as well as a method. In addition, the procedure includes studying a small number of subjects through extensive and lengthy engagement to develop patterns and relationships of meaning. According to Nieswiadomy (1993), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), in this process, the researcher brackets or sets aside his or her own experiences to comprehend those of the research participants.

Riessman (2008), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), describes narrative research as a plan of investigation whereby the researcher examines the lives of individuals and asks one or more individuals to narrate stories about their lives. Clandinin and Connelly (2000), as cited in Creswell (2009:13), explain that this information is then frequently retold or restoried by the researcher into a narrative chronology. Finally,

according to Ciandinin & Connelly (2000), as cited by Creswell (2009:13), the narrative fuses opinions from the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative.

7.7.3 Mixed methods strategies

Creswell (2009:14) elucidates mixed methods strategies by describing them as including both quantitative and qualitative strategies. The mixing of diverse strategies began in 1959 when Campbell and Fisk utilised many strategies to investigate construct validity (Creswell, 2009:14). Acknowledging that all strategies have limits, researchers felt that weaknesses of one strategy could be compensated by using another. Jick (1979), as cited in Creswell (2009: 14), explains that triangulating data sources was born out of a need to seek convergence between qualitative and quantitative data. The idea of mixing data developed in the 1990s (Creswell, 2009:14). Tashakkori and Teddie (1998), as cited in Creswell (2009:14), explain that the outcomes from one strategy can contribute to understanding of the research phenomenon that the other strategy is unable to do.

The qualitative and quantitative data can be combined into one database or the outcomes used side by side to strengthen one another. According to Mertens (2003) as cited in Creswell (2009:14), the mixed method strategy might lead to a greater, transformative resolve to defend ostracised groups, which include women, ethnic/racial minorities, members of gay and lesbian communities, people with disabilities and the poor. Creswell and Pianko (2007), as cited in Creswell (2009:14), explain that mixing methods resulted in writers globally developing mixed methods strategies, and these were termed in the literature as multi-method, convergence, integrated and combined strategies.

The following are examples of mixed methods strategies:

- Creswell (2009:14) describes sequential mixed methods strategies as those with which the researcher pursues to improve or expand on the results of one strategy with another. This could involve include beginning with an interview for exploratory purposes (qualitative strategy) and following up with a survey of a large sample (quantitative strategy) so that the researcher can generalise results to the population. Otherwise, the investigation could commence with a

quantitative strategy whereby a theory or concept is tested, followed by a qualitative strategy involving exploration of a few cases or individuals.

- Concurrent mixed methods strategies are those whereby the researcher converges or combines quantitative and qualitative data, which are analysed with a view to producing comprehensive findings. However, the researcher may use the different types of data to answer different types of questions. For example, the qualitative data may address questions concerning participants' perspectives, while the quantitative data may address questions concerning tendencies and trends (Creswell, 2009:15).
- Transformative mixed method strategies are those in which the researcher utilises a theoretical lens to view the quantitative and qualitative data. This lens offers a framework for topics of interest; methods for collecting data and results; or changes expected by the investigation. This lens could determine the data gathering strategy, which could be either sequential or concurrent (Creswell, 2009:15).

Creswell (2009:16) explains that worldviews, strategies, and approaches all contribute to a research design that is quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods. Table 7.2 below depicts different research designs:

Table 7.2: Different strategies for qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods designs

Quantitative Designs	Mixed Methods Design	Qualitative Design
Experimental	Sequential	Narrative research
	Concurrent	Phenomenology
	Transformative	Ethnographies
		Grounded theory studies
		Case study

Source: Creswell (2009:12)

The study described in this thesis used the concurrent strategy. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2014:270), the concurrent strategy involves the researcher gathering both qualitative and quantitative data simultaneously; analysing them separately; and comparing and using the results to answer the same research question(s) (Creswell, 2012:540). The researcher accords equivalent significance to the two kinds of data, aims for triangulation, and hopes that the analyses of both data sets lead to similar conclusions about the phenomenon under investigation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:270: Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:106).

According to Creswell (2012:540), the researcher compares the results from the analyses of both datasets and decides whether the results support or contradict each other. The strength of the concurrent strategy is that it combines the advantages of each form of data: quantitative data allows for generalisability, whereas qualitative data provides information about the context or setting. Glesne and Peshkin (1992:8), as cited in Golafshani (2003:600), elucidate that combining qualitative and quantitative data leads to the researcher enjoying “the rewards of both numbers and words”.

A concurrent mixed methods strategy was used in the study. Qualitative and quantitative information were collected, with qualitative data being collected first.

7.8 DATA COLLECTION

In the study a concurrent mixed methods strategy was used to gather the data. Qualitative data was collected first, followed by quantitative data. In-depth, one-on-one or face-to-face interviews were conducted by the researcher for qualitative data gathering. An interview guide or schedule was utilised to collect this type of information. A survey in the form of personally administered questionnaires was used as the data collection instrument for the quantitative data.

The simple random sampling technique was used for the quantitative data. The sampling technique used for qualitative data was purposive/judgemental sampling. The sample size of for the qualitative data was 8 and the sample size for the quantitative data was 130.

7.8.1 Secondary data

Chapter 2 of this thesis presented a literature review of relevant books, academic journals, scientific research papers, theses, dissertations, legislation, regulations, and other sources. This was conducted to gain an improved comprehension of topics related to that of the research study.

7.8.2 Primary data

Qualitative and quantitative primary data were gathered in the study. Eight in-depth semi-structured interviews were conducted to collect the qualitative data. The overall sample size for the qualitative data was eight. Four participants from Chesterville and four from Clermont had been approached for the study interviews. As stated in Chapter 1, these eight participants were former UDF activists, four from Chesterville and four from Clermont. The reason for this sample was that the selected individuals had been closely involved with most of the activities of the former UDF and were conversant with the workings of SCs.

Quantitative data were collected by means of 130 survey questionnaires, which were developed to contribute to the answering of the research questions and the realisation of the research objectives.

7.8.3 In-depth interviews

In-depth, (one-on-one or face-to-face), semi-structured interviews were conducted with key informants for qualitative data. Sekaran and Bougie (2016: 113) describe an in-depth interview as a guided, focussed, and intensive discussion between two or more persons. Although an interview guide or schedule was utilised, the semi-structured nature of the interview meant that the researcher did not strictly follow the formal list of questions, which resulted in two-way communication. The interviews took place mainly during the afternoons since most of the participants were at work and unavailable during the mornings.

Questions for the interviews were developed from the research questions and the literature review. The questions comprised key questions, searching questions and follow-through questions. The interviews were emphatic and conversational. The semi-structured interviews aided the investigator in gaining a comprehension of

previous and current SCs' performance in Chesterville and Clermont. The researcher established an understanding between himself and the interviewees, resulting in their participation and rich data collection. The questions ensured the gathering of balanced information because different answers were given to the same questions.

The interview guide utilised for the semi-structured interviews is attached (See Annexure E). Permission forms were filled in by both the interviewee and the investigator, which permitted the researcher to conduct the semi-structured interviews in privacy (See Annexure D).

7.8.4 Survey questionnaires

Survey questionnaires, which were personally administered, were used as data collection instrument for quantitative data. Sekaran and Bougie (2016:142), define a survey questionnaire as a pre-expressed written set of questions offering clearly formulated alternatives from which the participants choose and record answers. The key benefit of using the personally administered survey questionnaires was that the researcher could collect all the completed questionnaires within a short period of time (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:143). The principal items in the questionnaire were 5-point Likert scale items, which are considered to yield continuous data.

One hundred and thirty (130) questionnaires were prepared and given out to current SC members and members of the community in Chesterville and Clermont townships. The researcher individually took the questionnaires by hand to the pertinent SC members and residents of the townships. At the beginning of the investigation, the researcher explained to the participants the nature and objective of the study and the length of the questionnaire. The researcher also explained what would happen to the information. The significance of every participant's input to the investigation was accentuated, and the sampling technique utilised was explained. Participants were informed that they could ask questions any time during or after the filling in of the questionnaires

Participants were guaranteed that all the data would be private and unspecified. In line with Whitt (1991:414), the researcher was transparent and truthful about the study's determination and demonstrated professionalism.

7.9 RESEARCH SAMPLE

Sekaran and Bougie (2016:236), define sampling as “the process of selecting the right individuals, objects, or events as representatives for the entire population”. The population can be described as the entire group of people that the researcher plans to investigate. The sample, which is selected from the population, is “a subset of the population” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:237).

7.9.1 Sampling design

Probability and non-probability sampling are two main types of sampling design. Sekaran and Bougie (2016: 240) state the following:

The elements in the population have some known chance or probability of being selected as sample subjects in probability sampling, whereas the elements do not have a known or predetermined chance of being selected as subjects in non-probability sampling. When the representativeness of the sample is of significance in the interests of wider generalisability, non-probability sampling is used (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:240).

In the study, non-probability sampling was used for collecting qualitative data, whilst probability sampling was used for collecting quantitative data.

7.9.2 Sampling technique for quantitative data

The simple random sampling technique was used for quantitative data. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016:242), in the “simple random sampling technique, every element in the population has a known and equal chance of being chosen as a subject”. The reason for using this technique in the study was that all elements in the population had a known, non-zero chance of being selected as subjects.

7.9.3 Sampling technique for qualitative data

The purposive/judgemental sampling technique was used for qualitative data. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016:248), judgement sampling entails choosing subjects who are most favourably positioned or in the best location to offer the information desired. In the study, the subjects were chosen because they were mostly in the best position to deliver the data that was needed. Moreover, this technique was utilised because a restricted number or group of people had the information that was required (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016:248).

7.9.4 Sample size of community leaders

Eight participants, four from Chesterville and four from Clermont, who were conversant with the history of SCs and who had served in the MDM, were sampled for qualitative data.

7.9.5 Sample size of community residents

The sample size of the community residents selected for quantitative data collection was 130. The reasoning behind the selection of this sample is explained below.

It was assumed that the population consisted of 3000 from Chesterville and 7000 from Clermont. The total population was therefore 10 000, of which (according to the researcher's investigations in the areas) only about half was eligible for inclusion, which was equal to 5000. The sample for the quantitative data was determined using an alpha level of .05 and a margin of error of .03. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), as cited in Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001:45), the general rule relative to acceptable margins of error in educational and social research is 5% for categorical data and 3% for continuous data.

The formula below was used to ascertain the study's sample size for the quantitative data:

$$n = \frac{(t)^2 * (s)^2}{(d)^2} = \frac{(1.96)^2(1.167)^2}{(7*.03)^2} = 118$$

Source: Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001:46)

t = 1.96; **s** = 5/6 (number of points in Likert scale/number of standard deviations that includes 98% of possible values in the range); and **d** = acceptable margin of error for mean = 5 *.03.

When using this formula, the researcher obtained **n**= 118. However, the researcher needed to add about 10% in case some questions were not filled in. Thus, a sample of 130 was advisable. This was then broken down proportionately into 91 from

Clermont and 39 from Chesterville. Therefore, the sample size for quantitative data was 130.

7.10 ANALYSING OF DATA

In the mixed methods study, both qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis were used.

7.10.1 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis in this study was done using the content thematic approach, which categorises the words (data) into meaningful themes.

According to Du Plooy-Cilliers, Davis and Bezuidenhout (2014:241), content thematic analysis can also be a list of recognised or expected themes found in the literature review of the investigation.

7.10.2 Quantitative data analysis

Quantitative data was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25, which is a popular statistical tool. The results indicated the role of SCs in preventing crime. These results were validated by a qualified, registered statistician.

Through SPSS, the researcher performed a descriptive analysis of the data, which led to the presentation of the frequency distribution and graphical displays of the data that had been collected using the survey questionnaire.

7.11 DATA QUALITY CONTROL

During information gathering, the researcher guaranteed that the collected data reflected the facts. The quality of data collection methods used strongly influenced data quality. It was ensured that the data collected was reliable, valid, and trustworthy. Moreover, the use of methodological triangulation increased the credibility of the data and the research findings. The use of pilot studies also ensured that the desired data would be gathered. However, there are factors beyond the researcher's control that may affect the quality of the data. This was the case in the secondary (literature) data collection that is explained in the section below.

7.11.1 Reliability and validity in quantitative research

Golafshani (2003) explains that reliability is the degree to which outcomes are reliable over time and a precise representation of the total population being studied. In addition, if the outcomes of a research study can be replicated using comparable methodology, then the study instrument is considered reliable (Golafshani, 2003).

According to Golafshani (2003), there are three types of reliability in quantitative research, which relate to (1) the extent to which a measurement, given recurrently, remains the same (2) the stability of a measurement over time; and (3) the resemblance of measurements within a given period.

Golafshani (2003:599), maintains that validity regulates whether a study accurately measures what it was intended to measure or how honest the research outcomes are. The difference between reliability and validity is that the former refers to the consistency of a measurement and the latter refers to its accuracy.

7.11.2 Trustworthiness of qualitative research

According to Korstjens and Moser (2018:121), there are numerous definitions and criteria of trustworthiness in research. However, in line with Lincoln and Guba, the best criteria are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Korstjens and Moser, 2018:121). Credibility is the equivalent of internal validity in quantitative research, and it relates to the truth value aspect. Prolonged engagement, persistent observation, triangulation, and member check are strategies to guarantee credibility (Korstjens and Moser, 2018:121). Credibility is the sureness or assurance that can be placed in the truth of the research findings. Credibility establishes whether the research findings characterise plausible information derived from the participants' original data and is a correct interpretation of the participants' original views (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

According to Korstjens and Moser (2018), transferability involves the aspect of applicability. Transferability is the degree to which the outcomes of qualitative research can be transferred to other situations or settings with other participants. The investigator facilitates the transferability judgment by a potential user through thick description (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

According to Korstjens (2018), dependability involves the aspect of consistency. It involves the stability of findings over time. Dependability includes participants' assessment of the findings, interpretation, and recommendations of the study such that all are reinforced by the data as received from participants of the study (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

Confirmability relates to the degree to which the findings of the research study could be confirmed by other researchers. Confirmability is concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not fabrications of the inquirer's imagination but are evidently resulting from the data (Korstjens and Moser, 2018:121).

According to Korstjens and Moser (2018), reflexivity is the procedure of significant self-reflection about oneself as researcher. The researcher reflects on their own biases, preferences, and preconditions. The researcher also reflects on the research relationship to the respondent, and the impact of the relationship to the participant's answers to questions (Korstjens and Moser, 2018).

7.11.3 Methodological triangulation

Methodical triangulation increases the credibility of the data collection and the findings. The researcher ensured methodological triangulation by using both a qualitative and quantitative (mixed methods) approach to gathering data, as well as drawing information through a literature review (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:269). Kelle, Küberger and Bernhard (2019:18) state the following:

Methodological triangulation as a distinct form of triangulation means the mixture of diverse approaches either with the goal of joint authentication of outcomes, or with the aim to acquire an additional acceptable and inclusive picture of the focus area through complimentary outcomes. Mixed methods are a special form of methodological triangulation in which quantitative and qualitative approaches are precisely integrated (Kelle *et al.*, 2019:18).

A literature review was undertaken to gather information in addition to the gathering of data through a mixed methods research approach. According to Creswell (2009:28-29), a literature review is a methodical way of recording, assessing, and recapitulating the literature. The literature review assisted the researcher in understanding the topic of the research study and in formulating the research problem statements, questions and objectives.

7.11.4 Pilot studies

The interview schedule was experimented prior to the actual interviews. The purpose of the experimental investigation was to guarantee that the questions were easy to comprehend, that respondents did not influence one another, and that their answers could be viewed effective and dependable. Thus, a pilot study was conducted amongst the designated respondents who represented the research population to examine the suitability and the viability of the investigation. This assisted in detecting the feebleness of the designated study strategy and chief study approaches.

The experimental investigation was undertaken to test the reliability and dependability of the questionnaire. According to Sekaran and Bougie (2016:155), pretesting entails the use of small number of participants to test the suitability of the questions and their understanding. This assists in correcting any shortfalls prior to managing the tool verbally or through a questionnaire to respondents, and thus reduces bias (Sekaran and Bougie, 2016:155).

Directing a pilot study for a questionnaire, and particularly asking participants for their thoughts as they read and respond to specific items, is a step toward ascertaining if a questionnaire has validity for its purpose and whether it measures what it was envisioned to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:205). To attain dependability, the investigator guaranteed that the interviews were conducted in a reliable way, with impartiality. The investigator guaranteed that the questions of the interview guide and the questionnaire were made standard from one condition or individual to the next. All the items in the interview guide and the questionnaire were tried (tested) prior to the real interviews and actual survey.

A test investigation was undertaken on the questionnaires with people besides the sample group. The objective of the test investigation was to guarantee that the questions were understood and to check whether they could reliably produce comparable outcomes. The pilot was able to determine the time that would be taken to fill in the questionnaire.

The questionnaire was made available to the whole sample, after the completion of essential alterations, which were determined by the experimental trial. Contributors did not affect one another in any way, and their answers could be regarded effective and dependable.

7.11.5 Limitations of the study

Academic work has intrinsic limitations. The following explains a fundamental constraint of the research:

7.11.5.1 Limited literature

The investigator undertook a literature review to find information about the role of SCs in combatting crime. Although the provincial leadership of the ANC and the SANCO, the SAPS and the CPF were consulted, the researcher did not find any literature related to the specific topic of the study. Even though there is a great deal of literature on other crime combatting structures, there is little research specifically on SCs.

7.12 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In the research context, ethics involves the right attitude and behaviour of the researcher and participant equally. De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2011:129), describe research ethics as follows:

A set of widely accepted moral principles that offer rules for, and behavioural expectations of, the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants, and students.

The study obeyed the ethics code of the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC) and the UKZN Code of Ethics. In this study, the following ethical procedures were followed:

Participants were informed about the consequences of partaking in the study to ensure their voluntary participation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2014:273). In addition, they were informed about the nature of the study and were given the option to refuse to participate if they wished. They were informed about their right to withdraw from the study at any time. Thus, participants were allowed to choose voluntarily and were not

coerced to participate. Permission forms that defined the nature of the study were signed by every contributor.

Confidentiality was observed. According to Babbie (2008:70), privacy is ensured when the researcher vows not to divulge information gathered from participants for any purpose other than the research study explained to them. In addition, the researcher ensured confidentiality by guaranteeing that participants would remain anonymous in data records and reports that explained the study.

The researcher ensured that no harm was caused to the participants by being professional during the investigation and by respecting their dignity, views, and feelings. In addition, the researcher solicited guidance from professionals to ensure that the conclusions of the study were described accurately, inclusively, fairly, and empirically.

7.13 SUMMARY

This chapter elucidated the research methodology. It explained the research process; the aims of research; research types; philosophical theoretical and methodological foundations of research; the research design; research strategies; data collection; the research sample; analysing of data; data quality control; and ethical considerations.

The following section presents the results of the data analysis and the discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER EIGHT

RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

As specified in the previous chapter, the research was conducted in the eThekweni Municipality, in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis and discussion of the findings. Following a mixed methods approach, the researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative primary data. The primary qualitative data were gathered through in-depth, semi-structured interviews with purposefully selected former UDF members, from Chesterville and Clermont townships. Quantitative primary data were collected through personally administered survey questionnaires with assistance from two field workers. The questionnaires were administered to 130 community members who were or knew current and former SC members. Secondary data were gathered from various literature sources related to the research topic.

The chapter is arranged into three sections: Section 7.2 presents the results of the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data. This is followed by Section 7.3, which presents a discussion of the findings, 7.4 (data convergence) and 7.5 (summary).

8.2 DATA ANALYSIS

This section deals with the results of the analyses of the quantitative and qualitative data. The section starts with the quantitative data analysis, which is followed by the qualitative one.

8.2.1 Results of analysis of quantitative data (survey questionnaire data)

The statistical analysis was conducted in collaboration with a statistician recognised by UKZN. The following sub-sections present the findings of the analysis:

- Sub-section 7.2.1.1 explains the distribution of the survey questionnaires.
- Sub-section 7.2.1.2 presents a demographic profile of the participants who completed the survey questionnaires.
- Sub-section 7.2.1.3 presents the results of the analysis of the answers to the 5-point Likert scale questions.

- Sub-section 8.2.1.4 presents the results of the analysis of answers to the open-ended question that solicited the perceptions of the participants.
- Sub-section 8.2.1.5 presents a synopsis of the quantitative data analyses.

8.2.1.1 Distribution of survey questionnaires

As specified in the methodology chapter (Chapter 7), the survey questionnaires were administered to 130 respondents from Chesterville and Clermont in the EMA. Of this number, 91 respondents were from Clermont, and 39 from Chesterville. They had been selected because they had served on SCs before, they were currently serving on one, or they knew current/former SC members. Thus, they were knowledgeable about SCs. The response rate was 100%.

8.2.1.2 Demographic details of respondents

In this section, the results of the analysis of data concerning the participants' gender, age, place of residence, participation in SCs, employment status, and length of stay in the township is presented. Table 8.1 below reflects the results in terms of gender. In the interpretation of the table, the researcher uses the percent category not the others.

Table 8.1: Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	78	60.0	61.4	61.4
	Female	49	37.7	38.6	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

Table 8.1 above indicates that 60% of the respondents were males, 37.7% were females, whilst 2.3% were those who were in the “missing” category, as they had not responded. The above statistics can be interpreted as demonstrating a strong presence of male participation in the SCs. Table 8.2 presents the results of the analysis of data concerning the respondents’ age.

Table 8.2: Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	21-40	20	15.4	15.4	15.4
	41-60	81	62.3	62.3	77.7
	>60	29	22.3	22.3	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

In the survey questionnaire, the participants stated their age in terms of the following groups: 21-40 years old; 41-60 years old; and 60 years old and above. In Table 8.2, it is evident that most of the respondents were between 41 and 60 years old (62.3%); followed by the group that was 60 years old and above (22.3%); while the least number of respondents (15.4%) were in the 21-40 years old category. This might be interpreted to mean that the 41-60 years group and the 60 years old and above group took part in former SCs, whilst the 21-40 years old group took part in post 1994 SCs and are possibly part of current SCs. Table 8.3 below indicates the results of the analysis of data concerning respondents’ place of residence.

Table 8.3: Place of residence

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Chesterville	39	30.0	30.0	30.0
Clermont	91	70.0	70.0	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

Table 8.3 above demonstrates that most of the respondents were from Clermont (70%), whilst 30% were from Chesterville. This is because the sample had deliberately included more respondents from Clermont than from Chesterville. Table 8.4 below reflects the results of the analysis of the data concerning whether respondents had served on an SC or not.

Table 8.4: Served on a street committee

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	120	92.3	92.3	92.3
No	10	7.7	7.7	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

A significant 92.3% had served on SCs. The significance of this result is that most of the participants in the study not only knew about the workings of the SCs but currently also participate in them. The results of the analysis of data concerning respondents' employment status are shown in Table 8.5 below.

Table 8.5: Employment status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	75	57.7	58.1	58.1
	No	54	41.5	41.9	100.0
	Total	129	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.8		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

The table shows that 57.7% of the respondents were employed during the survey, whilst 41.5% were unemployed. This might be significant because of the current pandemic and RSAs very high unemployment, even prior to the pandemic. About 0.8 % chose not to answer the question. The results of the analysis of data concerning respondents' length of stay in the township are reflected by Table 8.6 below.

Table 8.6: Length of stay in the township in years

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	5-15	8	6.2	6.2	6.2
	15-30	20	15.4	15.4	21.5
	30-50	67	51.5	51.5	73.1
	50+	35	26.9	26.9	100.0
	Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

The table shows that 51.5% of the respondents had stayed between 30 and 50 years in their respective areas; 26.9% had stayed for more than 50 years; 15.4% had stayed for 15-30 years; and 6.2% had stayed for 5-15 years. These figures might reflect the age of the sampled participants.

The graph below (Figure 8.1) provides an inclusive picture of the profile of respondents. It indicates respondents according to their gender, age, and whether employed or unemployed. It demonstrates that more males (60%) participated in the study. Participants between 41 and 60 years were the majority, 57.7% of the participants were employed, and 41.5% of the participants were unemployed.

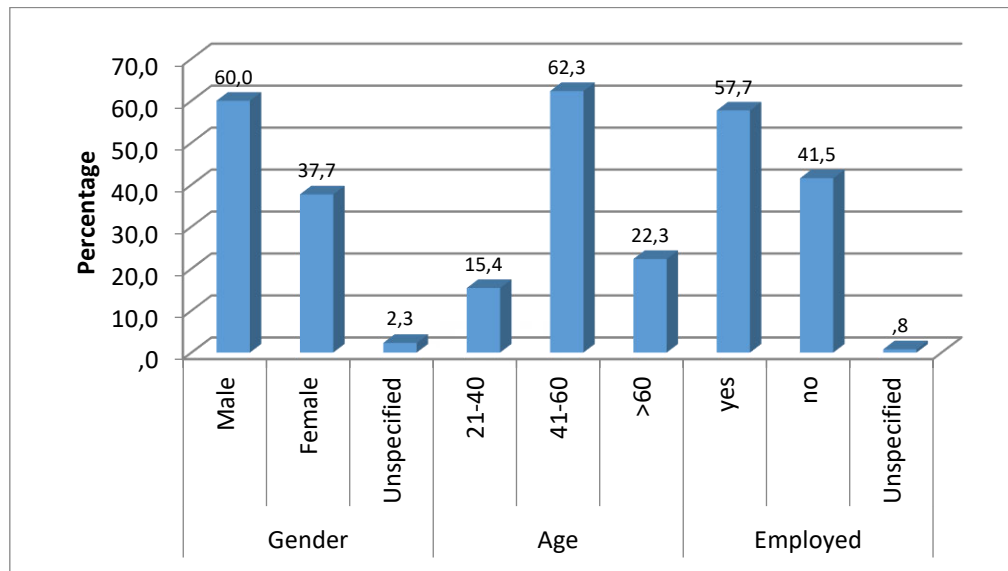


Figure 8.1: Respondents' profile according to gender, age, and employment

The graph below (Figure 8.2) provides a complete picture of the profile of respondents. It illustrates respondents according to their place of residence (Chesterville or Clermont) and according to the number of years lived in the respective townships, in relation to their gender, age and employment status.

The graph demonstrates that more residents/participants were from Clermont than Chesterville. It is also significant to note that more participants had lived between 30-50 (51.5%), followed by those who had lived for 50 years and more, at 26.9%, in their respective townships.

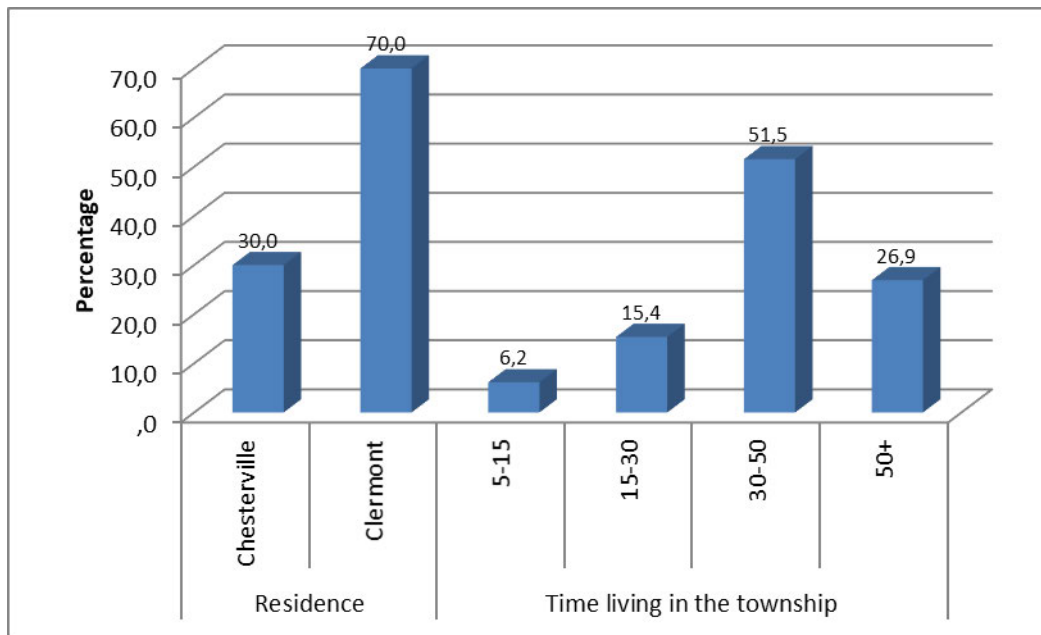


Figure 8.2: Respondents' profile according to residence and time living in the township

8.2.1.3 Presentation of the results of the analysis of the answers to the 5-point Likert scale questions

The following tests were used in the analysis:

- Descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations, where applicable
- Mann Whitney U Test: According to Heumann and Shalabh (2016:232), this is a *nonparametric* test and useful in instances where lopsided distributions are compared with each other. It is utilised when comparing differences between two independent groups, when the dependent variable is either ordinal or continuous, but not normally distributed (Nachar, 2008:13). The Mann-Whitney U test is frequently regarded as the nonparametric alternative to the independent t-test, although this is not always the case (Nachar, 2008:20; Heumann & Shalabh 2016:232). The Mann-Whitney U test permits the researcher to reach various inferences about data, depending on the assumptions made about the data's distribution. According to Heiberger and Holland (2015:586), the Man-Whitney U test is like the parametric two-sample analysis, but compares medians instead of means)

- Binomial test (BT): This uses the simple statistic for comparing two independent binomial proportions but does not account for the variability in the noticed outcome pair (x, y) (Wong, Wong & Lin, 2014:1). According to Wong, Wong and Lin (2014:279), the BT test uses the binomial distribution to determine whether the result of an experiment using a binary variable (also called a *dichotomy*) can be ascribed to a systematic effect. The sign test is employed to before/after designs and it applies the binomial test to assess whether the direction of change between before/after the treatment is systematic.
- One-sample t-test: According to Singh (2007:164), the one-sample test procedure establishes whether the mean of a single variable varies from a specified constant. It is very analogous to the z test, save for the fact that the t-test does not need knowledge of standard deviation of the population and is extensively utilised in comparatively small samples. The intention is to juxtapose the sample mean with the given population mean. The aim of the one sample t-test is to ascertain if the null hypothesis should be rejected, given the sample data (Singh, 2007: 164).
- Independent samples t-test: According to Singh (2007:165), in the independent samples t-test procedure, means for two groups of cases are compared. There are two variants of the unpaired t test based on the postulation of equal and unequal variances between two groups of cases. In the case of unpaired t test, subjects should be presented to two groups randomly, so that after employing significance tests, researchers can infer that the difference in response is due to the treatment and not due to other factors (Singh, 2007:165).

The results (findings) of the statistical analysis of the responses to each statement of the questionnaire (Questions 1.1 to 4.7) are explained in the following paragraphs. The interpretation of the findings focusses on the percentages.

Table 8.7 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 1.1 (Q1.1), which presented the statement “Street committees assist in fighting crime in my community”.

Q 1.1 Street committees assist in fighting crime in my community (n=130)

Table 8.7: (Q 1.1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	11	8.5	8.7	8.7
	Disagree	4	3.1	3.1	11.8
	Undecided	6	4.6	4.7	16.5
	Agree	17	13.1	13.4	29.9
	Strongly agree	89	68.5	70.1	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

An overwhelming 68.5% of the respondents strongly agreed that SCs assist in fighting crime in the community; 13.1 agreed; 8.5 % strongly disagreed; 3.1 % disagreed; and 4.6 % were undecided. This finding demonstrates that majority of the respondents believe in the ability of SCs to combat crime in the community.

Table 8.8 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 1.2 (Q1.2), which presented the statement “Street committees are successful in alleviating and reducing crime”.

**Q 1.2 Street committees are successful in alleviating and reducing crime
(n=130)**

Table 8.8: (Q 1.2)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	6.2	6.2	6.2
	Disagree	7	5.4	5.4	11.6
	Undecided	4	3.1	3.1	14.7
	Agree	25	19.2	19.4	34.1
	Strongly agree	85	65.4	65.9	100.0
	Total	129	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.8		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

Table 8.8 above illustrates that an overwhelming majority of 65.4 % respondents strongly agreed that SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime; 19.2 % agreed; 6.2 % strongly disagreed; 5.4 % disagreed; and 3.1% were undecided.

Table 8.9 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 1.3 (Q1.3), which presented the statement “We need street committees to keep the crime down in our community”.

**Q 1.3 We need street committees to keep the crime down in our community
(n=130)**

Table 8.9: (Q 1.3)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	9	6.9	7.0	7.0
	Disagree	11	8.5	8.6	15.6
	Undecided	8	6.2	6.3	21.9
	Agree	16	12.3	12.5	34.4
	Strongly agree	84	64.6	65.6	100.0
	Total	128	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.5		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

A majority of 64.6% respondents strongly agreed that SCs are needed to keep the crime down in the community. Only 12.3% agreed; 6.9 % strongly disagreed; 8.5 % disagreed; and 6.2 % were undecided.

Table 8.10 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 1.4 (Q1.4), which presented the statement “Crime levels drop when there are street committees”.

Q 1.4 Crime levels drop where there are street committees (n=130)

Table 8.10: (Q 1.4)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	2.3	2.4	2.4
	Disagree	3	2.3	2.4	4.7
	Undecided	2	1.5	1.6	6.3
	Agree	13	10.0	10.2	16.5
	Strongly agree	106	81.5	83.5	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

A majority of 81.5% respondents strongly agreed that crime levels drop where there are SCs; 10% agreed; 2.3 % strongly disagreed; 2.3 % disagreed; and 1.5 % were undecided. There was significant agreement that SCs assist in fighting crime. In other words, SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime and are needed to keep the crime levels down in the community.

The graph below (Figure 8.3) demonstrates the respondents’ responses to the statements that were represented in Tables 8.7 to 8.10 above.

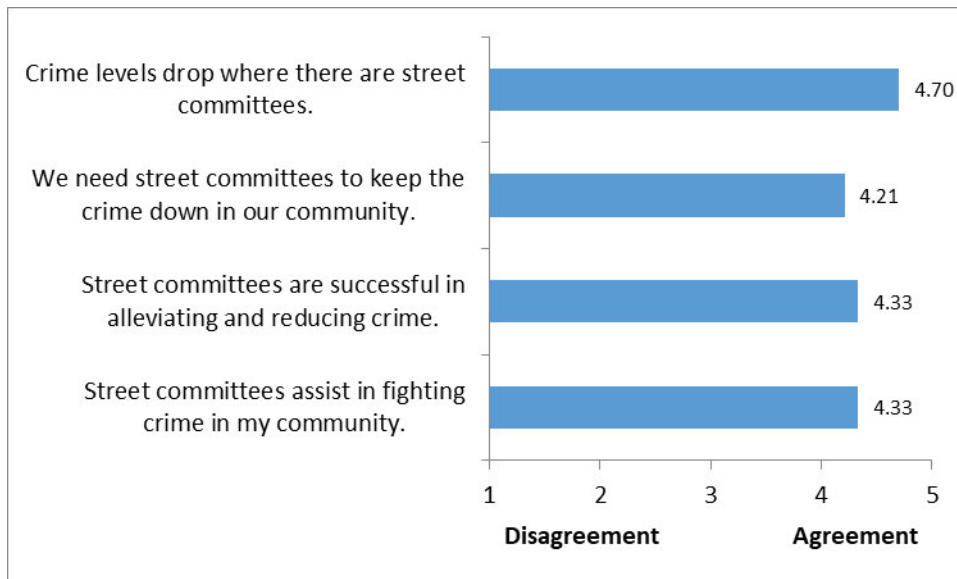


Figure 8.3: Respondents' responses on the role of street committees in crime prevention

Scores from the four statements were averaged to form the composite variable, RCP. Results from a one-sample t-test showed that there was significant agreement that SCs play a role in crime prevention, $M=4.37$, $p<.0005$.

Average agreement that SCs play a role in crime prevention was significantly higher in Clermont ($M=4.64$, median = 5) than in Chesterville ($M=3.73$, median = 4), $p<.0005$.

Table 8.11 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 2.1 (Q2.1), which presented the statement "Street committees sometimes serve as informal courts".

Q 2.1 Street committees sometimes serve as informal courts (n=130)

Table 8.11: (Q 2.1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	64	49.2	50.8	50.8
	Disagree	23	17.7	18.3	69.0
	Undecided	9	6.9	7.1	76.2
	Agree	19	14.6	15.1	91.3
	Strongly agree	11	8.5	8.7	100.0
	Total	126	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.1		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher's survey data (2021)

There was significant disagreement that SCs sometimes serve as kangaroo/informal courts. About 49.2 % of respondents strongly disagreed; 17.7% disagreed; 14.6 % agreed; 8.5 % strongly agreed; and 6.9 % were undecided.

Table 8.12 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 2.2 (Q2.2), which presented the statement “Street committees face challenges because they are not legislated”.

Q 2.2 Street committees face challenges because they are not legislated
(n=130)

Table 8.12: (Q 2.2)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	8	6.2	6.3	6.3
	Disagree	2	1.5	1.6	7.9
	Undecided	5	3.8	3.9	11.8
	Agree	17	13.1	13.4	25.2
	Strongly agree	95	73.1	74.8	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher's survey data, 2021

The majority of the participants (73.1 %) agreed strongly that SCs face challenges because they are not legislated; 13.1 % agreed; 6.2% strongly disagreed; 1.5 % disagreed; and 3.8% were undecided. This result showed that respondents strongly felt that if SCs were legislated, they would not be faced with the challenges currently experienced.

Table 8.13 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 2.3 (Q2.3), which presented the statement “If Street committees were to be legislated, they would make a bigger difference to the crime in my community”.

Q 2.3 If Street committees were to be legislated, they would make a bigger difference to the crime in my community (n=130)

Table 8.13: (Q 2.3)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	10	7.7	7.9	7.9
	Disagree	5	3.8	3.9	11.8
	Undecided	8	6.2	6.3	18.1
	Agree	28	21.5	22.0	40.2
	Strongly agree	76	58.5	59.8	100.0

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

The majority of about 58.5% respondents strongly agreed that if SCs were to be legislated, they would make a bigger difference to the crime in their community; 21.5% agreed; 7.7 % strongly disagreed; 3.8 % disagreed; and 6.2% were undecided.

The graph below (Figure 8.4) demonstrates the respondents' responses to the statements that were represented in Tables 8.11 to 8.13 above.

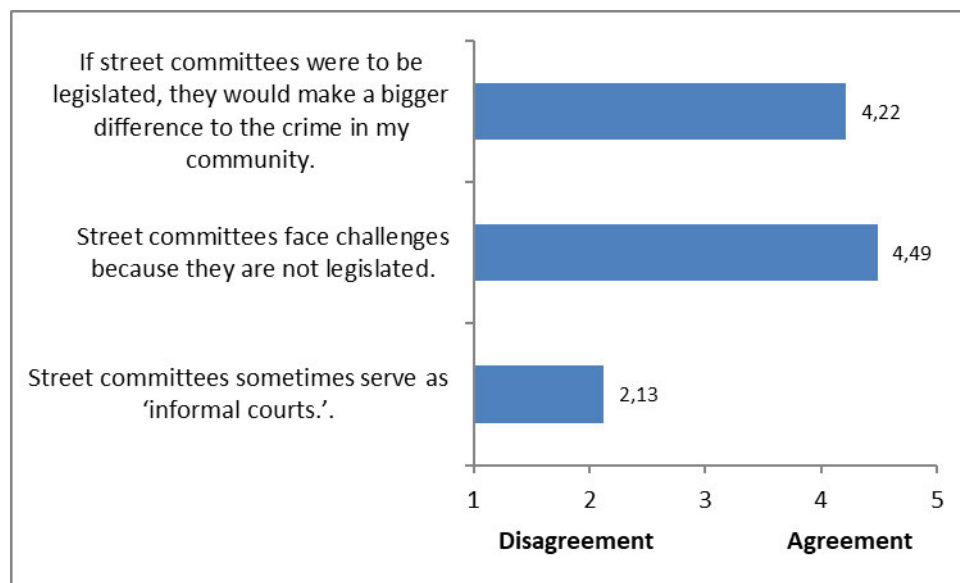


Figure 8.4: What role can be played by legislation in street committees

A significant number of respondents disagreed that SCs sometimes serve as informal courts, whilst a significant number of respondents agreed that if SCs were to be legislated, they would make a difference to the crime in the community and that SCs face challenges because they are not legislated.

There was significantly higher agreement in Clermont than there was in Chesterville that SCs face challenges because they are not legislated.

Table 8.14 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 3.1 (Q3.1), which presented the statement “Street committees enjoy better working relations with the ward committees in my community”.

Q 3.1 Street committees enjoy better working relations with the ward committees in my community (n=130)

Table 8.14: (Q 3.1)

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly disagree	6	4.6	4.6	4.6
Undecided	5	3.8	3.8	8.5
Agree	12	9.2	9.2	17.7
Strongly agree	107	82.3	82.3	100.0
Total	130	100.0	100.0	

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

An overwhelming majority of 82.3% of respondents strongly agreed that SCs have a good working relationship with the ward committees; 9.2 % agreed; 4.6% strongly disagreed; and 3.8% were undecided.

Table 8.15 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 3.2 (Q3.2), which presented the statement “Street committees enjoy better working relations with community policing forums in my community”.

Q 3.2 Street committees enjoy better working relations with community policing forums in my community (n=130)

Table 8.15: (Q 3.2)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	47	36.2	37.0	37.0
	Disagree	28	21.5	22.0	59.1
	Undecided	14	10.8	11.0	70.1
	Agree	17	13.1	13.4	83.5
	Strongly agree	21	16.2	16.5	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

About 36.2% of the respondents disagreed strongly that SCs have a good working relationship with CPFs in the community; 21.5 % disagreed; 16.2 % strongly agreed; 13.1% agreed; and 10.8% were undecided.

Table 8.16 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 3.3 (Q3.3), which presented the statement “The community policing forums cannot fight the crime in my community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies”.

Q 3.3 The community policing forums cannot fight the crime in my community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies (n=130)

Table 8.16: (Q 3.3)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	41	31.5	32.0	32.0
	Disagree	31	23.8	24.2	56.3
	Undecided	21	16.2	16.4	72.7
	Agree	16	12.3	12.5	85.2
	Strongly agree	19	14.6	14.8	100.0
	Total	128	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.5		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

About 31.5 % of the participants strongly disagreed that the CPFs cannot fight crime in the community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies; 23.8% disagreed; 14.6 % strongly agreed; 12.3 % agreed; and 16.2 % were undecided.

Table 8.17 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 3.4 (Q3.4), which presented the statement “Street committees have a good and successful working relationship with the SAPS”.

Q 3.4 Street committees have a good and successful working relationship with the SAPS (n=130).

Table 8.17: (Q 3.4)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	29	22.3	22.7	22.7
	Disagree	12	9.2	9.4	32.0
	Undecided	19	14.6	14.8	46.9
	Agree	22	16.9	17.2	64.1
	Strongly agree	46	35.4	35.9	100.0
	Total	128	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.5		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

About 35.4% of the respondents strongly agreed that SCs have a good and successful working relationship with the SAPS; 16.9% agreed; 22.3 % strongly disagreed; 9.2 % disagreed; and 14.6% were undecided.

The graph below (Figure 8.5) demonstrates the respondents' responses to the statements that were represented in Tables 8.14 to 8.17 above.

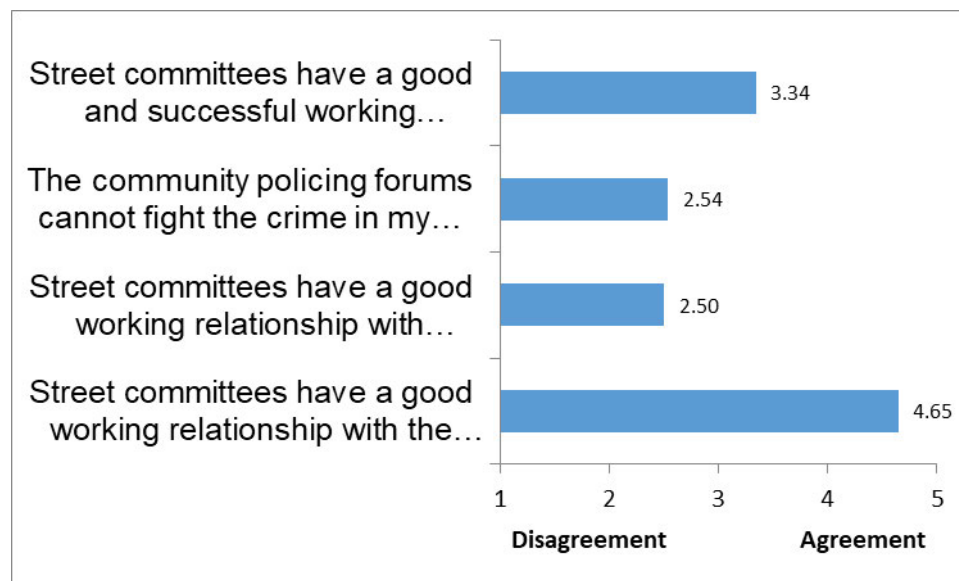


Figure 8.5: Street committee relationship with other organs

The graph above (Figure 8.5) demonstrates overwhelming agreement that SCs have a good working relationship with the WCs. However, it shows disagreement that SCs enjoy better working relations with CPFs in the community and that the CPFs cannot fight crime in the community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies. The graph showed agreement that SCs have a good and successful working relationship with the SAPS.

Table 8.18 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.1 (Q4.1), which presented the statement “Street committees perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime”.

Q 4.1 Street committees perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime (n=130).

Table 8.18: (Q 4.1)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	33	25.4	26.8	26.8
	Disagree	18	13.8	14.6	41.5
	Undecided	13	10.0	10.6	52.0
	Agree	13	10.0	10.6	62.6
	Strongly agree	46	35.4	37.4	100.0
	Total	123	94.6	100.0	
Missing	System	7	5.4		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

About 35.4% of the participants agreed strongly that SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime; 10 % agreed; 25.4% strongly disagreed; 13.8 % disagreed; and 10% were undecided.

Table 8.19 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.2 (Q4.2), which presented the statement “I have faith in street committees”.

Q 4.2 I have faith in street committees (n=130)

Table 8.19: (Q 4.2)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	21	16.2	16.7	16.7
	Disagree	6	4.6	4.8	21.4
	Undecided	5	3.8	4.0	25.4
	Agree	19	14.6	15.1	40.5
	Strongly agree	75	57.7	59.5	100.0
	Total	126	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.1		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

The majority (57.7%) of the respondents agreed strongly that the community has faith in SCs; 14.6 % agreed; 16.2 % strongly disagreed; 4.6 % disagreed; and 3.8% were undecided. This result clearly demonstrates the community’s confidence and trust in SCs.

Table 8.20 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.3 (Q4.3), which presented the statement “Street committees are affiliated with certain political parties”.

Q 4.3 Street committees are affiliated with certain political parties (n=130)

Table 8.20: (Q 4.3)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	5	3.8	3.9	3.9
	Disagree	6	4.6	4.7	8.7
	Undecided	8	6.2	6.3	15.0
	Agree	17	13.1	13.4	28.3
	Strongly agree	91	70.0	71.7	100.0
	Total	127	97.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.3		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

Most (70%) respondents strongly agreed that SCs are affiliated with certain political parties. However, 13.1% agreed; 3.8 % strongly disagreed; 4.6 % disagreed; and 6.2% were neutral. These results indicate that SCs are not apolitical. In addition, these results confirm the challenge facing SCs of community members not wanting to participate because they perceive the organisation as being politically partisan.

Table 8.21 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.4 (Q4.4), which presented the statement “Street committees should NOT be formed along political party lines”.

Q 4.4 Street committees should NOT be formed along political party lines
(n=130)

Table 8.21: (Q 4.4)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	55	42.3	44.4	44.4
	Disagree	22	16.9	17.7	62.1
	Undecided	12	9.2	9.7	71.8
	Agree	13	10.0	10.5	82.3
	Strongly agree	22	16.9	17.7	100.0
	Total	124	95.4	100.0	
Missing	System	6	4.6		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

A majority of 42.3 % respondents strongly disagreed that SCs should NOT be formed along political party lines; 16.9% disagreed, another 16.9 % strongly agreed; 10% agreed; and 9.2 % were neutral. Table 8.22 demonstrates that community residents are more comfortable with SCs that do not adhere to political parties.

Table 8.22 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.5 (Q4.5), which presented the statement “I am more comfortable with street committees than any other crime preventions structure”.

Q 4.5 I am more “comfortable” with street committees than with any other crime prevention structure (n=130)

Table 8.22: (Q 4.5)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	3.1	3.1	3.1
	Disagree	6	4.6	4.7	7.8
	Undecided	8	6.2	6.3	14.1
	Agree	13	10.0	10.2	24.2
	Strongly agree	97	74.6	75.8	100.0
	Total	128	98.5	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.5		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

A very great majority (74.6 %) of the participants agreed strongly that they were more “comfortable” with SCs than they were with any other crime prevention structure; 10% agreed; 3.1 % strongly disagreed; 4.6 % disagreed; and 6.2%% were neutral. This result means that even if other crime fighting structures are available, people still prefer SCs.

Table 8.23 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.6 (Q4.6), which presented the statement “Members of street committees are democratically elected”.

Q 4.6 Members of street committees are democratically elected (n=130)

Table 8.23: (Q 4.6)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	7	5.4	5.6	5.6
	Disagree	7	5.4	5.6	11.2
	Undecided	7	5.4	5.6	16.8
	Agree	23	17.7	18.4	35.2
	Strongly agree	81	62.3	64.8	100.0
	Total	125	96.2	100.0	
Missing	System	5	3.8		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data (2021)

An overwhelming majority of respondents (62.3%) strongly agreed that members of SCs are democratically elected; 17.7 % agreed; 5.4 % strongly disagreed; another 5.4 % disagreed; and 5.4 % were undecided. This result confirms that members of the community choose SC members by means of votes in a transparent electoral process.

Table 8.24 below presents the results of the analysis of the responses to Question 4.7 (Q4.7), which presented the statement “The street committees communicate to us (the residents) on things that are happening in our community”.

Q 4.7 The street committees communicate to us (the residents) on things that are happening in our community (n=130)

Table 8.24: (Q 4.7)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	4	3.1	3.2	3.2
	Disagree	4	3.1	3.2	6.3
	Undecided	5	3.8	4.0	10.3
	Agree	23	17.7	18.3	28.6
	Strongly agree	90	69.2	71.4	100.0
	Total	126	96.9	100.0	
Missing	System	4	3.1		
Total		130	100.0		

Source: Researcher’s survey data, 2021

An overwhelming 69.2% of the participants strongly agreed that SCs communicate to the residents on goings-on in their community, 17.7 agreed; 3.1 % strongly disagreed; another 3.1 % agreed; and 8% were undecided.

The graph below (Figure 8.6) demonstrates the respondents' responses to the statements that were represented in Tables 8.18 to 8.24 above.

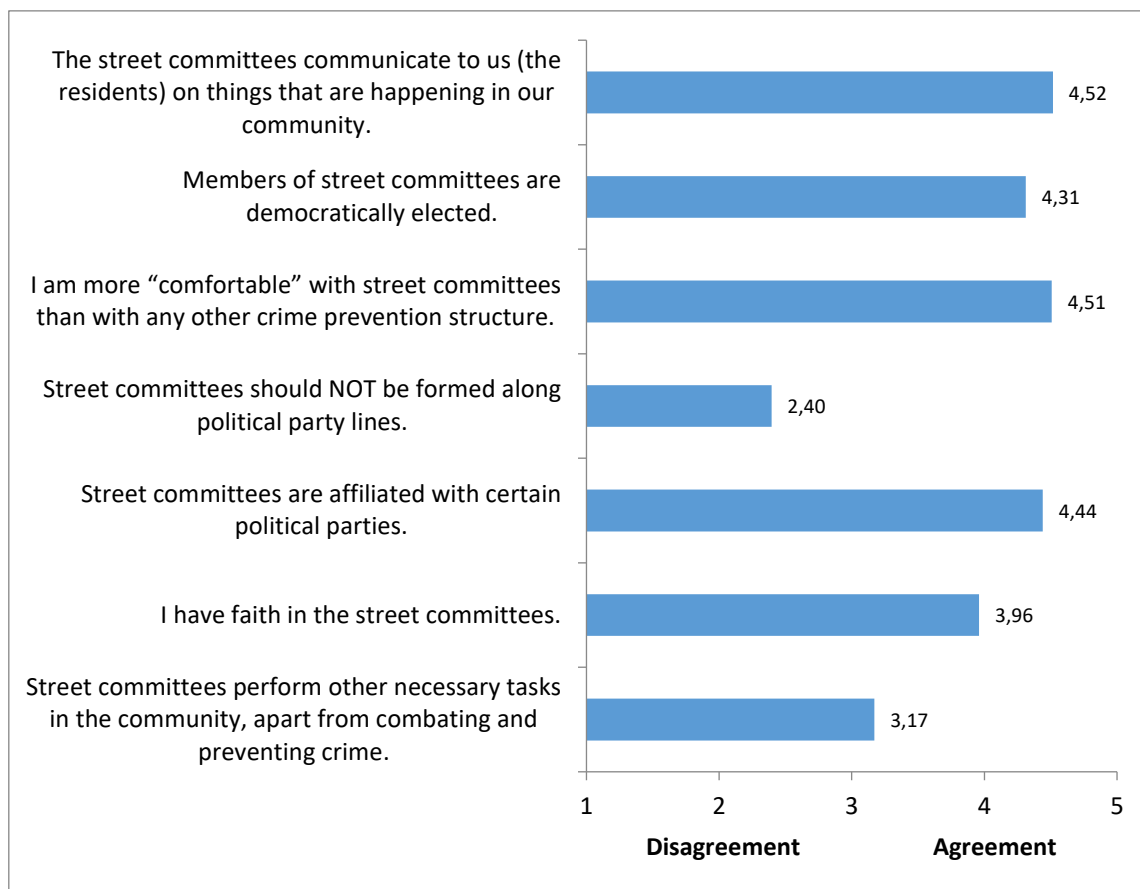


Figure 8.6: Perceptions of community residents regarding street committees

There was significant agreement that SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime; that people have faith in SCs; and that SCs are affiliated with certain political parties. Moreover, a significant number of respondents agreed that SCs should NOT be formed along political party lines; that people are more "comfortable" with SCs than with any other crime prevention structure; that members of SCs are democratically elected; and that SCs communicate to the residents on goings-on in their community.

The graphs below (Figure 8.7, Figures 8.8, 8.9 and 8.10), show the mean agreement scores for the two townships per item.

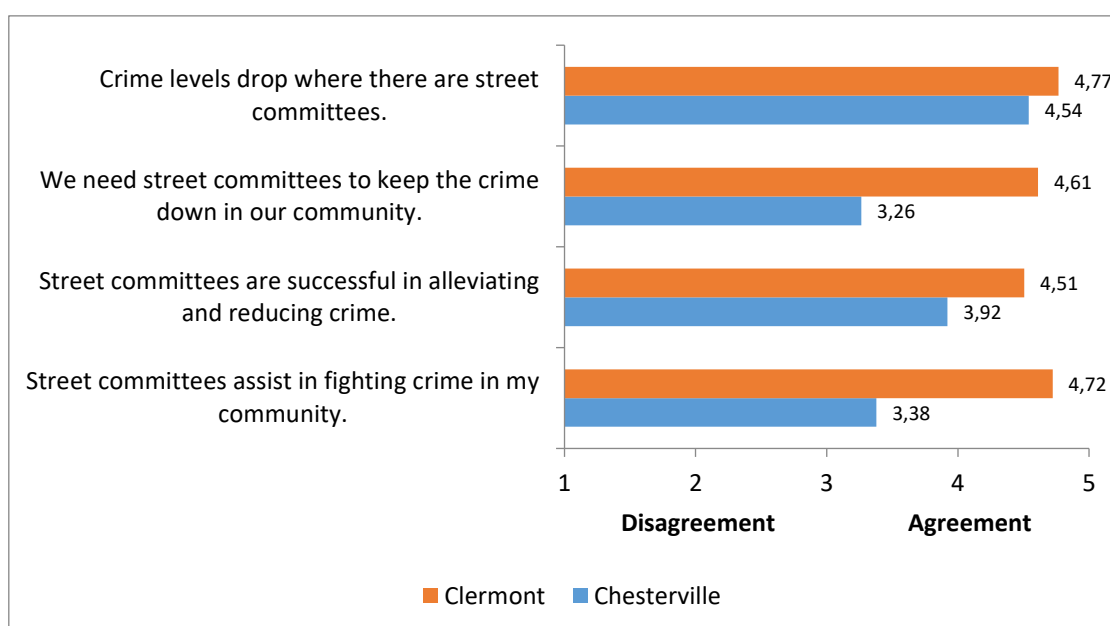


Figure 8.7: The use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont

The findings presented in the foregoing figure (Figure 8.7) reflect that the use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont assists in dropping crime levels.

6 SCs assist in fighting crime

There was a significant agreement that SCs assist in fighting crime in the two communities. A mean of 4.77 was reflected in Clermont whilst a mean of 4.54 was reflected in Chesterville.

7 SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime

There was a significant agreement that SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime in Clermont and Chesterville Townships respectively. A mean of 4.51 was reflected in Clermont whilst a mean of 3.92 was recorded for Chesterville.

8 SCs are needed to keep crime levels down in the community

There was a significantly positive agreement that SCs are needed to keep crime levels down in the communities of Clermont and Chesterville. A mean of 4.61 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.26 was recorded for Chesterville.

9 Crime levels drop where there are SCs

There was a significant agreement that crime levels drop where there are SCs. This was observed in both Clermont and Chesterville. A mean of 4.77 was observed for Clermont, whilst a mean of 4.54 was observed for Chesterville.

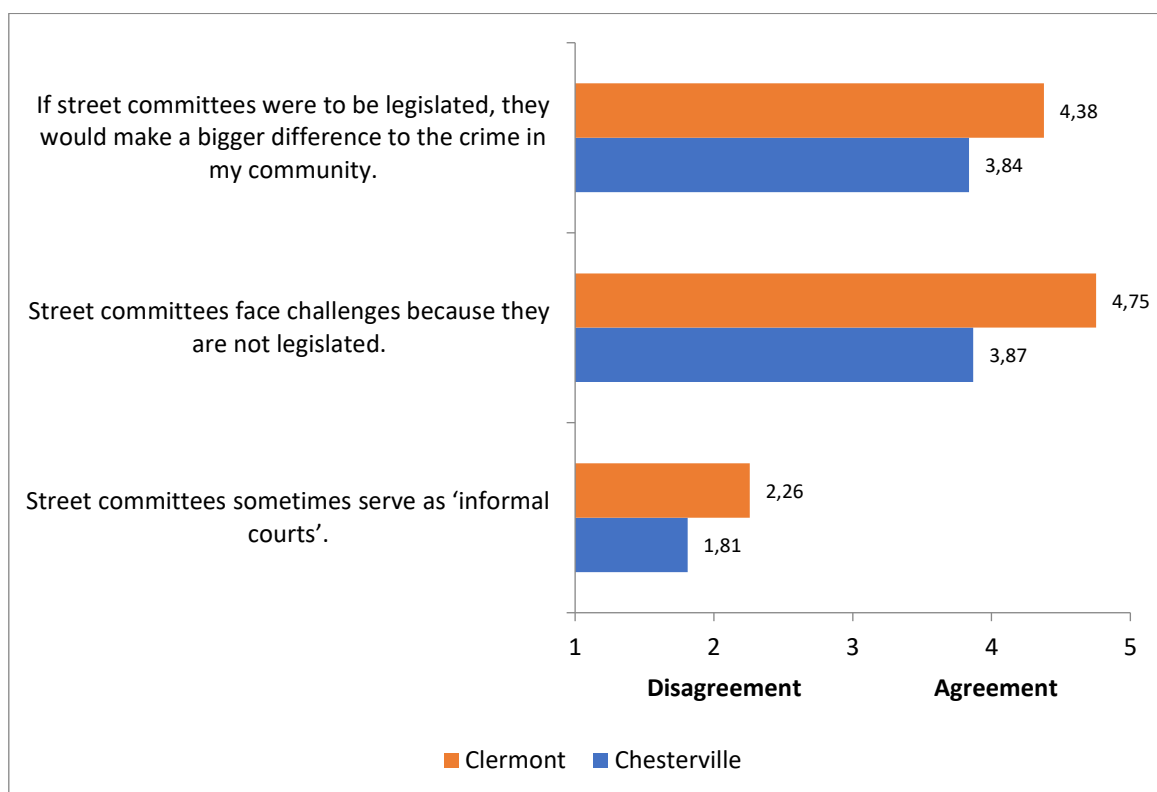


Figure 8.8: Role of legislation in street committees

The findings presented in the foregoing figure (Figure 8.8) on the use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont indicate that SCs face challenges because they are not legislated.

10 If SCs were to be legislated, they would make a significant difference to the crime in the community

There was a significant agreement that if SCs were to be legislated, they would make a significant difference to the crime in the Clermont and Chesterville communities respectively. This demonstrates the need for the legislation of SCs in the respondents' opinion. A mean of 4.38 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.84 was recorded for Chesterville.

11 SCs face challenges because they are not legislated (there was a significantly higher agreement in Clermont than there was in Chesterville).

There was a significant agreement in both Clermont and Chesterville that SCs face challenges because they are not legislated. This strongly calls for the legislation of SCs. A mean of 4.75 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.87 was recorded for Chesterville.

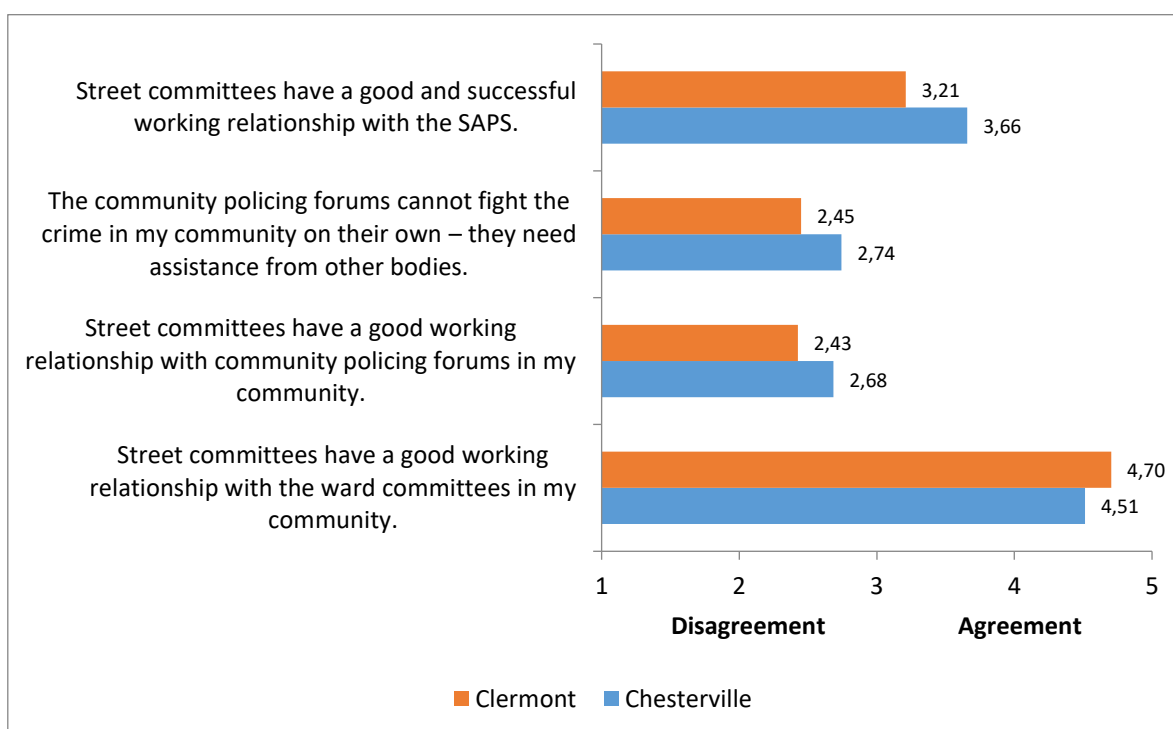


Figure 8.9: Relationship between street committees and other bodies

The findings presented in the foregoing figure (Figure 8.9) illustrate that the use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont is recommended since SCs have a good working relationship with ward committees.

12 SCs enjoy better and more successful working relations with the SAPS.

There was a significant agreement that SCs have a better and more successful working relationship with the SAPS. Despite the non-statutory character of SCs, the SAPS still recognise and work with them. A mean of 3.21 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.66 was recorded for Chesterville. The SAPS and SCs' good working relationship was valued more highly in Chesterville than in Clermont despite a higher number of respondents in Clermont.

13 SCs enjoy better working relations with the WCs (an overwhelming majority supported this).

There was a significant agreement that SCs enjoy better working relations with the WCs. Most of the respondents made this observation about the existence of a better working relationship between SCs and WCs in both Clermont and Chesterville Townships. A mean of 4.70 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 4.51 was recorded for Chesterville.

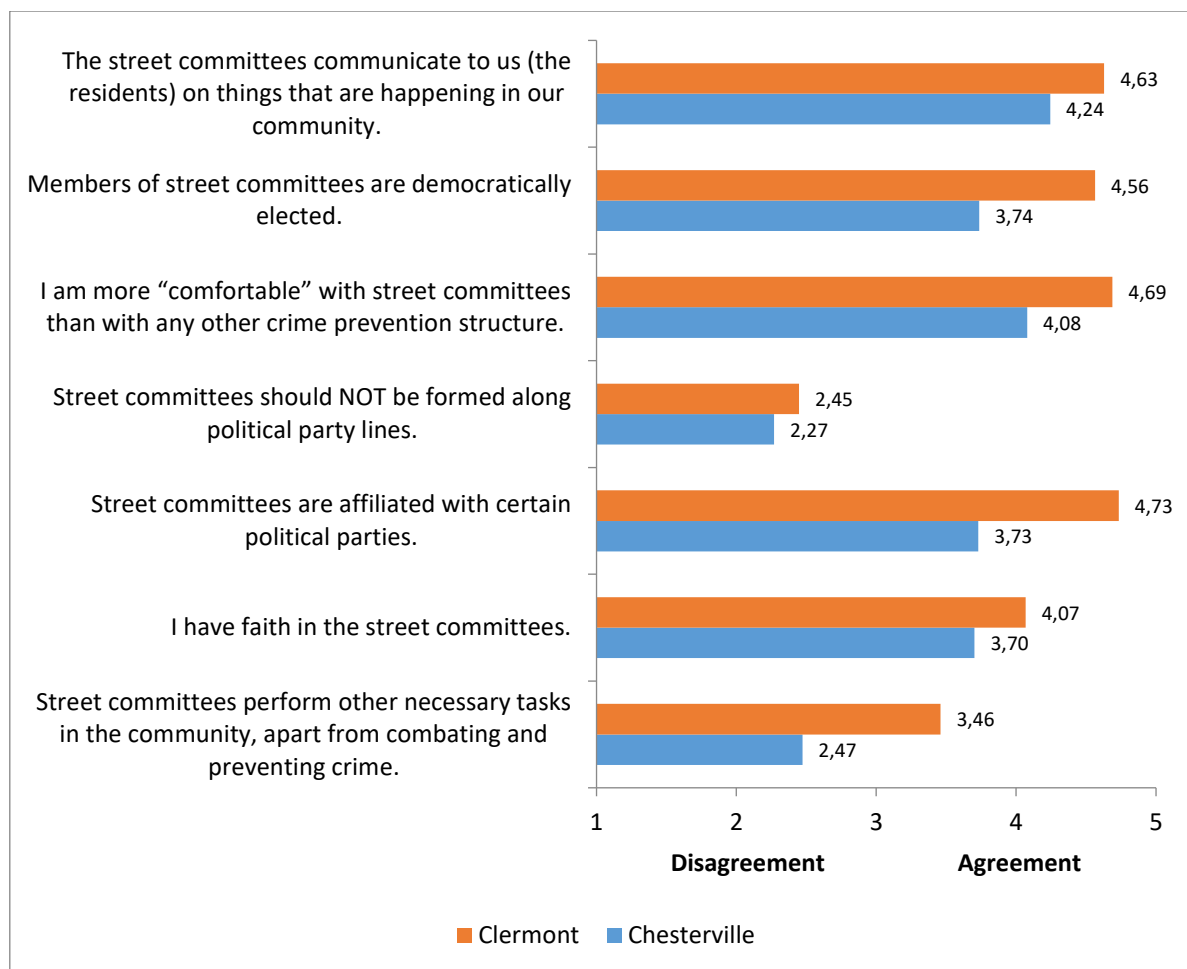


Figure 8.10: Perceptions of community residents regarding SCs

The findings presented in the foregoing figure (Figure 8.10) concerning the use of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont indicate the following:

14 SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime.

A significant agreement was observed that SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community apart from combatting and preventing crime. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:7), SCs were perceived to be efficacious crime-managing structures including responding to key service delivery issues that include water, sanitation, health and the provision of infrastructure. A mean of 3.46 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 2.47 was recorded for Chesterville.

15 People have faith in the SCs.

There is a significant agreement that people have faith in SCs in both Clermont and Chesterville Townships. People have faith in SC because SCs are not imposed as are WCs and CPFs and arise from the streets or community meetings. A mean of 4.07 was recorded for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.70 was recorded for Chesterville.

16 SCs are affiliated with particular political parties.

There is a significant agreement that SCs are affiliated with particular political parties. This was observed in both Clermont and Chesterville. This is because SCs in SA were introduced through the liberation struggle and were attached to the ANC. A mean of 4.73 was observed for Clermont and a mean of 3.73 was recorded for Chesterville.

17 SCs should NOT be formed along political party lines.

There is a significant agreement that SCs should not be formed along party political lines. The respondents believe that for SCs to be objective and perform to the best of their abilities, people should partake in them irrespective of their political association. SC members are nominated regardless of their political affiliation (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7). A mean of 2.45 was observed for Clermont whilst a mean of 2.27 was observed for Chesterville.

18 People are more “comfortable” with SCs than with any other crime prevention structure.

There is a significant agreement that people are more comfortable with SCs than with any other crime prevention structure in the communities of Clermont and Chesterville. People find it easy to interact with SC members as these are well known people who reside in the same street as community members. A mean of 4.69 was recorded for Clermont and a mean of 4.08 was recorded for Chesterville.

19 Members of SCs are elected democratically.

A significant agreement exists that members of the SCs are elected democratically in the townships of Clermont and Chesterville. SC members are elected during street meetings where every member stands a chance of being elected by virtue of being a street resident. A mean of 4.56 was reported for Clermont whilst a mean of 3.74 was recorded for Chesterville.

20 SCs communicate with residents about anything occurring in their community.

A significant agreement was obtained from the respondents from both Clermont and Chesterville that SCs communicate with them about things that are happening in their respective communities. There is a concern from communities that WCs and CPFs do not report back to their communities about issues that affect their communities but that is not the case with SCs. A mean of 4.63 was reported for Clermont whilst a mean of 4.24 was reported for Chesterville.

8.2.1.4 Open-ended questions

This section of the survey questionnaire was intended to solicit respondents' **perceptions** on various relevant aspects of the research. It illuminates on objective four (4) of the thesis which elucidates the perceptions of community residents on SCs. The respondents that participated in the research identified matters that they perceived as significant areas to be considered in the SC research. These are summarised below:

- a) Government should take care of the committees, as they work hard, and they are not paid.
- b) We request government to become involved in ensuring that street committees are legislated.
- c) We hope that government will one day acknowledge the role played by street committees.
- d) Street committees have worked well with the community. People will feel safe, and crime will go down in our communities if they are legislated. In Clermont and Kwa-Dabeka, they would be especially useful.

- e) It is important that street committees have the necessary tools to fight crime and that a strategy for fast communication be devised.
- f) Committees would work well if the police helped them when they needed them. Some members end up facing criminals on their own. The police need to protect committees so that they are productive. The police need to accompany street committee members when they face criminals on their own.
- g) We feel neglected as street committee members.
- h) I believe that street committees need to be coordinated by the Safer Cities Office of the Municipality. They need to be based at street level but legislated properly.
- i) In the past, people were deterred by the street committees, but now it is different, and the crime rate is escalating.
- j) Our government has failed dismally to protect its citizens fully. Community Policing Forums and street committees need to work together, whatever political parties they stand for.

8.2.1.5 Synopsis of the quantitative data analysis

The analyses of the quantitative data demonstrated the following concerning the respondents' demographics:

- Most of the respondents were males (60%)
- Most of the respondents were between 41 and 60 years (62.3%)
- Most of the respondents were from Clermont (70%), and 30% were from Chesterville
- A significant 92% had served on SCs
- About half (57.5%) of the respondents were employed during the survey
- Approximately half (51.5%) of the respondents had stayed between 30-50 in their respective areas

There was significant **agreement** concerning the following:

- SCs assist in fighting crime
- SCs are successful in alleviating and reducing crime
- SCs are needed to keep crime levels down in the community

- Crime levels drop where there are SCs
- If SCs were to be legislated, they would make a more significant difference to the crime in the community
- SCs face challenges because they are not legislated (there was a significantly higher agreement in Clermont than there was in Chesterville).
- SCs enjoy better working relations with the WCs (an overwhelming majority supported this)
- SCs enjoy better and successful working relations with the SAPS.
- SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime
- People have faith in the SCs
- SCs are affiliated with particular political parties
- SCs should NOT be formed along political party lines
- People are more “comfortable” with SCs than with any other crime prevention structure
- Members of SCs are elected democratically
- SC communicate to residents about the occurrences in their community

There was **average agreement** that SCs play a role in crime prevention, although this was significantly higher in Clermont (M=4.64, median=5) than it was in Chesterville (M=3.73, median=4), $p<.0005$.

A significant number of respondents **disagreed** with the following:

- The SCs serve sometimes as “informal courts”
- The CPFs cannot fight crime in the community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies
- SCs enjoy a good working relationship with CPFs in their community

Some of the respondents’ personal views revealed that there is a **need** for the following:

- Involvement of government in SCs
- Availability of necessary tools for SCs to deal with crime

- Cooperation between the police, CPFs and SCs
- Police protection of SC members from criminals
- Involvement of Safer Cities (an eThekweni Municipality department) in the coordination of SCs

The following section presents the results (findings) of the analysis of the qualitative data (interviews).

8.2.2 Presentation of the analysis of the qualitative data (interview data)

As specified in the methodology chapter, the study involved mainly qualitative data collected through personal interviews with eight former UDF members, four from Chesterville and four from Clermont townships. All the selected participants were telephoned to request their participation in the study, to which they all agreed. Conducted at their respective councillor's offices, the interviews were audio-recorded.

The recorded data were edited, cleaned, transcribed, coded, and placed into various categories.

The following sub-sections present the findings of the analysis:

- Sub-section 8.2.2.1 presents a demographic profile the interview participants.
- Sub-section 8.2.2.2 presents the analysis of the qualitative data in terms of the research objectives.

8.2.2.1 Demographic profile of interview participants

Eight respondents from Chesterville and Clermont in eThekweni were selected purposively for the interviews. Four respondents were from Clermont and four were from Chesterville. One (1) female participant was from Chesterville and one participant (who chose not to answer the question about gender) was from Clermont. Six males participated in the study. About seven participants were in the 41-60 age group and only one participant was in the 61 and above age group. No participants were currently involved in SCs. Seven participants had participated in, and been coordinators of, SCs in the 1980s. One participant had participated in, and been a convenor of, SCs from the 1970s until after 1994. All the participants were students at the time of being on SCs.

8.2.2.2 Analysis of qualitative data presented in terms of the research objectives

Table 7.25 below reflects the research objectives, the interview questions, and the themes of the qualitative data.

Table 8.25: Objectives, interview questions and themes

No.	Objective	Interview questions	Theme(s)
1.	To examine the role of street committees in the prevention of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Why were they formed? 2. How were they formed? 3. Who was on street committees? 4. What role did they play in the community? 5. Did they get involved in crime prevention and how? 6. Did they occupy any other roles (apart from crime prevention) within the community? 7. Please tell me about the street committees in the present day 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community custodians • Nodes of knowledge sharing • Evolution of street committees
2.	To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Do you think street committees should be legislated? Why? 2. What benefits would there be in legislating street committees? 3. What are the challenges faced by street committees in the absence of legislation? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Restore order • Socio-economic development • Institutional impediments

No.	Objective	Interview questions	Theme(s)
3.	To explore the relationship between street committees, ward committees and community policing forums in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. What is a ward committee and what is its role in the community? 2. What is a community-policing forum? What role does it occupy in the community? 3. What relationship (if any) does the street committee have with these two bodies? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legitimacy • Abused • Visible performance • Misunderstood and overlapping roles

Source: Researcher's interview data (2021)

Objective 1: To explore the role of street committees in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

As the role of SCs in crime prevention in the township of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban is complex, it was best examined by exploring SCs past and present. The findings of the data indicated that SCs in the past had no training in crime prevention. Moreover, they had no relationship with the SAPS because it was distrusted and seen as serving the wishes of the apartheid government. Some of its members were armed, but, overall, SCs had a common goal and plan, which was crime prevention that was street based. After apartheid, when South Africa became democratic, SCs were replaced with CPFs, which share some characteristics with SCs. Two themes emerged regarding the role of SCs in the two townships: (1) community custodians and (2) nodes of knowledge sharing.

Community custodians

The findings indicated that SCs came about because of stressful social issues facing the communities of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area during apartheid. The primary issue was crime, but other social issues were the political climate and racial discrimination regarding educational opportunities and resource allocation. SCs were made up of various members of civil society and political activists but were referred to as Mandela Plan organisations because they were influenced by members of movements engaged in the political struggle against apartheid. These included the

ANC and organisations affiliated with, such as COSAS, and other movements, such as the UDF and AZASO. Their aim was to conscientise communities about apartheid and its injustices. A participant expressed the following:

...the Mandela Plan ones were dealing with conscientising people seeing to it that people were aware of their political climate and social order and seeing to it that people participated in politics to liberate themselves, by participating in stayaways, in consumer boycotts, mobilising women, mobilising the youth into galvanising youth into action, discipline of everyone and tackling the matters that were touching the Black people i.e., education” (Interviewee 1).

Another participant stated as follows:

SCs played a role of safeguarding comrades’ interests, to avoid detention and arrests, prevent criminality within the community” (Interviewee 2).

At street level, SCs dealt with social issues negatively affecting the general community and local businesses, such as crime, family disputes, issues relating to poverty and education. In this regard, participants stated the following:

... you would find out that an activist who is taking part in the SC is also involved in the COSAS activities and he reports what is going on in the schools in general also there were people from the governing bodies.....they would even get into domestic affairs and the churches and the schools (Interviewee 1).

SCs were the ears and the eyes of the people, they were the protectors of the people at street level (Interviewee 3).

In addition, SCs were kangaroo courts, which were unofficial community courts recognised only by community members of streets. These courts undermined the apartheid judicial system, which was unfair, biased and showing no objectivity, and communities no longer had confidence in it. SCs united communities because people relied on them. They served the interests and wishes of the people as well as representing them in social order. Participants expressed the following:

They dealt with disciplinary matters (Interviewee 5).

These structures were very effective to combat crime, to unite the communities, people had something that they could rely on, regarding family matters, where we were checking the poor people, who lived below the poverty line to check if they could be assisted, also funerals, there were people who could not bury their loved ones, we also conducted by SCs for those who could not fend for themselves, sometimes becoming peacemakers in the domestic affairs, where the others felt the youngsters were losing respect so those SCs were able to restore order in the families (Interviewee 1).

...many roles, social and economic, and environmental roles (Interviewee 6).

They played both a political and a social role, political education, dealing with domestic matters, defence, role of the struggle, why people were oppressed. They played a crime prevention role, but and other myriad of roles including information dissemination, education, social, developmental, etc. (Interviewee 7).

Nodes of knowledge sharing

The findings of the data analysis revealed that beyond addressing social issues facing communities, SCs occupied a key role as nodes of knowledge sharing. They shared information about planned stayaways, customer boycotts and mobilising women/youth to resist apartheid. Participants expressed the following:

SCs were meant to push the theory of the ANC and to conscientise people and to make them aware of what was going on in South Africa at that present moment (Interviewee 1).

...others were convenors, others relayed information, communication matters, on employment (Interviewee 5).

Served as warning sign to the comrades. It alerted comrades about any danger, about the presence of the police, SADF, special branch (Interviewee 4).

...we would patrol and have certain demarcated areas where we would spot the police as they were the enemy so was Inkatha, so we would man Clermont entrances to protect it not only against criminals but also against invasion by Inkatha (IFP) amabutho (warlords) and as a tool to communicate, they played more than a crime prevention role (Interviewee 3).

SCs also played a key role not only in sharing information relating to the struggle and social issues facing families on the street but also gathering it. Participants stated as follows:

...elect street committee members or task people with responsibilities of gathering or disseminating information and provide feedback (Interviewee 4).

...it was to identify those who defaulted, identify domestic abuse, know each other. They carried weight because of know your neighbour element (Interviewee 6).

One participant made the following comment:

They were used for social and political reasons (Interviewee 7).

Evolution of street committees

While CPFs replaced SCs after apartheid, the findings revealed that although in many respects, they are not the same, they do share the common goal of crime prevention. However, CPFs are ineffective, not visible, and politicised. Moreover, a CPF is a community structure not owned by the community they represent and protect. When asked whether CPFs were in touch with the communities, participants made the following remarks:

Yes, and to some extent. Their main challenge is invisibility and lack of credibility. People perceive them as corrupt (Interviewee 8).

Yes, they are the eyes and ears of the councillor though they are undermined (Interviewee 7).

Yes, they are but the street committees now are different from the erstwhile ones. The old ones were 100 per cent in touch with the community. The current ones are clouded as they tend to be aligned with a particular political party, so if you are member of a different political party, you are not taken seriously even if you are a community member who needs assistance, by SC members because they are like soldiers of a local councillor, they support the councillor of a particular party (Interviewee:3).

However, other participants commented as follows:

No, we don't know their duties and they are dwarfed by CPF, if they were there would be no need for electricity vehicles, water vehicles and other government vehicles to be escorted by the security to the townships (Interviewee 4).

No, they are controlled by the councillor (Interviewee 6).

Participants were asked to propose how CPFs could be improved and made effective. Various strategies were identified, such as improving legislation, retraining and letting CPFs be run apolitically by the people. A participant had the following to say:

they need to be trained to separate between, their membership of political parties and their role as members of street committee as they get clouded and end up thinking that they are foot soldiers that represent the ruling party in that ward. Training is important and it should be clear, their role should be clearly clarified and reduce their geographical scope, it would be better if they go back to the original street committee concept (Interviewee 3).

While another commented as follows:

They should be legislated (Interviewee 1).

Objective 2: To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

The findings of the data analysis indicated that there was collective agreement that SCs need to be legislated so that they can restore law and order as well as ensuring socioeconomic development. However, SCs face institutional impediments to achieving these goals.

Restore order

The problem of crime has never been as much of an issue as it is now in South African communities, especially in townships. When South Africa became a democracy and socioeconomic challenges increased, the crime rate became higher than before and out of control. The study's findings indicated that the current high crime rate in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont is a post-1994 phenomenon, which SCs could address if legislation empowers them restore order. Participants explained how SCs could restore order if supported by legislation:

...they will serve as the mechanism to restore back order and hope in our communities as they will be working with legitimised structures (Interviewee 1).

...if there is legislation everybody will know limitations and boundaries within which they can act, because if they are not it becomes difficult for them to know the, what and the, what not (Interviewee 3).

...they will bring back hope in the society that has lost hope: desperate society, they will assist in the law-and-order enforcement (Interviewee 1).

Socioeconomic development

Beyond restoring order as well as a sense of pride and hope in the communities of Chesterville and Clermont, SCs could address issues of socioeconomic development with legislative support. Participants referred to crime affecting the community not only in the streets but also within homes and institutions of learning, for example, and mentioned that if SCs have the legal authority to intervene, crime prevention in those spaces would address socioeconomic challenges. The Participants explained various ways that SCs could intervene:

...assist School governing bodies in tackling school issues. Presently we are experiencing GBV and SCs will help. This will also assist SC members to be employed (Interviewee 1).

...employment purposes and if we are serious about fighting crime, SCs need to be part of our daily lives... crime rate will go down. And they will get incentives (Interviewee 4)

There will be reduction in crime, there will be development ...they... will be paid a salary and feel important, and no more exploitation (Interviewee 7).

Institutional impediments

The findings of the qualitative data analysis indicated the SCs face obstacles caused by the institutional (governmental) environment. For example, because they are not legislated, SCs do not fall under specific Acts, such as the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 or the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998, which means they do not receive proper funding, community recognition and support. Participants expressed the following:

...they don't have a clear job description, councillors feel insecure (Interviewee 1).

They are not recognised by local communities... (Interviewee: 7).

They don't get the necessary support that they need. They are sometimes overload (Interviewee 8).

...jurisdiction, exploitation, poverty, abuse by councillors (Interviewee 5).

Before anything can be legislated it must get recognition by the civil society...
(Interviewee 2).

...people will know exactly what to do and what not to do, will understand their limitations. Will create a uniform approach in all street committees” (Interviewee 3).

It was also identified that the institution of the SC itself faces internal challenges because of inadequate legislation, such as its members’ lack of safety and of remuneration for their efforts. Participants had the following to say:

Safety and fear for their lives. Not employed, no benefits, no recognition, etc.
(Interviewee: 4).

...street committees will have a budget if they are legislated, they need to have stipends, like CCG, like EPWP staff, since most street committee members are unemployed (Interviewee 6).

Legislation needs to enable SCs to restore order and contribute to socioeconomic development. Their role, jurisdiction and limitations need to be clearly identified by the law. They have the potential to succeed in keeping the communities of Chesterville and Clermont safe and in uplifting them socioeconomically, just as they succeeded in fighting against apartheid.

Objective 3: To explore the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

The relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area is complex because their original roles differed. The SCs original role was unofficial and multifaceted: ensuring socioeconomic development and resisting apartheid in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont. Whereas those of the WCs and CPFs were official and involved local governance, in the case of the former, and policing crime, in the case of the latter. Thus, the findings of the study indicated that although the relationship between the SCs, WCs and CPFs is defined by the legitimacy of the WCs and CPFs, the lack of coordination/visible performance and overlapping roles point to the need for SCs to perform some of their functions.

Legitimacy

WCs and CPFs are legitimate because they are legislated and acknowledged by the Constitution. WCs are viewed as working with local government councillors, in addressing service delivery issues, planning and development in the communities. Participants had the following to say about WCs:

...works within the constitution, it works with the councillor and it deals with service delivery (Interviewee 1).

...implemented in accordance with the legislation. Can be so effective because they are working with local government structures which include community development initiatives (Interviewee 2).

WC is created by a statute, it is a committee that is elected by the community to represent community aspirations within that ward, they help the councillor of the ward to provide services to the community (Interviewee 3).

Municipality's instrument that the municipality talks to when it intends to bring service delivery... it to assist the councillor for service delivery to happen correctly, democratically and fairly" (Interviewee 4).

It is committee that is responsible for service delivery (Interviewee 7).

A Ward Committee is legislated committee by Council, that performs some duties in their respective communities" (Interviewee 8).

Abuse of WC Institution

However, sometimes the WC institution is abused by individuals, such as municipal councillors, or by its own members for various reasons, such as the relationship between it and the councillor.

Some CPF and WC members are perceived as not in the institutions for a genuine reason. Participants expressed the following:

...it's just the people who are there for self-enrichment (Interviewee:1).

...there is a power struggle between a councillor and a ward committee. Councillor does not see the importance to inform the ward committee about ward developments. Councillor does not divulge the projects that are coming up those

in the pipeline, they only draw a salary and then there is nothing after that...
(Interviewee 6).

For a ward committee meeting to seat it must have a blessing from the councillor
(Interviewee 2).

While CPFs are created to assist police in fighting crime in a community while being a link between the community in a ward and the police, the study found that this role is abused:

CPF members collude with the police and become friends and harass those who do not see eye to eye with CPF members. They accompany the police to arrest the enemies of the CPF members (Interviewee 6).

It is imperative the CPFs build good relations between the police and the community because there was no relationship in the past apartheid era when the role of the police was to ensure that apartheid laws were adhered to by communities, which led to atrocities being committed. According to the South African Constitution, the police should respect all people's rights in the society that they serve. The paramilitary method of policing is not suitable in a democratic SA, as it is imposing and oppressive.

Visible performance

The findings indicated that the CPFs are not seen to be performing their function. Although CPFs are a replacement of SCs, they are not respected by communities, even if they are made up of community members. This is because the CPF institution is sometimes abused by its members; moreover, CPFs have not diminished the crime rates in communities. Their role is not recognised because they are not receiving their mandate or orders from the community.

People are willing to take part but can't be fooled with toothless tools (Interviewee 1).

...if it was in existence there would be no need for security vehicles accompanying municipality vehicles to the townships (Interviewee 4).

(The WC) is not visible, they don't engage with the community (while the CPF is) not active... invisible, all government structures are not visible (Interviewee 7).

Misunderstood and overlapping roles

The relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs is very complex because of the overlap of the roles of these institutions. Although the role of SCs was not seen as needed anymore after the fall of apartheid, when they were replaced by CPFs who are legislated, they remain active in some areas because of the failure of CPFs to address crime. However, the overlapping roles lead to misunderstanding of each institution's functions, including those of the SCs' that are sometimes viewed as political. One participant expressed the following:

...SCs must be formed by the people whom the people have faith in, not politically connected individuals. SCs should be apolitical and play a lesser political role. In the old days there were 2 types of SCs (Interviewee 1).

The above response highlights the mistrust the community members have of political organisations. What is also critical about this response is that if SCs are not politically affiliated, they will represent everybody, as all the people will feel connected to them. According to CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:7), SC members should be elected, irrespective of their political leanings. Moreover, they should receive official recognition:

If SCs can be supported and get recognition from government structures they can be functional, they must be recognised and be provide with facilities like the cell phones, laptops, so that they can easily perform and interact with government structures (Interviewee 2).

One participant saw SCs in the past (during apartheid) as a legitimate structure/institution:

...they were more the legitimate structure of the community. All these newly launched structures have no credibility as there is no consultation with the community. They are all useless and just a waste of taxpayers' money (Interviewee 7).

Those who believed that SCs exist today believed they should have never been replaced by CPFs:

I am still not happy about why street committees were abandoned. Street committees were not supposed to be abandoned. We would not be in this mess of drug trafficking, human trafficking, house breaking, school and clinics burglaries where school equipment are stolen if they were still in existence. SCs were the

strong weapon of the community in terms of easily identifying the culprits as there is no case without witnesses (Interviewee 6).

Nevertheless, the overlapping of the institutions remains a problem that might be solved if municipal councillors play a limited role in organising and coordinating these institutions, as well as clearly defining their roles. Participants stated the following:

There is a need for “workshopping them, explain each one’s role in the community to achieve the set objectives (Interviewee 8).

(CPFs and WC) need to be scrapped and reformulated in consultation with the community (Interviewee 7).

They must know their roles and lines of demarcation... do not know their tasks. They fail to understand that if they could cooperate and work together, nothing would be ‘unaddressable’. They should understand that they are all meant to develop the communities (Interviewee: 6).

They need to be revived and be trained and be given objectives and aims that can give direction but if there is no revival, they are doomed, education can also play a role (Interviewee 5).

Councillors must not be involved in these processes ... you find that a SC member is found to be a WC member and a CPF member whereas a CPF member is not supposed to be doing other things other than crime” (Interviewee 2).

When apartheid fell, political emancipation was achieved, and the SCs’ role ceased to exist in the eyes of many because they were not legislated structures or official institutions of the new democratic South Africa. SCs were replaced with CPFs who are legislated.

In communities, socioeconomic problems never ceased to exist post-apartheid, which led to unprecedented crime in the townships. Crime has not been alleviated or prevented by the legalised CPFs that do not have the trust of the community. Moreover, the CPFs lack coordination and the institution is often abused. The roles of SCs that remain in existence to contribute to the fight against crime overlap with those of CPFs. Thus, their role needs to be clearly defined as stated by one participant:

There is a “need to be upgraded in terms of the information, in terms of empowering them, exclusively describe the role they play, so that each member’s role of the Street Committee does not overlap with each other (Interviewee 8).

The section below provides a discussion of the results of the data analysis in relation to the literature review.

8.3 DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

The next section presents a discussion of the findings of the data analysis that were presented and interpreted in the section above. In addition, these findings are discussed considering findings from the literature review.

8.3.1 Objective 1: The role of street committees in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

The literature revealed that SCs assisted communities in dealing with crime because of the absence of trust in the police service during the apartheid era (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7). A critical role of SCs is to represent the people in preserving law and order in the community, which is a local governance concern (Mngqibisa, 2009:7). The findings of the analyses of both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the role of SCs in Chesterville and Clermont is the alleviation and prevention of crime. In addition, the following themes: (1) community custodians, (2) nodes of knowledge sharing, and (3) evolution of street committees emerged from the analysis of the qualitative data.

8.3.1.1 Community custodians

The literature confirms that in addition to crime prevention, SCs have performed other community development tasks. They have demonstrated their efficacy in responding to significant service delivery issues, such as “water, sanitation, health, and infrastructure” (CRA/Vukukhanye, 2010:7). The research findings revealed that SCs have evolved over time in that their complexion is different from that of the days of apartheid. Suttner (2003) asserts that SCs were an underground movement of the ANC known as the M-Plan. Popular justice in South Africa was different to other expressions of justice in the townships because the people involved in it had been voted by the community and were answerable to the people (Nina, 1993:134).

8.3.1.2 Nodes of knowledge sharing

The literature states that SCs were responsible for imparting political knowledge to the community. They conducted political classes about apartheid. The research findings illustrated that SCs are perceived as nodes of knowledge sharing.

According to Vukukhanye (2009:7), SCs are road delegates that comprise the heart of civic society and enable crime prevention by means of speedy information dissemination and provision of education to the public.

8.3.1.3 Evolution of street committees

The literature states that SCs have evolved with time. The study found that communities feel that CPFs, which replaced SCs in some communities post-1994, are ineffective, not visible, politicised, and as community structures, not owned by the very community they represent and protect.

The study found that although people felt very close to the SCs in the past, the same could not be said about the current SCs (post-1994) or about the CPFs. CPF members collude with the police and become friends and harass those who do not see eye to eye with CPF members. They accompany the police to arrest the enemies of the CPF members.

8.3.2 Objective 2: To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

An analysis of relevant literature confirmed that no Act obliges municipalities to acknowledge SCs as official representatives of the community. Thus, the literature avers that SCs are not legislated, which was confirmed by both the quantitative and qualitative study findings. However, these findings also indicated that legislation of SCs would allow them to play their role in crime prevention effectively. The following themes: (1) restore order, (2) socioeconomic development, and (3) institutional impediments emerged from the analysis of the qualitative data.

8.3.2.1 Restore order

According to the findings, SCs will be able to maintain law and order if they are legislated. SC members are not covered by any legislation, and thus are not paid any

salary or stipend. SC members perform their tasks out of pure patriotism and volition. If they are legislated, SCs will be able to officially restore law and order since they reside in the streets, and they are known by all the street residents.

8.3.2.2 Socio-economic development

A theme that came out of the both the quantitative and qualitative study was that SCs could play a role in socioeconomic development and service delivery since they are involved in many communities' socioeconomic issues.

The literature confirms the socio-economic role of SCs. Nzimande (2008: 4) maintains that due to the closeness of the SCs to the people and based on their knowledge of the 1980s, they are well positioned to help the community in overcoming a variety of community challenges. These include famine; orphans; child-headed homes; the need for social grants; family violence, and so forth (Nzimande, 2008: 4).

8.3.2.3 Institutional impediments

According to the literature, local government legislation provides for the formation of WCs led by ward councillors who are part of municipal councils. Van Rooyen and Mokoena (2013:766) argue that the key purpose of WCs is to aid constitutionally designated ward councillors to fulfil their directive to represent the ward community actively.

Structures that include WCs, CPFs, and so forth, are legislated, which means they are institutionalised. SCs encounter impediments since they are not accommodated by any piece of legislation. SCs do not fall under specific Acts, such as the Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000 or the Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998. SCs are therefore deprived of any form of proper funding, community recognition and support.

SC institution encounters internal contests because of lack of legislation, such as its members' lack of safety and of compensation for their efforts. Legislation needs to empower SCs to maintain order and occupy a pivotal role in socioeconomic development. Their status-role, influence and domain need to be clearly delineated by the law. SCs possess the ability to succeed in keeping Chesterville and Clermont communities safe and in elevating them socioeconomically, just as they succeeded in fighting against apartheid.

The findings of the analysis of the qualitative data indicated that because of not being legislated, SCs are faced with institutional impediments. Unlike WCs, SCs are not covered by any Act of Parliament. Numerous challenges faced by SCs would be resolved by legislation and recognition by government. Currently, SCs do not undergo any training. Moreover, they are exposed to risky situations and undermined by other community structures.

8.3.3 Objective 3: The relationship between street committees, ward committees and community policing forums in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.

According to the study findings, the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban is complex, as SCs are not covered by legislation. The following themes emerged from the qualitative data analysis: (1) legitimacy, (2) abused, (3) visible performance, and (4) misunderstood and overlapping roles.

8.3.3.1 Legitimacy

According to Minnaar (2010:192), the Interim Constitution Act 200 of 1993 made provision for CPFs. In view of the way in which black communities were policed in the past, the Interim Constitution viewed CPFs as an instrument through which black citizens could establish a relationship with police for effective service delivery (Minnaar, 2010:192). According to Mabunda (2018:93), the Community Policing Policy Framework and Guidelines (South African Police Service, 1998) and the 1996 Constitution of the Republic of South Africa make provision for and support the police in improving the conditions for better relations in the communities in which they work.

The literature confirms the constitutionality of CPFs and WCs. WCs and CPFs are viewed as legitimate because they are legislated and recognised by the South African Constitution. However, the community still has more confidence in the SCs despite them not being legislated. CPFs are not SCs. SCs are elected by the street members or residents democratically at the street level. It is the street members who run the elections without government involvement. This was the case during and post-apartheid. While CPFs, in the government's perception, are SCs or a continuation of SCs, this is not the case on the ground and in the eyes of the community because SCs receive no remuneration from the government. The work that SCs perform is voluntary.

The municipality does not have any role in the formation of SCs. The government, including municipalities, councillors, MECs and cabinet ministers recognise the role of SCs in combatting crime but do not act to legislate them or influence their legislation.

8.3.3.2 Abuse of CPF and WC Institution

The findings indicated that CPFs and WCs are abused or perceived to be abused by some of their community members. Some CPF and WC members are seen as not being part of these institutions for genuine reasons (Malatji, 2016). Moreover, CPFs are further abused by station commanders who choose who serves in them rather than allowing the people to choose. According to Malatji (2016:32) available reports indicate that, there are no functioning CPFs in certain police stations in the country. This means there is no bond between citizens and the police, which leads to ineffective communication and a lack of information sharing. As a result of the abuse suffered by CPF and the WC structures, the communities that they serve have lost faith, trust and confidence in them and this has led to the continued trust in the SCs.

According to Malatji (2016:34), certain communities, particularly in black areas, do not have complete faith in the police — this is how people felt about the police during apartheid — and are thus unwilling to be involved in any CPFs. CPFs and WCs are controlled by the police and ward councillors, which means that they are not fully in touch with the community. The police actions, particularly during the apartheid epoch, still reverberate in the minds of numerous individuals in South Africa (Zondo, 2012:7).

8.3.3.3 Visible performance

The findings indicated that the CPFs are not seen to be performing their function. Although CPFs are a replacement of SCs, they are not respected by communities, even if they are made up of community members. This is because the CPF institution is sometimes abused by its members; moreover, CPFs have not diminished the crime rates in communities. Their role is not recognised because they are not receiving their mandate or orders from the community.

The findings indicated that SCs are independent and democratically voted bodies located in a specific street/cell/block that deal with issues relevant to the immediate area in which the SC members reside. WCs and CPFs will never enjoy the same

status as that of SCs in the community because of their history and the close relationship that communities have with SCs, which is not true of WCs and CPFs.

8.3.3.4 Misunderstood and overlapping roles

The findings revealed that the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs is very complex because of the overlap of the roles of these institutions. The following is a discussion of their roles.

Although the role of SCs was not seen as needed anymore after the fall of apartheid, when they were replaced by CPFs who are legislated, they remain active in some areas because of the failure of CPFs to address crime. However, the overlapping roles lead to misunderstanding of each institution's functions, including those of the SCs' that are sometimes viewed as political.

SCs address community issues such as family violence, disobedient children, alcohol abuse and anti-social behaviour, including loud music. SC members go beyond crime prevention matters to address other social and domestic problems.

CRA/Vukukhanye (2010:8) explains that SCs are dynamic civic structures whose envisioned purpose is to help with community development and service delivery, and to be the people's voice. According to Vukukhanye (2009:7), SCs are road delegates that comprise the heart of civic society and enable crime prevention by means of speedy information dissemination and provision of education to the public.

According to Skuse and Cousins (2007:991), SCs are vital autonomous instruments for the communication of government procedures, and township residents regard them as such. Skuse and Cousins (2007:991) accentuate that these committees allow for a "textured, interpenetrated expression of traditional forms of governance such as *imbizos*, a form of traditional meeting where a chief listens to his people's complaints and concerns, within a modern framework of democratic norms and values".

The objective of the WCs is mainly to establish a conducive atmosphere for participating democracy (Section 72 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act 117 of 1998). Consequently, WCs assist as bodies whose purpose is to enhance community engagement. They are one of the ways of empowering communities to

have a say in the government decisions. Similarly, Van Rooyen and Mokoena (2013:766) argue that the key purpose of WCs is to aid constitutionally voted councillors to fulfil their mandate to serve the ward community actively.

CPFs enhance the link between the police and citizens, nurture shared problem solving and collaborate with the police with a view to improving the police's delivery of services to the citizens to whom they are accountable. A CPF performs a critical oversight function on behalf the community when working with the police in a particular sector. This function ensures the efficacy of the services that the police provide, reassures the community, and encourages the collaboration of the public that it safeguards. According to Pelser (2003:13), another role of a CPF is to make the community's wishes known to the police and aid them in fulfilling these wishes. The police need the citizens' assistance and cooperation to prevent crime (Palmiotto, 2011).

The roles of SCs, CPFs and WCs are clearly delineated in theory. The most conspicuous difference between the three bodies is that CPFs and WCs are legislated, whilst SCs are not. In addition to this glaring difference, the main function of WCs is to create a suitable environment for community participation. It is a constitutional prerequisite that WCs are formed, whereas it is the aspirations of the community that SCs are formed. CPFs are formed to improve communication between the police and the public, whereas SCs are formed to enhance communication within the community. Some roles of SCs and CPFs do overlap since both structures deal with crime prevention.

8.4 DATA CONVERGENCE

The quantitative and qualitative data analyses resulted in cohesive and comprehensive findings. Moreover, these findings converged in relation to the study's main aim which investigated the role of SCs in crime prevention and specific objectives and the findings of the literature review.

The findings clearly indicated that SCs occupy a critical role in crime prevention. The role of SCs before 1994 is like their role today, despite their non-legislated status then (and now) and the existence of other crime prevention bodies. Despite SCs not being properly coordinated currently, the community still believes in them for crime

prevention. However, legislation of SCs could have numerous spin-offs. Communities would be secured, as SCs would be legally working jointly with them. SCs members would be operating within a legal framework, which would mean that they would be remunerated like members of other legislated bodies and undergo induction and necessary training.

The relationship between WCs and SCs is very strong according to 82.3% of the respondents in the survey. However, the relationship between SCs and CPFs needs improvement. About 36.2% of the respondents strongly disagreed that the relationship between SCs and CPFs is good, and about 21.5 % disagreed with the statement. However, the SCs relationship with WCs is stronger than that with CPFs. One of the reasons for this is that WCs are chaired by councillors, moreover, in the case of Chesterville and Clermont respectively, these are ANC-aligned councillors, whereas CPFs are manned by SAPS.

This could also be based of rivalry since SCs are democratic in nature and are elected by the community, whereas the election of CPFs is questionable. Rivalry could also be derived from the nature of work in which the two bodies are involved. Legitimacy could also be another factor since WCs and CPFs are legislated, whilst SCs are not. Legislation of SCs could harmonise the relationship.

SCs are viewed as the most community-orientated crime prevention bodies. Moreover, communities strongly feel that SCs perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime, and community members have faith in them. However, community members feel that they are affiliated with certain political parties, although they should not be formed along political party lines. Nevertheless, most people are still more comfortable with SCs than with any other crime prevention structures. The community ensures that members of SCs are democratically elected, and SCs keep the public informed about goings-on in their community.

8.5 SUMMARY

This chapter presented, interpreted, and discussed the results of the analyses of the qualitative and quantitative data collected from selected residents of Chesterville and Clermont townships in the EMA of KZN. The next chapter states the research aim and objectives; gives an overview of the chapters of the thesis; makes recommendations;

describes the study's contribution to knowledge; offers suggestions for further research; and presents the conclusion.

CHAPTER NINE

CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter states the research aim and objectives; gives an overview of the chapters of the thesis; makes recommendations; describes the study's contribution to knowledge; offers suggestions for further research; and presents the conclusion.

9.1.1 Research aim and objectives

The main aim of the research undertaken in this thesis, as mentioned in Chapter 1, was to explore the prevalence and the alleviation of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area of the KZN Province. The precise objectives of the investigation were the following:

1. To examine the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area
2. To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.
3. To explore the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area
4. To explore the perceptions of community residents with regard to SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

The study aimed to acquire answers to the following research questions that informed the investigation:

1. What is the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
2. What role can be performed by legislation to formalise and recognise SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?
3. What is the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?

4. What are the perceptions of community residents with regard to SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area?

9.2 OVERVIEW OF CHAPTERS

The study was divided into eight chapters:

Chapter 1 provided an introduction, the outline, and the background to the study.

Chapter 2 presented a philosophical and historical overview of community participation in local governance as the focus of the study was on the role of street committees in the prevention of crime in selected townships in the EMA.

Chapter 3 explained relevant legislations that focus on community participation in local governance.

Chapter 4 elucidated the functions, uses and relevance of street committees. It provides a case study of street committees in Chesterville.

Chapter 5 explained international strategies, international best practice and national crime prevention strategies in Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Africa (BRICS) and the Southern African Development Community (SADC).

Chapter 6 focussed on research paradigms, worldviews and explained methods and designs.

Chapter 7 focussed on the analyses of the data and the discussion of the findings.

Chapter 8 summarises all the preceding chapters, provides recommendations based on the study and makes concluding remarks.

9.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings the following recommendations can be made:

9.3.1 Recommendation 1: Acknowledgement of the role of street committees in combatting crime

This recommendation is aligned to Objectives 1 and 2. To examine the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.

To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.

Most respondents agreed that SCs occupy a pivotal role in combatting crime. Consequently, it is recommended that local government acknowledge the role of SCs in crime prevention. SCs should be utilised in the townships to alleviate crime. The municipality's function is to plan for crime prevention and to collaborate with the police and community members who can play a role in the alleviation of crime (Landman & Liebermann, 2005:25). The modus operandi of SCs is like that of public security committees found in China that follow policing strategies to control crime. According to Chen (2002:3), these bodies perform a significant role in managing numerous community control and establishing law and order.

It can be concluded that SCs can perform a significant role in combatting crime and they need to be formalised by legislation or local policy frameworks. Sections 13 and 14 of the Municipal Systems Act of 2000 accord municipalities the authority to pass by-laws. According to the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, Section 13, a by-law passed by a municipal council:

- (a) must be published promptly in the Provincial Gazette and when feasible, also in a local newspaper or any other practical way to bring the contents of the by-law to the attention of the local community:
- (b) takes effect when published or on a future date determined in or in terms of the by-law.

Municipalities, in terms of the Municipal Systems Act of 2000, have the authority to pass by-laws. The municipality must take its directive from the provincial government for the effective implementation of municipal by-laws. This should also hold true for publication purposes.

According to Section 14 (1) of the Municipal Systems Act of 2000,

(a) the minister, at the request of organised local government representing local government nationally, or after consulting the MECS for local government and organised local government, may, by notice in the Gazette — (i) make standard draft by-laws concerning any matter, including standard draft rules and orders referred to in section 160(6) of the Constitution, for which municipal councils may make by-laws; and (ii) amend any standard draft by-laws made in terms of subparagraph (i). (b) Before making any standard draft by-laws or amendment in terms of paragraph (a), the minister must: (i) publish the proposed standard draft by-laws or amendment in the Gazette for public comment; and (ii) consult the cabinet member concerned if those standard draft by-laws or amendments affect that cabinet member's area of responsibility.

According to subsection (2), (a) an MEC for local government, on request by organised local government representing local government in the province, or after consulting the minister and organised local government, may by notice in the Provincial Gazette - (i) make standard draft by-laws concerning any matter for which municipal councils in the province may make by-laws; and (ii) amend any standard draft by-laws made in terms of subparagraph (i).

(b) Before making any standard draft by-laws or amendment in terms of paragraph (a), the MEC must— (i) publish the proposed standard draft by-laws or amendments in the Provincial Gazette for public comment and (ii) consult the MEC concerned if those standard draft by-laws or amendments affect that MEC's area of responsibility.

(3) (a) A standard draft by-law or an amendment to a standard draft by-law is applicable in a municipality only if, and to the extent and subject to any modifications and qualifications, adopted by the council of that municipality. (b) The repeal of a standard draft by-law after it has been adopted by a municipality does not affect the continuation of that by-law in that municipality.

(4) If a municipal council intends to adopt a standard draft by-law with or without any modifications or qualifications, it must follow the procedure set out in Section 12 (3) and, after adoption, publish the by-law in accordance with Section 13. According to

Section 14 of the Municipal Systems Act, municipalities may easily and quickly pass by-laws provided they follow the stipulated legal procedures.

Improved legislation or public policy can occupy a pivotal role in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.

9.3.2 Recommendation 2: Resurrection of street committees

This recommendation is aligned to objective 1. *To examine the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.*

Most respondents supported the role of SCs in crime prevention, which calls for the revival of existing SCs that are non-functional, the strengthening of those that function, but are weak, and the formation of SCs in areas where they do not exist. According to Pelser and Louw (2002:3), the expectation that police will deal with crime on their own contributes negatively to crime prevention. Police require community involvement in preventing crime, hence a call for the resurrection of the SCs.

9.3.3 Recommendation 3: Legislation of street committees

This recommendation is aligned to objective 2. *To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

The study found that most of the participants (73.1 %), felt that SCs are abused since they are not legislated. The legislation of SCs is therefore recommended. One of the roles of legislation in SCs today in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont is the restoration of order. Legislative support would mean that SCs have the authority to establish law and order and prevent crime in the townships. SCs need ratification through regulation and governance (Dosoudil, 2018).

According to Dosoudil (2018), ward councillors are convinced that SCs will intensify community participation and improve communications. Legislation would allow SCs to drive their own process and assist ward councillors in identifying and resolving issues

specific to a street. Presently, the councillors cannot reach all their people and SCs would be a great help.

9.3.4 Recommendation 4: Relationship between SCs, community policing forums and ward committees to be enhanced and their roles to be clearly defined.

This recommendation is associated with objective 3. *To explore the relationship between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

Most of the respondents, approximately 82.3% believed that SCs enjoy better relationships with WCs and CPFs but also felt that WCs and CPFs are not visible enough and their roles are not clearly defined. They also do not interact with the community, as do the SCs. The community cannot define the role of CPFs and WCs. It is therefore recommended that government clearly define the roles of WCs and CPFs. This would ensure that they are visible and entrenched in communities, as are SCs.

9.3.5 Recommendation 5: Training of street committees

This recommendation is associated with recommendation 1. *To examine the role of SCs in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.*

If SCs are revitalised or established as recommended above, members should be trained to perform their duties effectively. The researcher therefore recommends appropriate and continuous training of SCs. Adato *et al.* (2005), mention the incapacity of SCs and recommend that they undergo an induction process to be appropriately informed about the functioning of local government and their role in local governance. Mngqibisa (2009:28), explains that the ineffectiveness of local SCs should not be used as reasons to exclude them from decision-making processes. It is vital that they are not just spectators when decisions about their own communities and lives are taken. Dosoudil (2018), explains that SC members could be trained as trainers in trainer workshops, with the intention of continual skills transfer within and between communities. Mabunda (2018:105), in one of his studies conducted in Soshanguve Township in SA, recommends that all participants in partnership policing should

undergo retraining to empower them to function efficiently in the partnership. They should be encouraged to undertake training in diversity, problem identification and solving and community policing so that they can comprehend the underlying dynamics in community policing.

9.3.6 Recommendation 6: Resolve tensions between the street committees, ward committees and the local councillor

This recommendation is associated with objective 3. *To explore the relationships between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

Although, according to the respondents there was generally a good relationship between WCs and local municipal councillors, there are also tensions between SCs, WCs and the local councillor, which need to be addressed. Respondents mentioned that the councillor tends to undermine these community structures. The study recommends the intervention of the authorities to resolve these tensions.

9.3.7 Recommendation 7: Review of the role of community policing forums in combatting crime

This recommendation is associated with objective 3. *To explore the relationships between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

Respondents were mostly negative about the performance of CPFs in combatting crime and expressed their unhappiness and dissatisfaction with the ability of CPFs to combat crime. About 56.2% of respondents felt that CPFs could not fight crime alone. The study recommends the review of the role of CPFs in combatting crime. Crime prevention agencies, such as CPFs, fail in their duties of preventing crime. According to Skogan and Hartnett (1997:12), partnership policing demands a substantial paradigm shift in the way that police officers imagine their status, role and responsibilities. According to Pelser and Louw (2002:1), crime prevention is not a clear-cut matter, which means that WCs, CPFs and other statutory structures cannot alleviate crime alone.

9.3.8 Recommendation 8: Role that improved legislation or public policy can play in formalising and recognising the roles of SCs.

This recommendation is linked to objective 2. *To assess the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.*

It is recommended that the government takes into account recommendations made by communities on public policies or involve communities in choosing appropriate crime prevention bodies. The fact that people still have confidence in SCs demonstrates the lack of involvement of the community in matters that affect them. The government is known for establishing structures without community involvement and without any information to justify their choice. Including the community in local government decisions will promote successful policy implementation. Each community has a different history and attempts to replicate success stories from one locality to another are misplaced.

9.3.9 Recommendation 9: Non-partisanship of street committees

This recommendation is aligned with objective 4. *To explore the perceptions of community residents with regard to SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

SCs are perceived as linked to political parties, especially the ruling party. This is not only due to the history of SCs but also because there has been a call by a former ANC president and other senior officials for the resurrection of SCs. However, it is recommended that SCs should not be formed along party lines. More community members, regardless of their political affiliation, would take part in SCs if they were invited, whereas they would not if SCs were associated with a political party.

9.3.10 Recommendation 10: Street committee and South African Police Service partnership

This recommendation is aligned with objective 3. To explore the relationships between SCs, WCs and CPFs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area

Respondents strongly felt that SCs are doing a good job in crime prevention. Respondents also felt that there is a harmonious relationship between SCs and the SAPS (35.4 % of the respondents strongly agreed and 16.9% agreed). Moreover, the SAPS should work closely with SCs since the latter need help in facing dangerous criminals. Partnership between SCs and the SAPS is therefore recommended. Moreover, according to Pelser and Louw (2002:3), the expectation that police can deal with crime on their own contributes negatively to crime prevention. A lack of partnerships/resources and the history of SA are among the challenges that contribute to crime in the townships (Minnaar, 2010:190). Without SCs and the proper co-ordination of crime prevention agencies, crime will continue.

9.3.11 Recommendation 11: Broad policy recommendation

This recommendation is aligned to objective 2. To explore the role that improved legislation or public policy can perform in formalising and recognising the role of SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area.

A broad policy is hereby proposed for a municipal by-law to formalise how SCs can be incorporated or can be linked formally to WCs. This policy will delineate how the municipality should go about forming SCs in all crime-stricken wards or communities.

A policy or by-law that is aimed at forming street committees to combat and alleviate crime is recommended and should be adopted by the eThekweni Municipality. This policy should encourage communities to form SCs in their respective areas. Councils should take part through their Community Participation, Security Management or Safer Cities Units to form SCs in the community. SC members, like WC members, should be trained, inducted and paid a salary by the municipality.

9.3.12 Recommendation 12: Platform for community to recommend community programmes

This recommendation is linked to objective 4. *To explore the perceptions of community residents regarding SCs in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area*

Communities should be encouraged to recommend, through community participation using WCs and other available prescripts, programmes such as SCs to the municipality. The council should adopt by-laws as recommended by communities through WCs or other legislative avenues. However, this could be unsuccessful, as communities find it difficult to persuade the council to adopt by-laws that they recommend. According to Boshoff (2008:1), it seems that municipalities lack institutional capacity, skills and the knowledge for the development and execution of policies.

9.4 THE STUDY'S CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

One limitation of the investigation was that even though research has been conducted on crime prevention carried out by other structures, such as community policing forums, there is hardly any information about SCs. This thesis has therefore contributed research, information, and knowledge about SCs. In addition, the study contributed information and improved comprehension about the role of SCs in crime prevention in selected townships of eThekweni municipality. The research study has created grounds for future research that might use the knowledge that it generated, thereby narrowing the gap in the existing body of knowledge on the role of SCs in crime prevention. This thesis has contributed to the role that should be performed by the government in policy formulation, by-laws and so forth in consultation with community structures.

Furthermore, the research has contributed information and understanding about other crime prevention structures. Therefore, it may assist local municipalities, provincial/national government, politicians, and experts in understanding crime prevention strategies in general.

9.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

Further research on the role of SCs in crime prevention needs to be conducted. They do operate in SA, despite not being legislated, because the community has faith in them. The study was confined to Chesterville and Clermont townships in eThekweni. It is recommended that similar studies on SCs be conducted in other municipalities in the province of KZN.

However, there are numerous townships elsewhere in the country, either where SCs once existed or where they are still operational. Future research could therefore explore other townships and provinces in SA, which could also assist in the validation of the study findings. In addition, future research could focus on whether SCs should report to the local councillor or to another civic organisation. In fact, research conducted on other aspects of the role of SCs in the community could also prove valuable.

9.6 CONCLUSION

The empirical study explored the role of SCs in the alleviation of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the EMA of KZN. The study participants were former UDF and MDM leaders and former/existing SC members. Chapter 7 presented the findings of the data analysis and discussed them. This chapter stated the research aim and objectives; gave an overview of the chapters of the thesis; made recommendations; described the study's contribution to knowledge; and offered suggestions for further research.

The understanding and knowledge accrued by the study led to a recognition that SCs occupy a key role in crime prevention. This thesis concludes by re-emphasising the need for further research on the role of SCs in crime prevention. As long as crime haunts the community, there will be a need for research on suitable and efficacious crime prevention structures in the community.

REFERENCES

- Adams, E. & Zulu, L. .2015. Participants or Customers in Water Governance? Community Public Partnerships for Peri-Urban Water Supply. *Geoforum*, 65(1): 112–124.
- Adedokun, A., 2017. Emerging challenges to long-term peace and security in Mozambique. *The Journal of Social Encounters*, 1(1), pp.37-53.
- Afify, A.M.N., 2011. Challenges and advantages of community participation as an approach for sustainable urban development in Egypt. *Journal of sustainable development*, 4(1), pp.23-36.
- African National Congress (ANC), 1994. The reconstruction and development programme: A policy framework. African National Congress.
- African National Congress (ANC). 2010. Report of the 3rd National General Council held at the Durban Exhibition Centre Durban (eThekweni), 20-24 September 2010: Political Report of ANC President Jacob Zuma.
- African National Congress (ANC). 2019. Statement of the National Executive Committee on the occasion of the 107th Anniversary of the African National Congress. 8 January 2019. [Online] Available at: <https://37ugp72ofsp25ltkb3ajwvg-wpengine.netdna-ssl.com/wp-content/uploads/Jan-8-Statement-2019-final-final.pdf> (Accessed: 24 April 2019).
- Almalki, S., 2016. Integrating Quantitative and Qualitative Data in Mixed Methods Research--Challenges and Benefits. *Journal of education and learning*, 5(3), pp.288-296.
- Anyebe, A. 2018. An Overview of Approaches to the Study of Public Policy. *International Journal of Political Science (IJPS)* Volume 4, Issue 1, pp. 8-17 ISSN 2454-9452 <http://dx.doi.org/10.20431/2454-9452.0401002> www.arcjournals.org

- Arnstein, S.R., 1969. A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of planners*, 35(4), pp.216-224.
- Ayón, C., Messing, J., Gurrola, M., & Valencia-Garcia, D. 2017. The oppression of Latina mothers: Experiences of exploitation, violence, marginalization, cultural imperialism, and powerlessness in their everyday lives. *Violence against Women* 24 (8):879–900. doi:10.1177/1077801217724451. [Crossref], [PubMed], [Web of Science ®], [Google Scholar]
- Babbie, E. (2008). *The Basics of Social Research*. (4th Ed.). Thomson Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E. (2011). *The practice of social research-12*. (12th Ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. 2001. *The Practice of Social Research*. South African Edition. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.
- Batley, R., & Rose, P. (2011). Analysing collaboration between non-governmental service providers and governments. *Public Administration and Development*, 31(4), 230-239.
- Bénit-Gbaffou, C., 2006, October. Police-community partnerships and responses to crime: Lessons from Yeoville and Observatory, Johannesburg. In *Urban forum* (Vol. 17, No. 4, pp. 301-326). Springer Netherlands.
- Berg, J. (2013). *Civilian oversight of police in South Africa from the ICD to the IPID: police practice and research*. Routledge: Taylor and Francis Group.
- Bertelsen, B.E. and Chauque, A., 2015. Policy Brief III Crime and Security in Maputo, Mozambique. *CMI Brief*, 14(3).
- Bezuidenhout, C. 2019. Policing in the Multi-Cultural and Multi- Ethnic Environment of South Africa. In J. F. Albrecht, G. den Heyer, & P. Stanislas. (Eds). *Policing & Minority Communities- Contemporary Issues & Global Perspectives*. Springer Nature: Switzerland AG.

- Bhattacharjee, A., 2012. Social science research: Principles, methods, and practices. [Online] Available at: <http://scholarcommons.usf.edu/oa-textbook/3>. (Accessed: 2 April 2017).
- Booyesen, S., 2007. With the ballot and the brick: the politics of attaining service delivery. *Progress in development Studies*, 7(1), pp.21-32.
- Boshoff, W.H. 2008. Policy making for local government excellence in the Free State Province. Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of masters in public management. Central University of Technology, Free State. Bloemfontein 2008
- Botha, A.F., 2015. Vigilantism in South Africa in the pre-and post-1994 periods: causes, similarities and differences. *Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology*, 28(3), pp.16-33.
- Brandsen, T., & Honingh, M. 2015. Distinguishing Different Types of Coproduction: A Conceptual Analysis Based on the Classical Definitions. *Public Administration Review*. Vol 76 Issue 3. pp.427-435.
- Braun, V., & V. Clarke. 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 3 (2):77–101. doi:10.1191/1478088706qp063oa. [Taylor & Francis Online], [Google Scholar]
- Brown, I. and Wocha, C., 2017. Community participation: Panacea for rural development programmes in Rivers State, Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Environment & Ecology*, pp.1-13.
- Buhlungu, S., Daniel, J., Southall, R., & Lutchman, J., (Eds). 2006. *The State of the Nation 2005-2006*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.
- Bureau of Justice Assistance. 1994. *Understanding Community Policing: A Framework for Action*, Monograph August 1994 NCJ 148457.
- Burger, J., 2015. *Strategic perspectives on crime and policing in South Africa*. (9th Ed.). Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Burman, S. and Schärf, W., 1990. Creating people's justice: Street committees and people's courts in a South African city. *Law and Society Review*, pp.693-744.

Centre for Civic Education, United States of America. 2009. [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.civiced.org/index.php?page=introduction>> (Accessed: 3 October 2011).

Chabane, C., 2009. Improving government performance: our approach 2010. *Pretoria: Minister for Performance Management Monitoring and Evaluation in the Office of the Presidency*.

Chen, X., 2002. Community and policing strategies: A Chinese approach to crime control. *Policing & Society*, 12(1), pp.1-13.

Chicago Community Policing Evaluation Consortium. (1995). *Community policing in Chicago, year two: an interim report*. Chicago, IL: Illinois Criminal Justice Information Authority.

Cilliers, S. 2010, February 26. SA is op 'n gevaarlike afdraande, sê Jansen. Beeld, [Online]. Available at: <http://www.beeld.com/Content/SuidAfrika/Nuus/1928/d3657e34bb9148bcabf7de9b52654a59/26-02-2010-1231/SA_is_op_%E2%80%99n_gevaarlike_afdraande,s%C3%AA_Jansen> (Accessed: 27 February 2010).

Civilian Secretariat for Police. 2012. *Community Safety Forums Policy*. Unpublished.

Cloete F., & De Coning, C. 2018. Models, theories, and paradigms for analysing public policy. In: Cloete, F., De Coning, C., Wissink, H. & Rabie, B. (eds). *Improving Public Policy for Good Governance*, 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers, 33-77.

Cloete, F. 2018. Policy agenda setting. In: Cloete, F., De Coning, C., Wissink, H. & Rabie, B. (eds). *Improving Public Policy for Good Governance*, 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers, 137-158.

- Cloete, F., Schlemmer, L. & Van Vuuren, D. 1991. *Policy Options for a New South Africa*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Commins, S., 2018. From Urban Fragility to Urban Stability. *Africa Security Briefs*, (35), p.1.
- Community Law Centre. 2007. Paper 1: Development Local Government. *Determining Appropriate Functions and Powers*. Local Government Project University of Western Cape June 2007.
- Constitution of the People's Republic of China (Adopted at the Fifth Session of the Fifth National People's Congress on December 4, 1982. [Online] Available at: Instrument A1 Assisted Monolingual PDF (English).pdf (elegislation.gov.hk) (Accessed 5 July 2021).
- Cornwall, A. 2008. Unpacking 'participation': Models, meanings, and practices. *Community Development Journal*, 43 (3): 269-283.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/cdj/bsn010>.
- Cossyleon, J. 2019. *Community Policing*. The Wiley Encyclopedia of Urban and Regional Studies. John Wiley and Sons Ltd. DOI:[10.1002/9781118568446.eurs0058](https://doi.org/10.1002/9781118568446.eurs0058)
- CRA/Vukukhanye. 2010. CRA/Vukukhanye: Street Committee Project, UKZN/Business Plan/Draft.
- Crawford, A. 1997. *The local governance of crime appeals to community and partnerships*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Creswell, J.W. and Creswell, J.D., 2017. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (5th Ed.). Sage publications: Los Angeles.
- Creswell, J.W., 2009. *Research Design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods*. (3rd Ed.). SAGE: London.
- Creswell, J.W., 2012. *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting & Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*. (4th Ed.). Pearson: New York

- Creswell, J.W., 2013. *Research design: qualitative, quantitative and mixed method approaches*. (4th Ed.). SAGE Publication: London
- Creswell, J.W., 2014. *Research Design: International Students Edition*. SAGE: London.
- Crowe, T. 2000. *Crime Prevention through Environmental Design: Applications of Architectural Design and Space Management Concepts*. 2nd ed. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Curtain, R. 2003. What Role for citizens in Developing and Implementing Public Policy? Forthcoming in Canberra Bulletin of Public Administration: Australian Public Policy Research Network, p.6.
- Dawson, C., 2002. *Practical research methods: A user-friendly guide to mastering research techniques and projects*. how to books. UK
- De Coning, C. & Wissink, H. 2018. Nature, role and history of public policy. In- Cloete, F., De Coning, C., Wissink, H. & Rabie, B. (eds). *Improving Public Policy for Good Governance*, 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers, 3-31.
- de Filipe, Jnr., J. 2007. 'The experience of Diadema, Sao Paulo, Brazil'. In Shaw. M. & Travers, K. (Ed.), *International Centre for the Prevention of Crime-Strategies and Best Practices in Crime Prevention in particular in relation to Urban Areas and Youth at Risk. Proceedings of the Workshop held at the 11th UN Congress on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice*. Bangkok: Thailand, 18-25th April 2005, Montreal.
- de Maillard, J. & Terpstra, J. 2019. Community policing in comparative perspective. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264079.013.615>. Published online: 25 March 2021
- De Vos, A., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. and Delport, C. (2011) *Research at Grass Roots: For Social Sciences and Human Services Professions*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

De Wet, N., Somefun, O., & Rambau, N. 2018. Perceptions of community safety and social activity participation among youth in South Africa. PLOS ONE 13 (5): e0197549. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0197549>

Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG) and German Agency for Technical Cooperation (GTZ). 2005. *Having Your Say A Handbook for Ward Committees*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Dey, I., 1993. *Qualitative Data Analysis: A User-Friendly Guide for Social Scientists*. London: Routledge.

District Health Information Systems (DHIS) 2022. Anti-retroviral therapy in Chesterville.

Dosoudil, M., 2018. A case study of street committees in enhancing participatory democracy in the Emfuleni Local Municipality and the need for civic education. *Retrieved on, 2*.

Du Plessis, J.A., 2010. Email via Nasionale Belastingbetalers Unie mailing list, 10 February 2010, Intersearch: Strategic Management Intelligence.

Du Plooy-Cilliers, F., Davis, C. and Bezuidenhout, R. (2014). *Research Matters*. Juta and Company Ltd: Cape Town.

Dye, T. R & Zeigler, L.H. 1990. *The Irony of Democracy*. 8th edition. Monterey, Calif: Books/Cole.

Emfuleni Local Municipality (ELM). 2009. Annual Report 2008/2009. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.emfuleni.gov.za/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=85:aannua-reportsandcatid=13:documents&Itemid=93> (Accessed: 23 July 2010).

Emfuleni Local Municipality (ELM). 2010. Annual Report. [Online]. Available at: <www.emfuleni.gov.za> (Accessed: 6 February 2010).

EThekweni Municipality. 2000. Durban Safer City Strategy: 2000

EThekweni Municipality. 2006. Community Participation Policy adopted by Council on 29 June 2006. *Creating an enabling environment for citizens; involvement in matters of eThekweni Municipality*. Community Participation and Action Support Unit. Pinetown.

EThekweni Municipality. 2015/16. SAPS Crime Statistics in eThekweni. [Online] Available at: http://www.durban.gov.za/City_Government/Administration/city_manager/RAPA/Reports/2015-2016%20RAPA%20SAPS%20Crime%20report.pdf (Accessed: 15 July 2018).

EThekweni Municipality. 2017/2018. Integrated Development Plan 5Year Plan: 2017/18 to 2021/22. Adopted by eThekweni Council on 31 May 2017 [Online] Available at: <http://www.durban.gov.za/CityGovernment/CityVision/IDP/Documents/IDP%202017%202018.PDF> (Accessed: 31 August 2018).

EThekweni Municipality. 2017/2018. Draft process plan IDP 2017/2018. Available: <http://www.durban.gov.za>. (Accessed: 20 November 2022).

EThekweni Municipality. 2020. Budget statement report for the month ending 31 May 2020. Available: <http://www.durban.gov.za>. (Accessed: 21 November 2022).

EtheKweni Municipality. 2021/2026. Rules regulating the establishment and operation of ward committees. Approved by eThekweni Municipal Council: 27 January 2022.

Faija, C. L., Tierney, S., Gooding, P.A., Peters, S, & Fox, J.R. 2017. The role of pride in women with anorexia nervosa: A grounded theory study. *Psychology and Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice* 90 (4):567–85. doi:10.1111/papt.12125. [Crossref], [PubMed], [Web of Science ®], [Google Scholar]

Finkel, S.E., 2002. Civic education and the mobilization of political participation in developing democracies. *Journal of Politics*, 64(4), pp.994-1020.

Fleming, J. 2005. *Working together: Neighbourhood watch, reassurance policing and the potential of partnerships*. Canberra: Australian Institute of Criminology.

- Fox, W. and Meyer, I.H., 1995. *Policies for Public Service Transformation*. Eliot Avenue: Creda Press.
- Friedman, S., 2010. Understanding active citizenship in light of protest: A look at the SADC region. (Round table discussion), 8 June 2010 held at Institute for Democracy in South Africa offices in Pretoria.
- Gaventa, J., & Barrett, G. (2012). Mapping the outcomes of citizen engagement. *World Development*, 40(12), 2399–2410.
- Gaventa, J., 2006. Triumph, deficit or contestation? Deepening the 'deepening democracy' debate. Working Paper 264. Brighton: University of Sussex: Institute of Development Studies.
- Geoghegan, T.M. 2019. Promoting public participation in community policing forums: The case of the Stellenbosch Local Municipality. Master of Arts in Public Management and Governance: North-West University.
- Geyer, Y., & Jenkins, I. (Eds.) 2010. Civil Society and the Zuma Government; Opportunities for engagement. Cape Town: Institute for Democracy in South Africa.
- Golafshani, N., 2003. Understanding reliability and validity in qualitative research. *The qualitative report*, 8(4), pp.597-607.
- Groen, C., & Simmons, D. R., & McNair, L. D. (2017, June), *An Introduction to Grounded Theory: Choosing and Implementing an Emergent Method* Paper presented at 2017 ASEE Annual Conference & Exposition, Columbus, Ohio. 10.18260/1-2—27582
- Hajek, C., Giles, H., Barker, V., Makoni, S. and Choi, C., 2008. Reported compliance in police-civilian encounters: The roles of accommodation and trust in Zimbabwe and the United States. *Communicatio: South African Journal for Communication Theory and Research*, 34(1), pp.173-187.

- Heiberger, R.M., Heiberger, R.M. and Burt Holland, B.H., 2015. *Statistical Analysis and Data Display An Intermediate Course with Examples in R*. (2nd Ed.). New York: Springer.
- Heller, P. and Ntlokonkulu, L., 2001. A civic movement, or a movement of civics. *The South*. The South African National Civic Organization in the Post-apartheid Period. [Online]. Available at: <http://web.archive.org/web/20070306081140/www.sanco.org.za/site/media/cps_res earre_on_sanco.pdf> (Accessed: 23 October 2010).
- Heumann, C. and Shalabh, M.S., 2016. *Introduction to Statistics and Data Analysis*. Switzerland: Springer International Publication.
- Heywood, A., 2007. *Politics*. (3rd Ed.). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- His Majesty's Government Programme of Action 2013-2018. *Development Unusual. The Route To The First World Kingdom*. [Online]. Available at: https://www.cabri-sbo.org/uploads/bia/swaziland_2013_planning_external_national_plan_author_region_english_.pdf.
- Hlongwane, M., 2010. Interview with the National President of South African Civics Organization (1996-2007) and former Member of Parliament, 24 October 2010. Vereeniging.
- Hoffman, P., 2010, March 8. Aggrieved rate payers cannot obstruct what does not exist. Business Day Online. [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.businessday.co.za/Articles/Content.aspx?id=95582>> (Accessed: 6 April 2010).
- Holmes, B. 2011. *Citizens' engagement in policymaking and the design of public services*, Research Paper No.1, Parliamentary Library, Parliament of Australia, pp. 1,16,39

- Hough, M., 2008. Violent protest at local government level in South Africa: Revolutionary potential? *Scientia Militaria: South African Journal of Military Studies*, 36(1), pp.1-14.
- Jaitman, L. 2019. Frontiers in the economics of crime: lessons for Latin America and the Caribbean. *Latin American Economic Review*. [Online] Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40503-019-0081-5> (Accessed: 30 June 2021).
- Johar, N. 2017. Community Participation: A Cementing Process, Theorising Various Dimensions and Approaches. *Journal of Construction in Developing Countries*, 22(Supp.1), 47-61.
- Johnson, D., Gibson, V. and McCabe, M., 2013. CPTED, But Not as We Know It: Investigating the Impact of Conflicting Frameworks and Terminology in Crime Prevention through Environmental Design. *Security Journal*, pp.1-20.
- Jones, T. & Newburn, D. 1994. *Democracy in policing*. London: Policy Studies Institute.
- Kelder, J., 12 March 2009. *Fed up towns with hold municipal taxes*. Mail and Guardian. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.mg.co.za/article/2009-03-12-fed-uptowns-withhold-municipal-taxes> (Accessed: 14 March 2010).
- Kelle, U., Kühberger, C. and Bernhard, R., 2019. How to use mixed-methods and triangulation designs: An introduction to history education research. *History Education Research Journal*, 16(1), pp.5-23.
- Khosa, M. 2002. Facts, fiction and fabrication? Service delivery in South Africa under Mandela, *Urban Forum*, Vol.13, Iss.1, pp.38-66. Springer Netherlands.
- Kivunja, C. 2018. Distinguishing between Theory, Theoretical Framework, and Conceptual Framework: A Systematic Review of Lessons from the field. *International Journal of Higher Education*. Vol.7, No. 6.

- Koma, S.B., 2012. 'The Evolution of Developmental Local Governments in South Africa: Issues, Trends and Options.' *Journal of US-China Public Administration*, 9(1), pp.53-67.
- Korstjens, I., and Moser, A. 2018. Series: Practical guidance to qualitative research. Part 4: Trustworthiness and publishing, *European Journal of General Practice*, 24:1, 120-124, DOI: 10.1080/13814788.2017.1375092
- Kothari, C.R., 2004. *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. (2nd Ed.). New Age International Publishers: New Delhi.
- Kotrlik, J.W.K.J.W. and Higgins, C.C.H.C.C., 2001. Organizational research: Determining appropriate sample size in survey research appropriate sample size in survey research. *Information technology, learning, and performance journal*, 19(1), p.43.
- Kruger, T., Lancaster, L., Landman, K., Liebermann, S., Louw, A. and Robertshaw, R. 2016. Making South Africa Safe. *A Manual for Community-based Crime Prevention*. Pretoria: The Council for Scientific and Industrial Research (CSIR)
- Kruger, T., Landman, K. and Liebermann, S. (2006). A CPTED Strategy for Northwest Province. Prepared for the Department of Transport, Roads and Community Safety Northwest Province. CSIR Built Environment.
- Kurukin, A., & Sukharenko, A. 2018. Anti- corruption in the BRICS countries. *BRICS Law Journal*. Volume V, Issue 1.
- KwaZulu-Natal Gaming and Betting Board. 2019. *Saturation Study*. Undertaken by KwaZulu-Natal Gaming Board July 2019. [Online] Available at: SATURATION STUDY (kznngbb.org.za) (Accessed 15 May 2019).
- Lab, S.P., 2014. *Crime Prevention: Approaches, Practices, and Evaluations*. (8th Ed.). London: Routledge.
- Landman, K. and Liebermann, S., 2005. Planning against crime: preventing crime with people not barriers. *South African Crime Quarterly*, (11), pp.21-26.

- Leedy, P.D. and Ormrod, J.E., 2014. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. (10th Ed.). England: Pearson.
- Lodge, T. and Nasson, B., 1991. *All Here and Now: Black Politics in South Africa in the 1980s*. Cape Town: David Philips.
- Lombardo, R.M. & Donner, C. M. 2017. Can Community Policing Increase Residents' Informal Social Control? Testing the Impact of the Chicago Alternative Policing Strategy. *Police Practice and Research*, 19, 5: 427-442, 2017. Retrieved from Loyola eCommons, Criminal Justice & Criminology: Faculty Publications & Other Works, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15614263.1405265>.
- Ludman, B. (2010). City of Johannesburg CPF. Available from: <http://www.joburg.org.za/index.php?option=comcontent&dopdf=1&1d=88>. Accessed 7 May 2022.
- Lysova, A. and Shchitov, N., 2015. What is Russia's real homicide rate? Statistical reconstruction and the 'decivilizing process'. *Theoretical Criminology*, 19(2), pp.257-277.
- Mabunda, D.Q., 2014. *The challenges in establishing partnership policing in Soshanguve* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).
- Mabunda, D.Q., 2018. The challenges of establishing partnership policing in Soshanguve township, South. *Acta Criminologica: Southern African Journal of Criminology* 31(2)/2018
- Macwele, B.M., 2014. *Assessing the impact of integrated service delivery on poverty and employment creation: a case study of Operation Sukuma Sakhe in the eThekweni Metropolitan Municipality* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Madumo, O.S., 2014. Fostering effective service delivery through public participation: A South African local government perspective. *Administratio Publica*. 22(3), pp.130-147.

- Madzivhandila, T.S. & Asha, A.A. 2012. Integrated development planning process and service delivery challenges for South Africa's local municipalities. *Journal of Public Administration*, 47(1.1):369-378.
- Madzivhandila, T.S. & Maloka, C.M. 2014. Community Participation in Local Government Planning Processes: A Paramount Step Towards a Successful Service Delivery. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. 652-657.
- Maiyaki, M.A., Marzuki, A. and Mustafa, R.I.A., 2018. A review of rationale of community participation in urban solid waste management in Nigeria. *International Transaction Journal of Engineering Management and Applied Sciences and Technologies*, 9(3), pp.185-196.
- Makin, D.A. and Marenin, O., 2017. Let's dance: Variations of partnerships in community policing. *Policing: a journal of policy and practice*, 11(4), pp.1-16.
- Malatji, M.M., 2016. An evaluation of the effectiveness of community policing forums in the Makhwibidung Village under Greater Tzaneen Municipality in Limpopo.
- Malawi Government .1998. *National Decentralisation Policy*. Lilongwe: Malawi Government.
- Malawi Government .2013. *Malawi District Development Planning System and Minimum Data Requirements Handbook*. Lilongwe: Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development.
- Manaliyo, J., 2014. Townships as crime 'Hot-Spot' Areas in Cape Town: perceived root causes of crime in site B, Khayelitsha. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(8), pp.596-596.
- Manqele, F. 2021. *Public participation in municipal service delivery in the eThekweni Municipality*. Masters Dissertation. University of Technology, Durban.
- Mariotti, C. 2020. Elite Theory. P. Harris et al. (eds.), *The Palgrave Encyclopedia of Interest Groups, Lobbying and Public Affairs*, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-13895-0_67-1

- Marisa, B. 1996. A ladder of community participation for underdeveloped countries: A center for Development Planning Studies. University of Sheffield. Sheffield SLO 2TN, UK.
- Marko, D., 2010. *Understanding active citizenship in light of protest: A look at the SADC region*. Opening comments at round table discussion, 8 June 2010 held at IDASA offices Pretoria.
- Mashamaite, K., & Madzivhandila, A. 2014. Strengthening Community Participation in the Integrated Development Planning Process for Effective Public Service Delivery in the Rural Limpopo Province. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*. Vol.5, No. 25.
- Masinga, M.R., 2014. *Segregation, desegregation, and re-segregation and the return to Black Townships: a case study of Chesterville Township, Durban* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Masipa, M. (1999). *Street committees returning to cut crime*. The Star, 17 February
- Mathebula. M., 2009. This ain't no peaceful protest. *Vaal Weekly*, 27 Aug. pp.1.
- Mathekga, R. & Buccus, I. 2006. *The challenge of local government structures in South Africa: securing community participation*, Critical Dialogue-Public Participation in Review.
- Mathekga, R., 2006. Participatory government and the challenge of inclusion: The case of local government structures in post-apartheid South Africa. *Colombia Internacional*, (63), pp.88-107.
- Maylam, P. (1983). The "Black Belt": African Squatters in Durban 1935-1950. *Canadian Journal of African Studies*. 17(3): 413-428.
- Mbambo, V.M., 2005. *Community participation in local governance: a systemic analysis of Ethekewini Municipality's design for effectiveness* (Doctoral dissertation). University of KwaZulu-Natal.

- Mbelengwa, S., 2016. *Community participation in the Integrated Development Plan of the City of Johannesburg municipality* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Mchunu, K. & Mtapuri, O. 2020. The Limits to Openness and Tolerance: Theorizing Migration in the Case of Clermont Township. *MANKIND QUARTERLY*. 60.3 382-399.
- Mengistu, B., Pindur, W. and Leibold, M., 2000. Crime and Community Policing in South Africa. *African Social Science Review*, 1(1), p.2.
- Miller, L.S. & Hess, H.M. 2005. Community policing. Partnership for problem-solving. Belmont: Wadsworth.
- Minnaar, A., 2010. The changing face of 'community policing' in South Africa, post-1994. *Acta Criminologica: African Journal of Criminology & Victimology*, 2010(sed-2), pp.189-210.
- Mintrom, M. and Vergari, S., 1996. Advocacy coalitions, policy entrepreneurs, and policy change. *Policy studies journal*, 24(3), pp.420-434.
- Miraglia, P. 2016. Drugs and drug trafficking in Brazil: Trends and Policies. Improving Global Drug Policy: Comparative Perspectives and UNGASS.
- Misra-Dexter, N. and February, J. eds., 2010. *Testing democracy: Which way is South Africa going?* African Books Collective.
- Mkhize, M. C. (2004). *Cultural and Musical Mapping of Chesterville Township*. KwaZulu-Natal Research and Documentation Training Project, University of Natal.
- Mngqibisa, N.I.N., 2009. *The role of street committees in the governance of informal settlements: a case study from Waterworks Township, Grabouw* (Master's thesis, University of Cape Town).
- Mnguni, H., 2009. Street committees are blamed for xenophobia.

- Mohamed, S.E., 2006. From ideas to practice: The involvement of informal settlement communities in policymaking at city level in South Africa. *South African Review of Sociology*, 37(1), pp.35-47.
- Molaba, K.E., 2016. *Community participation in integrated development planning of the Lepelle-Nkumpi Local Municipality* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).
- Molokwane, T. & Lukamba, M.T. 2018. *Citizen Involvement in the Formulation of Public Policy*. The 3rd Annual International Conference on Public Administration and Development Alternatives 04 - 06 July 2018, Stellenbosch University, Saldanha Bay, South Africa
- Morolong, S., 2010. *South African Civics Organization Regional General Council*, Personal interview on 7 November 2010. Vereeniging.
- Mosca, G. (1939). *The Ruling Class*, (Translated by Hannah D. Kahn), New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Moshikaro, A.M. 2015. *The association of political will with performance: A study of selected municipalities in South Africa*. (Doctoral dissertation).
- Motsemme, N. 2011. *Lived and embodied suffering and healing amongst mothers and daughters in Chesterville township, KwaZulu-Natal* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Moyo, PM. 2012. An assessment of community participation in Non-Organizations (NGOs) development projects in Zimbabwe: a case of Buliliwe and Manyiwe Districts, Matabelele land South. Master of Social Science in Development Studies. University of Fort Hare.
- Mozambique 2018. Crime & Safety Report. Online
<https://www.osac.gov/Pages/ContentReportDetails.aspx?cid=24047> [Accessed 18 March 2019]
- Mpembe, J., 2010. *South African Civics Organization Regional General Council*, Personal interview, 7 November 2010. Vereeniging.

- Mshudulu, S.A., 2009a. Media statement by the executive mayor, Councilor Assistance Mshudulu in relation to service delivery, SAVE court interdict, recent protests and appointments of senior manager. [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.emfuleni.gov.za/media/2009/170409.pdf>> (Accessed: 22 March 2010).
- Mshudulu, S.A., 2009b. *Peoples Assembly Report*. Vanderbijlpark: Emfuleni Local Municipality.
- Mukwevho, H.C., 2010. Personal interview, 14 October 2010. Vanderbijlpark.
- Mulder, F., 2011. Personal e-mail correspondence, 6 September 2011.
- Mustafa, G., Yaseen, Z., Arslan, M., & Imran, M. 2021. Theoretical Approaches to study the Public Policy: An analysis of the cyclic/stages heuristic model. *PalArch's Journal of Archaeology of Egypt/ Egyptology*. PJAEE, 18(10).
- Mvuyana, B.Y.C. 2010. *A study of the relationship between rural-urban migration and housing delivery: A case study of Clermont township in the Province of Kwa-Zulu Natal* (Masters Dissertation).
- Mwiya, M., Phiri, J. and Lyoko, G., 2015. Public Crime Reporting and Monitoring System Model Using GSM and GIS Technologies: A Case of Zambia Police Service. *International Journal of Computer Science and Mobile Computing*, 4(11), pp.207-226.
- Nachar, N., 2008. The Mann-Whitney U: A test for assessing whether two independent samples come from the same distribution. *Tutorials in quantitative Methods for Psychology*, 4(1), pp.13-20.
- Natl. Acad. Sci. Eng. Med. 2018. *Proactive Policing: Effects on Crime and Communities*. Washington, DC: Natl. Acad. Press.
- Ndindwa, J., 2010. *South African Civics Organization Regional General Council*, Personal interview, 7 November 2010, Vereeniging.

- Ndlovu, N.I. (2013) Organizational change factors that impact on implementation of Sukuma Sakhe in KwaZulu Natal. Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of masters degree in business administration.
- Ndlovu, N.I. and Msweli, P., 2016. Theorizing and institutionalizing operation Sukuma Sakhe: a case study of integrated service delivery. *Environmental economics*, 7(4-1). doi:10.21511/ee.07(4-1).2016.08.
- Ndwamato, A., 2013. *Housing layout design and crime reduction in RDP developments: a case study of Chesterville, Durban in KwaZulu-Natal* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Newham, G., 2005. A decade of crime prevention in South Africa: from a national strategy to a local challenge. *Centre for the Study of Violence and Reconciliation (CSVr)*. [Online] available: <http://www.csvr.org.za/docs/crime/decadeofcrime.pdf> (March 21, 2011).
- Ngidi, N.V.E., Kuzwayo, B.F., Ndlovu, N.I, Moonlall, R., Mkhize, S.F., Ngwenya, T.N and Behari, N. (2013). Operation Sukuma Sakhe and the Social development Perspective. *Social Work in an International Perspective: History, views, diversity and human rights*. Ed. De Kock, C, Van Kerckhove, C. and Vens, E.
- Ngqele, S.W. 2010. *An investigation of ward committees as a means for structured public participation: The case of the Knysna Local Municipality*. Unpublished thesis for the Degree: Master of Public Administration in the Faculty of Arts, Nelson Mandela Metropolitan University.
- Ngqele, S.W., 2016. *Integrated development planning as a means to facilitate public participation in George Municipality* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Nina, D., 1993. Community justice in a volatile South Africa: Containing community conflict, Clermont, Natal. *Social justice*, 20(3/4 (53-54), pp.129-142.
- Nxumalo, M., 2013. The resurrection of the street committee. *Mail and Guardian*, 8 November. [Online] Available at: <https://mg.co.za/article/2013-11-08-the-return-of-the-soweto-street-committee> (Accessed: 16 May 2017).

- Nyabvedzi, F. and Chirisa, I., 2012. Spatial security and quest of solutions to crime in neighbourhoods in Urban Zimbabwe: Case in Marlborough East, Harare. *Journal of Geography and Regional Planning*, 5(3), pp.68-79.
- Nzimakwe, T.I. and Reddy, P.S., 2008. Community participation in eThekweni municipality with particular reference to ward committees. *Journal of public administration*, 43(si-1), pp.667-679.
- Nzimakwe, T.I., 2008. The value of civil society participation in governance. *Journal of Public Administration*, 43(1), pp.44-58.
- Nzimande, B., 2008. "In this Issue: A Perspective on Street Committees", SACP-South African Communist Party. *Umsebenzi Online*, 7(9).
- Obasi, I.N. & Lekorwe, M.H. 2014. Citizen Engagement in Public Policy Making Process in Africa: The Case of Botswana. *Public Policy and Administration Research*. Vol.3, No.4.
- Obi, E.A, Nwachukwu, C.L. and Obiora, A.C. (2008). *Public Policy Analysis and Decision Making*. Onitsha: Bookpoint Educational Ltd.
- Omar, B., 2010. Enforcement or development? Positioning Government National Crime Prevention Strategy. *CJCP Issue Paper*, 9.
- Palmary, I., 2001. *Social crime prevention in South Africa's major cities*. CSVr.
- Palmiotto, M. 2011. *Community policing: A police-citizen partnership*, London: Routledge.
- Pandey, P. and Pandey, M., 2015. Research methodology: Tools and techniques. Bridge Centre: Romania, European Union.
- Patalinghug, M.E. 2017. Implemented Crime Prevention Strategies of PNP in Salug Valley, Zamboanga Del Sur, Philippines. *Asia Pacific Journal of Multidisciplinary Research*, Vol. 5, No. 3.

- Patton, M.Q., 1990. *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Pelser, E. 1999. *The challenges of community policing in South Africa*. Institute for Security Studies. Occasional Paper No. 42- September 1999.
- Pelser, E. and Louw, A. 2002. Where did we go wrong? A critical assessment of crime prevention. *South African Crime Quarterly*, (2).
- Pemba, P.R. 2019. *Communication mechanisms and community participation in the planning and implementation of community development projects: A case study of a girls' education projects in Malawi*. (Masters dissertation).
- Phologane, L.S., 2014. *Evaluating community participation in rural development projects: the case of Mokgalwaneng Village* (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).
- Pienaar, L.E., 2014. *Serious crime as a national security threat in South Africa since 1994* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Pityana, S.M. 2010. *Where transformation went awry*. Address by the chairperson of the Council for the Advancement of South African Constitution (CASAC), 15 November 2010. Inyathelo Conference. [Online] Available at <https://www.politicsweb.co.za/news-and-analysis/where-transformation-went-awry--s...> (Accessed: 20 February 2019)
- Pra Inc. 2009. *Prevention by Design in Ottawa: Toward a Strategic Approach to Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design*. FINAL REPORT. Prepared for: Crime Prevention Ottawa. Crime Prevention Ottawa Study and Recommendations for CPTED in Ottawa—January 19, 2009.
- Pradeep, N.C., 2015. 'Urban Policing in India: Issues, Challenges and Initiatives.' *Journal of Development Management and Communication*. li(2). [Online]. Available at: <http://www.researchgate.net/publication/301790412> (Accessed: 27 March 2019).

- Province of KwaZulu-Natal. 2014. *Community Police Forum Pocket Guide*.
Department: Community Safety and Liaison.
- Putu, M. 2006. *The Role of Ward Committees in Enhancing Public Participation in Rustenburg Municipality: A critical Evaluation*, Citizen Unit: IDASA, by Mpho Putu.
- Quintal, A. 2008. Everyone must fight crime, says Zuma. Pretoria News, 1 May.
Available at: <http://www.pretorianews.co.za/index.php?fArticleId=4382737>
[accessed 10 May 2022].
- Qureshi, H., Frank, J., Lambert, E.G., Klahm, C. and Smith, B., 2017. Organisational justice's relationship with job satisfaction and organisational commitment among Indian police. *The Police Journal*, 90(1), pp.3-23.
- Qwabe, B. and Mdaka, P., 2011. Are Ward Committees the "Voice" of Communities? *Recognising Community voice and dissatisfaction*, 64.
- Racionzer, D. ed., 2009. *Democracy in Africa: Promoting the African Charter on Democracy, Elections and Governance*. IDASA.
- Rauch, J., 2002. Changing step: Crime prevention policy in South Africa. *Crime prevention partnerships: lessons from practice*. Pretoria: Institute for Security Studies.
- Reddy, P.S. and Sikhakhane, B.S. 2008. Public participation: A case study of ward committees in the Buffalo city municipality, *Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. 43, No. 4, pp. 680-697.
- Reed, M.S., 2008. Stakeholder participation for environmental management: a literature review. *Biological conservation*, 141(10), pp.2417-2431.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1995. *South African Police Service Act 68 of 1995*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1996. *National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS)*, Department of Safety and Security. Pretoria: Government Printers. [Online] Available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/otherdocs/1996/crime1.htm>. Accessed: 28 January 2019.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998a. *Local Government: White Paper on Local Government*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 1998b. *White Paper on Safety and Security*, Department of Safety and Security. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2000. *Promotion of Access to Information Act, Act 2, 2000*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2000a. *Municipal Systems Act 32 of 2000*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2003. *Municipal Finance Management (MFMA) Act 56 of 2003*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2011. *Independent Police Investigative Directorate Act 1 of 2011*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2012. *National Development Plan: Vision 2030 Executive Summary*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2018, *National Senior Certificate School Performance Report 2018*, Department of Basic Education, Pretoria. [Online]. Available at : http://www.ecexams.co.za/2018_Nov_Exam_Results/NSC%202018%20School%20Performance%20Report%20WEB.pdf (Accessed: 18 January 2020).
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). 2018/19. *Independent Police Investigative Directorate, Annual Performance Plan*. [Online] Available at: http://pmg-assets.s3-website-eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/IPID_APP_2018-19_WEB.pdf .[Accessed 22 November 2018].

- Republic of South Africa (RSA). *Municipal Structures Act*, Act 117, 1998. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa (RSA). White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Republic of South Africa. 1994. Government Gazette. White Paper on reconstruction and development. General Notice. Notice NO. 1954 of 1994. Vol. 353 Cape Town, 15 November 1994.
- Rifkin, S.B. and Kangere, M., 2002. What in Participation. In 'Community-Based Rehabilitation (CBR) as a Participatory Strategy in Africa'. GLADNET Collection, Paper 60. <http://digitalcommons.ilr.cornell.edu/gladnetcollect/60>.
- Robins, G. et al. (2010). *Clermont KwaDabeka Township Regeneration Project, Phase 2 — Final Development Framework*. Durban: eThekweni Municipality.
- Robins, S., 2009. Addressing the challenges of law enforcement in Africa Policing in Sierra Leone, Tanzania, and Zambia. *Institute for Security Studies*.
- Robinson, A.L. 2003. The impact of police social capital on officer performance of community policing. *Policing: An international Journal of Police Strategies and Management*, 26:656- 89.
- Robo, PK & Absud, AA. 2003. The role of participation and community work ethics in rural development: a case of Nandi District, Kenya. Vol 18, no 2 July 2003. *Journal of Social Development*.
- Rosenberg, S.W., 2007. Rethinking democratic deliberation: The limits and potential of citizen participation. *Polity*, 39(3), pp.335-360.
- Roux, N.L. 2002. Public policymaking and policy analysis in South Africa amidst transformation, change and globalisation: Views on participants and role players in the policy analytic procedure. *Journal of Public Administration*, Vol 37, no 4.

- Roux, N.L., 2005. Unrest at the local sphere of government in South Africa: unrealistic expectations or the inability to implement policies? School of Public Management and Administration: University of Pretoria.
- Rubin, A. and Babbie, E., 1997. Research methods for social work. (3rd Ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks.
- Saul, J.R., 2005. *The Collapse of Globalism*. London: Atlantic Books.
- Scull, N., Mbonyingabo, C., & Kotb, M. 2016. Transforming ordinary people into killers: A psychosocial examination of Hutu participation in the Tutsi genocide. *Peace and Conflict: Journal of Peace Psychology* 22 (4):334–44. doi:10.1037/pac0000158. [Crossref], [Web of Science ®], [Google Scholar]
- Seedat, S., 2004. Law-Making in SA - how much is public? [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.idasa.org.za/index.asp?page=outputs.asp%3FPID%3D44%26OTID%3D4>> (Accessed: 1 November 2007).
- Seekings, J. 1992. 'Civic Organisation in South African Townships'. In 16 Moss, G. and Ingrid Obery. (eds). *South African Review* 6. Johannesburg: Raven Press.
- Segrave, M. & Ratcliffe, J. 2004. *Community policing: A descriptive overview*. New York: Praeger.
- Sekaran, U. and Bougie, R., 2016. *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. (7th Ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
- Semukhina, O., 2017. *Disciplinary Issues of Russian Police and Police Reform of 2010-2011*. *Western Journal of Criminal Justice*, 4(2).
- Semukhina, O.B., 2016. *Public assistance of police during criminal investigations: Russian experience*. Police Practice and Research. *Research Gate*. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.researchgate.net/publication/271625446> (Accessed: 19 February 2019).
- Serero, L. and Mathebula, M., 2010. Residents take on council...for the nth time. *Vaal Weekly*, 24 Feb-2 Mar.

- Serero, L., 2010a. EMFULENI; Pay them and you'll be happy. *Vaal Weekly*, 3-9 Nov. 2010.
- Serero, L., 2010b. Hullabaloo in Zone 24 housing dilemma. *Vaal Weekly*, 10-16 Nov.
- Sharma, K.C., 2010. Role of local government in Botswana for effective service delivery: Challenges, prospects and lessons. *Commonwealth Journal of Local Governance*, (6), pp.135-142.
- Sherry, K. 2018. Community participation in primary health care. In D. Coetzee (Ed.), *Primary health care: Fresh perspectives*: Cape Town: Pearson South Africa.
- Shiceka, S., 2010a. Annual report: ensure co-operation between national, provincial and local department of Co-operative Governance and Traditional Affairs Department. [Online]. Available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/speech/DynamicAction?pageid=461andsid=13386andtid=20844>.
- Shubane, K., 1991. 'Black local authorities: a conception of control'. In Humphries, R., Shubane, K. and Swilling, M., 1991. *Apartheid city in transition*. Oxford University Press. pp. 64-77.
- Singh, A., 2008. Policing and Crime Control in Post-Apartheid South Africa, Interdisciplinary Research series in Ethnic, Gender and Class Relations.
- Singh, K., 2007. *Quantitative Social Research Methods*. SAGE Publication: New Delhi.
- Sirovha, K.I., 2017. *Ward based planning to improve service delivery: the case of the North West district municipalities* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Skogan, W.G. 2019. 'Community policing'. In D. Weisburd & A.A. Braga (Eds.), *Police Innovation. Contrasting perspectives* (pp. 27-44). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press (2nd ed.).
- Skuse, A., and Cousins, T. 2007. Spaces of Resistance: Informal Settlement, Communication and Community Organisation in a Cape Town Township.

Urban Studies, Vol. 44, Nos. 5/6, 979– 995, May 2007.

DOI:10.1080/00420980701256021

Slegh, H., Mariano, E., Roque S. and Barker, G., 2017. *Being a Man in Maputo: Masculinities, Poverty and Violence in Mozambique: Results from the International Men and Gender Equality Survey (IMAGES)*. Washington, DC and Rio de Janeiro: Promundo.

Smith, G. (2013). Roundtable Discussion on the “State of implementation of the Law of the Republic of Azerbaijan on ensuring the rights and freedoms of individuals held in detention facilities and enhancing the complaint review procedures”.

Snyman, Z.N. 2017. *Community Policing Forum: Exploring general community and CPF members’ perspective on the value of and the effectiveness of CPF in Glenmore and Umbilo communities*. Masters Dissertation. Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Science. University of Kwa-Zulu Natal.

Song, S. J., & de Jong, J. 2013. Silence and disclosure: Intergenerational indero between Burundian former child soldiers and their children. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling* 36:84–95. doi:10.1007/s10447-013-9192-x. [Crossref], [Google Scholar]

South Africa. 1996. Constitution, Act 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. 1998. Municipal Structures Act, No. 117 of 1998. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. President Mbeki, T., 2003. State of the Nation Address (23 February 2003). Parliament.

South African History Online (SAHO). 2018. *ANC January 8th Statements*: [Online] Available at: <https://www.sahistory.org.za/topic/anc-january-8th-statements> (Accessed: 11 June 2018).

South African Police Service Crime Statistics 2015/2016. Available from: [Online : <https://www.saps.gov.za/services/crimestats.php> (Accessed 15 May 2022).

- South African Police Service. 2014-2019. *Strategic Plan*. [Online]. Available at: https://www.saps.gov.za/about/stratframework/strategic_plan/2015_2019/strategic_plan_%202015.pdf.
- South African Police Service. 2017/2018. *Annual Report*. [Online] Available at: https://www.gov.za/sites/default/files/saps%20annual%20report_0.pdf [Accessed 29 August 2018].
- South African Police Services. 2016/2017. *Annual Report*. [Online]. Available at: [http://nationalgovernment.co.za/departments/annual/2016/2017-south-african-police-service-\(saps\)-annual-report.pdf](http://nationalgovernment.co.za/departments/annual/2016/2017-south-african-police-service-(saps)-annual-report.pdf) . (Accessed: 31 August 2018).
- South African Police Services. 2021/2022. Police Recorded Crime Statistics. First Quarter of 2021/2022 Financial Year (April to June 2021).
- South African Police Services. Crime Statistics. Crime Situation in Republic of South Africa Twelve (12) months (April to March 2019/2020).
- Statistics South Africa (Stats SA). 2019. The Quarterly Labour Force Survey (QLFS). (Q1:2019). [Online]. Available at: <http://www.statssa.gov.za/publications/P0211/P02111stQuarter2019.pdf>. (Accessed: 10 June 2019).
- Statistics South Africa. (Stats SA). 2011. eThekweni Municipality Ward Profile Review. [Online]. Available at: www.statssa.gov.za (Accessed: 8 April 2019).
- Steenkamp, L., 2010. Minister dryg wanbetalers met hof. *Die Burger*, 13 Mar 2010.
- Subban, M., & Theron, H. 2012. Tracing a decade of drafting, reviewing and assessing integrated development plans in Kwa-Zulu Natal: Some key reflections. *Journal Stads en Streekbeplanning/Town and Regional Planning*, 61:21-29.
- Sučić R., & Karlović, R. 2017. 'Community Policing in Support of Social Cohesion'. In Bayerl, S.P., Karlović, R., Akhgar, B., & Markarian, G. (eds). Springer International Publishing AG 2017 *Community Policing - A European*

- Suhaimi, S. S. A., Nazuri, N. S., Burhan, N. A. S., Rahman, A. R. A., & Hamsan, H. H. (2021). Knowledge, Attitude, and Practices (KAP) on Community-Oriented Policing in Malaysian Neighbourhoods. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 11(12), 517-526.
- Suttner, R., 2003. Early history of the African National Congress (ANC) underground: from the M-Plan to Rivonia. [Online]. Available at:
<<http://wiserweb.wits.ac.za/PDF%20Files/state%20-%20suttner2.PDF>>
(Accessed: 25 October 2010).
- Suttner, R., 2004. The UDF period and its meaning for contemporary South Africa. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 30(3), pp.691-702.
- Suttner, R., 2015. The Freedom Charter@ 60: rethinking its democratic qualities. *Historia*, 60(2), pp.1-23.
- Swanson, R.A. 2013. *Theory building in applied disciplines*. San Francisco, CA : Berrett-Koehler.
- Swilling, M. 1993. 'Civic Associations in South Africa', *Urban Forum*, Vol. 4, Iss. 2, pp.1-18.
- Swilling, M., 1987. The United Democratic Front and township revolt: South Africa. *Work in Progress*, 9 September 1989.
- The People's Mediation Law of the People's Republic of China. 2010. Order of the President of the People's Republic of China (No.34)
- Thornhill, C. and Madumo, O.S., 2011. The utilisation of ward committees as an effective tool for improving service delivery: a case study. *Administratio Publica*, 9(2), pp.129-144.
- Tshabalala, E.K. 2006. The Role of Community Participation in Integrated Development plan of Govan Mbeki Municipality, Masters Dissertation, Faculty

of Humanities: Department of Social Work and Criminology, University of Pretoria.

Tsukudu, A., 2010. South African Civics Organization Regional General Council. Personal interview, 7 November, Vereeniging.

Tuason, M. T. G. 2013. Those who were born poor: A qualitative study of Philippine poverty. *Qualitative Psychology* 1 (S):95–115. doi:10.1037/2326-598.1.S.95. [Crossref], [Google Scholar]

UNODC. 2010. *Handbook on the United Nations Crime Prevention Guidelines-Making them work*. United Nations, Vienna.

UNODC. 2014. Annual Report. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime. Vienna

UNODC. 2019a. GLOBAL STUDY ON HOMICIDE. Homicide: extent, patterns, trends and criminal justice response. UNODC. Vienna. [Online]. Available at: <https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/gsh/Booklet2.pdf> (Accessed: 14 April 2020).

UNODC. 2019b. GLOBAL STUDY ON HOMICIDE. Understanding homicide: typologies, demographic factors, mechanisms and contributors. UNODC, Vienna. [Online]. Available at: https://www.unodc.org/documents/data-and-analysis/gsh/Booklet_3.pdf. (Accessed: 14 April 2020).

Van Aswegen, W.F. 2000. The South African National Crime Prevention Strategy: overview and contextual analysis. *Social Work/ Afaatskaplike Werk*. 36(2).

Van Niekerk, A. 2014. *Reflections on two decades of violence and unintentional injury prevention: Responses in South Africa*.

Van Rooyen, E.J. and Mokoena, S.K., 2013. 'The Role of Ward Committees towards Enhancing Public Participation: The Case of the Mpumalanga Province, South Africa.' *Journal of Business and Economics. Academic Star Publishing*, 4(8), pp.761-770.

- Vanderbijlpark Zonal Committee. 2008. Minutes of meeting held at Vanderbijlpark Parliamentary Constituency Office on 12 February 2008 at 17h00.
- Vargas-Hernandez, J., Noruzi, M.R., & Irani, F.N. 2011. What is Policy, Social Policy and Social Policy Changing? *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2 (10), pp.287-291.
- Veldheer, V., J.-J. Jonker, L. van Noije, and C. Vrooman. 2012. Een beroep op de burger. Minder verzorgingsstaat, meer eigen verantwoordelijkheid? Sociaal en Cultureel Rapport 2012. Den Haag: Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.
- Vukukhanye 2009. Community Safety Initiative: Chesterville Pilot Programme. [Online]. Available at: www.vukukhanye.org (Accessed: on 2011 July 2018).
- Vukukhanye 2010. Street Committee profile. [Online]. Available at: www.vukukhanye.org (Accessed: on 25 September 2018).
- Walliman, N., 2011. *Research Methods: the basics*. Routledge Taylor and Francis: New York
- Wandsworth Community Safety Partnership Plan 2017-2021. wandsworth.gov.uk
- Weisburd, D., & Braga, A.A. 2019. Hot spots policing as a model for police innovation. In D. Weisburd & A.A. Braga (Eds.), *Police Innovation. Contrasting perspectives* (pp. 291-313). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Whitt, E.J., 1991. Artful Science: A Primer on Qualitative Research Methods. *Journal of College Student Development*, 32(5), pp.406-15.
- Williams, J.J., 2008. The politics of social change and the transition to democratic governance: Community participation in post-apartheid South Africa. *African politics: Beyond the third wave of democratisation*.
- Winston, B.E. and Patterson, K., 2006. An integrative definition of leadership. *International journal of leadership studies*, 1(2), pp.6-66.

- Wissink, H. & Ballard, H. 2018. Values and ethics in policy analysis and management. In-Cloete, F., De Coning, C., Wissink, H. & Rabie, B. (eds). *Improving Public Policy for Good Governance*, 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers, 79-104.
- Wong, K.F., Wong, W.K. and Lin, M.S., 2014. Forward selection two sample binomial test. *Journal of data science: JDS*, 12(4), p.279.
- Wright, A. 2002. *Policing: An introduction to concepts and practices*. Devon: Willan Publishing.
- Xhakaza, M. 2019. Assessing public participation during the compilation of the Housing Sector Plan of the IDP of eThekweni Municipality. A case study of KwaDabeka. Masters Dissertation. The School of Built Environment and Development Studies. University of KwaZulu Natal.
- Yohanes, S.P.W.P., Indriasari, T.D., Anindito, K., Andrean, Y. & Prasetyo, J.G. 2019. CrimelD: Towards Crime Prevention and Community Safety in Indonesia using Mobile and Web Technology. *International Journal of Interactive Mobile Technologies (iJIM)*. Vol. 13, No. 9.
- Zhong, L.Y., 2009. Community policing in China: Old wine in new bottles. *Police Practice and Research: An International Journal*, 10(2), pp.157-169.
- Zittel, T. and Fuchs, D. eds., 2006. *Participatory democracy and political participation: can participatory engineering bring citizens back in?* Routledge.
- Zondi, P. 2012. Service delivery and the South African Police Service Community Service Centres: An evaluative study of East Rand, Gauteng. Unpublished dissertation. MTech Policing. Pretoria: Tshwane University of Technology.
- Zuern, E., 2004. Continuity in Contradiction? The Prospects for a National Civic Movement in a Democratic State: SANCO and the ANC in Post-Apartheid South Africa.

Zuma, J.G., 2008. Zuma launches street committees. [Online]. Available at: <<http://www.news24.com/SouthAfrica/Politics/Zuma-launches-street-committees20080810>> (Accessed: 27 February 2010).

ANNEXURE A: PROOFREADING CERTIFICATE



Proofreading Certificate

It is hereby certified that highlighted corrections in this document have been proofread and edited for spelling, grammar and punctuation by a professional English language editor from www.OneStopSolution.co.za

Client

Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo

The crime prevention role of street committees in selected townships in the eThekweni Municipal area

Editor

Michele van Niekerk

Name

A black rectangular box redacting the signature of the editor.

Signature

27 June 2022

Date

I cannot guarantee that the changes that I have suggested have been implemented nor do I take responsibility for any other changes or additions that may have been made subsequently. The track changes of the language editing will be available for inspection upon enquiry, for a period of one year.

Contact

One Stop Solution
18 Woltemade str
Kabega Park
Port Elizabeth
6045

Redine Steenberg
076 481 8341
www.OneStopSolution.co.za

ANNEXURE B: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY



OFFICE OF THE CITY MANAGER

1st Floor City Hall,
Dr Pixley KaSeme Street, Durban, 4001
PO Box 1014, Durban, 4000
Tel: 031 311 2130, Fax: 031 311 2170
www.durban.gov.za

ANNEXURE B: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE ETHEKWINI MUNICIPALITY

Date: 29 August 2019

Mr Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo

Senior Manager- Strategic Interest Groups: Military Veterans

Email address: Floyd.ngcobo@durban.gov.za

Dear Mr Ngcobo

Undertaking a study in the EThekweni Municipality

Approval is hereby granted to you to undertake your Doctoral research in the EThekweni Municipality.

I wish you the best with your studies.

Yours Sincerely

Mr S. Nzuzi

CITY MANAGER

ANNEXURE C: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON FORMER AND CURRENT STREET COMMITTEE MEMBERS



Suite 1608 mercury House
320 Anton Lembede Street
Durban
4000

SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL CIVIC ORGANISATION ETHEKWINI REGION

Chairperson: Mandli Khomo
083 522 3912

Secretary: Nomzamo Mkhize
083 749 5118

Date: 6 September 2019

Mr Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo

Senior Manager- Strategic Interest Groups: Military Veterans

Email address: Floyd.ngcobo@durban.gov.za

Dear Mr Ngcobo

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT INTERVIEWS WITH FORMER STREET COMMITTEE MEMBERS

Approval is hereby granted to you to undertake your Doctoral research in the EThekweni Region where you will interview former street committee members.

I wish you all the best with your studies.

Yours Sincerely

COMRADE NOMZAMO MKHIZE

SANCO ETHEKWINI REGION SECRETARY

ANNEXURE D: INFORMED CONSENT LETTER AND RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT AND GOVERNANCE

Dear Respondent,

Doctor of Administration (D. Admin) Research Project

Researcher: Mr. Nhlanhla Ngcobo (214579863)

Supervisors: Prof IW Ferreira (041-5044609) Prof HF Wissink (031-2608785)

Research Office: Ms. P Ximba (031-260 3587) Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000 Tel: +27 31 260 8350 / 4557 / 3587 Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

I, Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo a D. Admin student at the School of Management, IT and Governance of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, hereby invite you to participate in a research project entitled “The Crime Prevention Role of Street Committees in selected townships in the eThekweni Municipal Area”. The aim of this study is to: investigate the prevalence and the alleviation of crime in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in the Durban area of the KZN Province.

Through your participation, I endeavour to explore the significance of street committees in crime prevention, to explore the relationship between street committees, ward committees and community policing forums, and to explore the perceptions of community residents with regard to street committees in Kwa-Zulu Natal, in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in eThekweni.

Your participation in this project is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the project at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in this survey. Confidentiality and anonymity of records identifying you as a participant will be maintained.

If you have any questions or concerns about completing the questionnaire or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisors at the numbers listed above.

You must answer questions from survey questionnaire. The answering of the survey questions will take 20 to 25 minutes. Your kind co-operation to complete the questionnaire will be appreciated.

Sincerely

Researcher's signature: _____ Date: _____

Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo

CONSENT

I..... (Full names of participant) hereby confirm that I understand the contents of this document and the nature of the research project, and I consent to participating in the research project. I understand that I am at liberty to withdraw from the project at any time, should I so desire.

SIGNATURE OF PARTICIPANT

DATE

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please select only **ONE** option for each of the questions below and mark the applicable box with an “X”

1. Gender

Male	Female	Choose not to answer

2. Age in years

21-40	41-60	61and above

3. Place of Residence

Chesterville Township	Clermont Township	Other

4. Have you ever served on a street committee?

Yes	No

5. Are you employed/self- employed?

Yes	No

6. How long have you lived in this township?

Length of stay (in years)	
5 – 15 years	
15 – 30 years	
30 – 50 years	
50+ years	

SECTION B

QUESTION 1

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree on the following statements about what is the role of street committees in crime prevention in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban?

Legend:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

(PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN PER ITEM)

STATEMENTS		LEVEL OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Street committees assist in fighting crime in my community.					
2	Street committees are successful in alleviating and reducing crime.					
3	We need street committees to keep the crime down in our community.					
4	Crime levels drop where there are street committees.					

QUESTION 2

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about what role can be performed by legislation in street committees today in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban.

Legend:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

(PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN PER ITEM)

STATEMENTS		LEVEL OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Street committees sometimes serve as 'informal courts.'					
2	Street committees face challenges because they are not legislated.					
3	If street committees were to be legislated, they would make a bigger difference to the crime in my community.					

QUESTION 3

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about what is the relationship between street committees, ward committees and community policing forums in the townships of Chesterville and Clermont in Durban?

Legend:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

(PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN PER ITEM)

STATEMENTS		LEVEL OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Street committees have a good working relationship with the ward committees in my community.					
2	Street committees have a good working relationship with community policing forums in my community.					
3	The community policing forums cannot fight the crime in my community on their own – they need assistance from other bodies.					
4	Street committees have a good and successful working relationship with the SAPS.					

QUESTION 4

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements about the perceptions of community residents regarding street committees.

Legend:

1 = Strongly disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Undecided

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly agree

(PLEASE TICK THE APPROPRIATE COLUMN PER ITEM)

STATEMENTS		LEVEL OF AGREEMENT				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	Street committees perform other necessary tasks in the community, apart from combatting and preventing crime.					
2	I have faith in the street committees.					
3	Street committees are affiliated with certain political parties.					
4	Street committees should NOT be formed along political party lines.					
5	I am more “comfortable” with street committees than with any other crime prevention structure.					
6	Members of street committees are democratically elected.					
7	The street committees communicate to us (the residents) on things that are happening in our community.					

SECTION C: PERSONAL VIEWS

QUESTION 5

Please elaborate on any relevant aspect of the research:

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE.

Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo
Cell, 083 310 2213
Student-Researcher
University of KwaZulu-Natal

ANNEXURE E: INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE GUIDE

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

SCHOOL OF MANAGEMENT, IT & PUBLIC GOVERNANCE

**DOCTOR OF ADMINISTRATION DEGREE RESEARCH PROJECT:
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS LIST**

Researcher: Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo, Cell: 083 310 2213

Supervisors: Prof IW Ferreira (041-5044607) Prof HF Wissink (031-2608785)

Research Office: Ms. P Ximba (031-260 3587) Humanities & Social Sciences
Research Ethics Committee UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan
Mbeki Building Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000 Tel: +27 31 260
8350 / 4557 / 3587 Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za Website: [http://research.ukzn.ac.za/
Research-Ethics/](http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/)

The crime prevention role of street committees in the selected townships in the eThekweni municipal area.

Demographic Information

1 Gender

Male	Female	Choose not to answer

2 Age group

21-40	41-60	61 and above-

3 Place of residence

Chesterville	Clermont	Other

- 4 Please indicate whether you are currently involved in street committees
- 5 In which years did you participate in the street committees? What was your position in those years?
- 6 What was your occupation at the time you were on the street committee?

History and role of street committees

- 7 Please tell me a bit about the history of street committees
- Why were they formed?
 - How were they formed?
 - Who was on street committees?
 - What role did they play in the community?
 - Did they get involved in crime prevention? If so:
 1. Were they trained in crime prevention?
 2. Were they armed?
 3. Did they work together with the SAP? What was their relationship with SAP like?
 4. Were street committees based on any plan or they were just formed?
 - Did they occupy any other roles (apart from crime prevention) within the community? Please explain
- 8 Please tell me about the street committees in the present day
- How are they formed?
 - Do they play a role in crime prevention? What/how?
 - Do they have a relationship with any of the political parties? Please explain.
 - Are the members trained in any way?
 - Do they have any role to play in service delivery?
 - Is it true that street committees sometimes act as kangaroo courts?
 - Are the street committees in touch with the community? Please explain.
 - Do you think there are things that could be done to improve today's street committees?

Legislating street committees

- 9 Do you think street committees should be legislated? Why?
- 10 What benefits would there be in legislating the street committees?
- 11 What are the challenges faced by street committees in the absence of legislation?

Relationships with ward committees and community policing forums

- 12 What is a ward committee and what is its role in the community?
- 13 What is a community policing forum and what role does it occupy in the community?
- 14 What relationship (if any) does the street committee have with these two bodies?

Do they co-operate with each other?

- Is their relationship a success?
 - Do they have similar goals within the community?
 - Can anything be done to improve the relationships with these two bodies?
- 15 Is there anything else you want to contribute about street committees that has not already been covered?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo
Cell: 083 310 2213
Student-Researcher
University of KwaZulu-Natal

ANNEXURE F: VUKUKHANYE/CRA INVITATION TO STREET COMMITTEE INDUCTION TRAINING AGENDA

STREET COMMITTEE INDUCTION AGENDA

TB Davis Lecture Theatre, L5
Howard College Campus, UKZN
8 & 9 August 2009



DAY 1 - SATURDAY 8th AUGUST 2009

TIME	ITEM	SPEAKER
08:30 - 09:30	Arrival & Registration	
09:30 - 10:00	Welcome	CRA Programme Director (Floyd Ngcobo)
	Opening Prayer	Peter Watt
	Opening Address	Special Guest
DAY 1 : Session 1		
Overview & Street Committee Structure		
10:00 - 10:40	Approach to Community Safety	CRA (Floyd Ngcobo)
	Structure, Roles & Responsibilities / Reporting	CRA (Zamo Ngobese)
	Questions & Answers	CRA Programme Director & Panel
10:40 - 11:00	Tea Break	
DAY 1 : Session 2		
Violent Crime & Other		
11:00 - 12:30	Child Abuse/Rape (25min)	Joan van Niekerk (Childline)
	Child Abuse/Domestic violence (25min)	Mr Mbatha (Children's Court)
	Rape/Forensics (25min)	Reggie Perumal
	Questions & Answers (15min)	CRA Programme Director & Panel
12:30 - 13:30	Lunch Break	
DAY 1 : Session 3		
Community Safety & Security		
13:30 - 15:00	Community Policing/CPFs (25min)	Mrs Masondo (Community Safety & Liaison)
	Case Management (25min)	Mr Mkhize (Justice)
	Domestic Violence (25min)	Mr Mkhize (Justice)
	Questions & Answers (15min)	CRA Programme Director & Panel
15:00 - 15:30	Closing Remarks & Thanks	CRA Programme Director (Floyd Ngcobo)

DAY 2 - SUNDAY 9th AUGUST 2009

TIME	ITEM	SPEAKER
08:30	Welcome	CRA Programme Director (Floyd Ngcobo)
Day 2 : Session 1		
Drugs, Substance Abuse & Human Trafficking		
09:00 - 10:30	Drugs/Substance Abuse (30min)	Walter (SANCA)
	Human Trafficking (DVD) (30min)	Bongiwe Mlatsha (International Office for Migration)
	Questions & Answers (30min)	CRA Programme Director & Panel
10:30 - 11:00	Tea Break	
Day 2: Session 2		
Health & Welfare		
11:00 - 12:30	Orphans & Vulnerable Children (25min)	Mrs Mkhize (Department of Welfare)
	HIV/AIDS (25min)	Photini Kiepiela
	Disabled (25min)	Nombuso Maphalala
	Questions & Answers (15min)	Facilitator (Jabu Mkhize) & Panel
12:30 - 12:45	Closing Remarks & Thanks	Issuing of Certificates to delegates
		CRA Programme Director (Floyd Ngcobo)
12:45 - 13:30	Lunch	

ANNEXURE G: VUKUKHANYE STREET COMMITTEE DRAFT CONSTITUTION

CONSTITUTION

FOR THE

STREET COMMITTEE

DATE: _____

1. **NAME :** The name of the structure shall be the _____ Street Committee and its geographic area of operation is provided in the attached demarcated plan: ANNEXURE A

SREET COMMITTEE (herein later referred to as the SC). In the Constitution, words importing the singular shall include the plural and vice-versa. Words importing the masculine gender shall include the other genders and vice-versa and words importing companies shall include persons and vice-versa.

2. **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES:**

The SC shall aim to:-

- increase the safety in a community as residents learn to:
 - communicate regularly with the other people in their street through the programme
 - recognize and report suspicious and criminal activity
 - make citizen's arrest where necessary
 - increase home and personal safety
 - make the community less attractive to criminals
- reduce crime and the fear of crime in our communities
- ensure an effective response to crime including co-operation with the SAPS for the collection of evidence and the conviction and prosecution of criminals
- promote positive and effective communication and relationships within a community
- reduce and help solve problems of domestic violence
- help with social welfare problems (orphans, the elderly, the disabled etc)
- development and empowerment of women, aged and the youth
- education issues

3. **MEMBERSHIP**

Membership of the SC shall be open to all persons ordinarily resident within a demarcated Street precinct, owning property and/or working within the SC demarcated area. Membership shall be non racist, non sexist, a-political and there shall be no discrimination whatsoever against any person.

These members shall be voluntary and representative of all people being served within the demarcated Street Committee area. (Refer to attached SC demarcated area.).

No membership fees shall be payable.

4. DUTIES AND FUNCTIONS OF MEMBERS

The duties and functions of members of the SC shall be:-

To perform such actions as may be necessary to realize the aims and objectives mentioned in section 2 here above.

To encourage residents of the demarcated street area to take part in the activities of the SC.

To promote joint problem identification and problem solving with other constituted Street Committees through participation in and through Street Committee Area Meetings

To ensure accountability and transparency.

To strengthen the partnership, consultation and proper communication between the Community Policy SC, Police and the broader community, including:

- pass on relevant police information on crime in the area to individual households;
- encourage residents to inform the police quickly of suspicious and criminal incidents;
- keep in touch with other SC's in the area through combined SC Meetings;
- keep a check on vulnerable households;
- welcome newcomers to the street;
- identify local environmental problems and report them to the local authority;
- quickly informs the police of suspicious and criminal incidents; and
- assist victims of crime and work with the Safe House.

5. MANAGEMENT

The SC is managed by an Executive Committee which will be elected at Biennial General Meetings and be compiled as follows:-

- A Chairperson
- A Vice-Chairperson
- A Secretary/Treasurer
- A minimum of two (2) and maximum of four (4) additional members.

5.1 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE: -

- 5.1.1 Any committee member shall relinquish his position on failing to attend three (3) consecutive meetings without reasonable cause.

- 5.1.2 The Executive Committee may remove from office, any executive officer who has brought the SC into disrepute, when 50% plus one of the Executive Committee in session so decides.
- 5.1.3 In special circumstances the Chairperson shall co-opt a member to the Executive Committee upon termination of the membership of any member, with the prior approval of the Executive Committee. Such co-opting to be advised to the SC at the following meeting.
- 5.1.4 The Executive Committee may appoint an Auditor to examine the financial affairs of the SC.
- 5.1.5 If any office-bearer of the Executive Committee does not attend more than 70% of the scheduled meetings during his two years of service, he will automatically become ineligible for a re-election.

6. MEETINGS

6.1 ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING

- 6.1.1. An Annual General Meeting, which is to be attended by the members of the SC, Community and other interested group, will be convened annually after notice in writing was given at least twenty-one (21) days in advance by the Secretary.
- 6.1.2 Annual General Meeting shall:
- Consider and make proposals to the Street Committee Central Office
 - Receive, discuss and adopt the Executive Committee's report on the work of the SC.
 - Discuss and draft resolutions on local matters pertaining to overall aim and objectives as recorded in section 2.
 - Elect the Executive Committee as set out in paragraph 8.1.7.

6.2 SPECIAL GENERAL MEETING

- 6.2.1 The SC may instruct the Secretary to convene a Special General Meeting to discuss and rule on special matters.
- 6.2.2 The Secretary must on written request from at least ten (10) members of the SC of which at least 50% has to be non office bearers, convene a Special General Meeting to discuss and rule on issues stated clearly by the members concerned.
- 6.2.3 Requests for a Special General Meeting must reach the Secretary at least one (1) month prior to the envisaged meeting. The Secretary will then notify members of the SC of such a meeting at least twenty-one (21) days in advance. Notice of such a Special General Meeting will specify the purpose of the proposed matters to be dealt with at the meeting and may include

notices for reviewing and revoking any of the resolutions passed at an Annual General Meeting or a Special General Meeting.

- 6.2.4 No resolution of ruling mentioned in paragraph 6.2.3 can be revoked or amended by such a Special Meeting unless total consensus is reached.

6.3 MEETING OF THE SC

The SC General Meeting consisting of residents of the demarcated street area shall be held at least once a month and may:-

- 6.3.1 Adopt campaigns and programs for the SC.
- 6.3.2 Receive and consider reports from the Executive Committee.
- 6.3.3 Consider and implement directives and feedback from the coordinating civic organization.
- 6.3.4 Make submissions and give input to the coordinating civic organization.
- 6.3.5 Receive reports on the state of safety and security within the area served by the Central Street Committee Office.

6.4 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEETING

- 6.4.1 The Executive Committee of the SC will convene at least once a month to discuss and rule on matters relating to the management of the SC.
- 6.4.2 All resolutions at Executive Committee Meetings are passed by means of consensus.
- 6.4.3 When the Chairperson is absent for whatever reason from the Executive Committee Meeting, the Vice-Chairperson will chair the meeting.

6.5 QUORUM

6.5.1 ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING AND SPECIAL GENERAL MEETING

- 6.5.1.1 At least 50% plus one of the SC profile, plus the nominated representative of the coordinating civic organization shall constitute a quorum.
- 6.5.1.2 If a quorum is not present at the convening of a scheduled meeting, the meeting will be adjourned

6.5.2 EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE MEETINGS

- 6.5.2.1 At least 50% plus one of the Executive Committee, including the Secretary and the Chairperson and Vice-Chairperson, constitutes a quorum at an Executive Committee Meeting. If within 15 minutes of the time appointed for such meeting a quorum is still not present, the meeting shall continue as if a quorum was present.

MEETING PROCEDURES

7.1 ANNUAL GENERAL MEETING (To be held within twelve weeks after the closure of the financial accounts).

The following procedure must be adhered to at an Annual General Meeting.

7.1.1 Reading the notice according to which the meeting was convened

7.1.2 Reading the validation of the minutes of the previous Annual General Meeting and the minutes of Special General Meetings if any such meetings were called since the convening of the previous Annual General Meeting.

7.1.3 The discussion of any issues arising from the minutes mentioned in clause 8.1.2.

7.1.4 Reading and consideration of the Chairperson's annual report.

7.1.5 Reading and consideration of the financial statement.

7.1.6 Discussion and consideration of issues put on the Agenda for deliberation of the Annual General Meeting as mentioned in paragraph 6.1.2.

7.1.7 Elect from nominations received the Executive Committee of the SC. (Only at Biennial Meetings).

7.1.7.1 Executive Committee – The new Executive Committee elected in terms of clause 8.1.7.2 shall meet at the conclusion of the Biennial General Meeting, elect a Chairperson, Deputy Chairperson and Secretary who will immediately thereafter take up their office.

7.1.7.2 Election of Executive Members – Executive officers shall be nominated by the SC. Such nominations shall be forwarded to the Secretary by no later than thirty (30) days before the date of the Biennial General Meeting. The SC shall at the Biennial General Meeting elect from nominations received at least ten (10) members to serve on the new Executive Committee and the elected members shall hold office for two (2) years.

7.2 MEETING PROCEDURES

7.2.1 Meetings shall be conducted in terms of general accepted procedures and practices relating to meetings in general.

7.2.2 Silence should be kept during meetings and members may not leave their seats without the permission of the Chairperson.

7.2.3 Members shall obtain permission from the Chairperson to speak, by putting up their hands.

7.2.4 Members should, at all times when they have the floor, address the Chairperson and irrelevant matters should not be discussed – only subjects for consideration.

7.2.5 When the meeting or people in the meeting are addressed, the formal form of address shall be used, e.g. Mr., Mrs., etc.

7.2.6 When a member becomes guilty of poor conduct, it is the responsibility of the Chairperson to excuse the guilty person from the meeting.

7.2.7 No unnecessary disturbances will be tolerated, but a representative may interrupt a speaker on a point of order.

7.2.8 With regard to a point of order The Chairperson will make a final decision.

7.2.9 The Agenda of the meeting may be amended by the Chairperson. Additions/omissions may be made. Once the Agenda is adopted no further additions/omissions will be allowed.

DUTIES AND POWERS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

The Executive Committee of the SC will, in executing its executive functions, have the following powers and duties:-

8.1 To appoint at its own discretion sub-committees and direct issues and allocate tasks to these committees, and co-opt members of the SC to serve on these bodies.

8.2 To maintain and supervise efficient control over members and the administration of the SC.

8.3 To accept, investigate consider and rule on grievances or hints received regarding the activities of the SC. All the actions by the Executive Committee or any of its members on the *bona fide* performance of their duties will be regarded as if performed by the entire SC.

8.4 The Executive Committee will on a day-to-day basis be empowered to make necessary urgent rulings consistent with the aims and objectives of the SC as contained in section 2.

8.5 To give regular, but at least once per month, written input into the local recognized civic organization, recorded in ANNEXURE B and hereafter referred to as the “coordinating civic organization”, facilitating the formation and operation of the SC.

8.6 To give input the constituted Community Policing serving the area in which the SC is located, including indentifying needs and priorities.

DUTIES OF THE SECRETARY

The Secretary has the following duties:-

- 9.1 To take minutes in accordance with the provisions of this constitution.
- 9.2 To receive and dispatch correspondence to and from the SC.
- 9.3 To arrange all meetings
- 9.4 To safe keep all official documents of the SC.
- 9.5 To further the interests of the SC as instructed by the Executive Committee.
- 9.6 To perform all duties usually associated with the office of the Secretary.
- 9.7 The Secretary is by virtue of his office, a member of all committees and sub-committees of the SC, whether such a committee is temporary or permanent, elected or nominated.

10. DUTIES OF THE CHAIRPERSON

- 10.1 Shall preside over meetings of the SC.

- 10.2 Shall liaise with the Area Board.
- 10.3 Shall present reports of the state of the SC to the general meetings.
- 10.4 Shall supervise all works of the SC in conformity with the constitution and rules of procedures agreed upon by the SC.
- 10.5 Shall attend Street Committee Area Meetings and report regularly to the Street Committee Central Office.

11. FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT COMMITTEE

The Financial Management Committee shall be a body appointed by the Executive Committee and shall consist of four (4) persons in number, one of which shall be the Secretary of the Executive Committee with the function of Secretary/Treasurer. It shall have the following vested powers approved by the Executive Committee and in compliance with "The Act".

- 11.1 To manage the financial affairs of the Executive Committee between meetings.
- 11.2 To raise funds in the Greater Durban Metropolitan Area for projects as determined by the Executive Committee or the SC and in accordance with "The Act".
- 11.3 No member of the Financial Management or Executive Committee shall have a direct or indirect interest in or benefit from any contract, which the Financial Management Committee may conclude with any company/organization.
- 11.4 Paid officials of the SC may serve on the Financial Management Committee in an advisory capacity but shall have no voting rights.
- 11.5 The Quorum of the Financial Committee shall be 50% plus one (1).
- 11.6 Funds available for investment may be invested only with registered financial institutions as defined in section 1 of the Financial Institutions (Investments of Funds) Act, 1984 or in the acquisition of securities listed on a licensed stock exchange as defined in the Stock Exchange Act 1985.
- 11.7 All decisions of the Financial Management Committee must be submitted to the Executive Committee for approval.
- 11.8 The Financial Committee shall appoint a Chairperson. Minutes shall be kept of all meetings and such minutes shall be forwarded to the Executive Committee.
- 11.9 Vacancies that arise on the Committee shall be filled by a person appointed by the Executive Committee.

12. AMENDMENT

This constitution may be amended with the approval of not less than two thirds of the members of the SC present and voting at an Annual General meeting or a Special General meeting of which at least 14 days' notice has been given and such notice shall include the text of the proposed alteration.

13. DISSOLUTION

13.1 The SC may be dissolved if at least two thirds of the members present and voting at a general meeting convened for the purpose of considering such matter are in favour of dissolution.

Not less than twenty-one days' notice shall be given of such meeting and the notice convening the meeting shall clearly state that the question of dissolution of the SC and disposal of its assets will be considered. If there is no quorum of such a general meeting, the meeting shall stand adjourned for not less than one week and the members attending such meeting shall constitute a quorum.

13.2 If upon dissolution of the SC there remain any assets whatsoever after the satisfaction of all its debts and liabilities, such assets shall not be paid to or distributed amongst its members, but shall be given to such other organizations preferably having similar objectives.

14. CODE OF CONDUCT

14.1 Members will at all times act in a manner that will uphold and promote the objectives and principles of the SC as established by the SC's Constitution and abide by the laws of the Republic of South Africa.

14.2 No member may exploit their membership of the SC to their own personal advantage.

14.3 Members will serve the SC in an unbiased and objective manner.

14.4 No member shall display racism, nor sexual, nor religious discrimination, nor use any form of abuse to any other person.

14.5 Members shall not divulge to any other person, any confidential or privileged information that they may have acquired as a result of their membership of the SC.

14.6 Members will not address the media, nor make public announcements, in matters connected to the business of the SC without the authority of the SC's Executive Committee.

14.7 No members shall accept any payment, commission, or gratuity in connection with their membership of the SC, except after being authorized to do so by the SC's Executive Committee.

14.8 The SC will not be aligned to any political party and members shall not use their membership to promote the aims and objectives of any political party.

14.9 Any member who is being prosecuted for a serious offence, or who is on bail for such an offence, shall be temporarily suspended by the Executive Committee until the case has been resolved. Should the member concerned be a member of the Executive Committee, or other office bearer, the member shall cease to hold such office or position, until the case has been resolved.

14.10 Any member who has been convicted of a serious crime, shall be expelled from membership of the SC should the Executive Committee decide that the member is no longer a fit and proper person to be a member of the SC.

14.11 In the case of any breach of this Code of Conduct the Executive Committee may expel any member guilty of such a breach should the Executive Committee consider that the person is no longer a fit and proper person to be a member of the SC.

14.12 Any member who is absent from three executive SC meetings, without apology or good cause, may be expelled from membership by the Executive Committee.

15. DISCIPLINARY PROCEEDINGS

15.1 FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES

These objects of disciplinary proceedings are to:-

15.1.1 address instances of unacceptable conduct by members of the SC

15.1.2 effectively manage conflict in the SC

15.1.3 ensure that before disciplinary steps are taken:-

15.1.3.1 a member has a reasonable opportunity to state his or her case; and

15.1.3.2 all relevant circumstances are fully and objectively considered before a decision is taken.

15.2 CLASSIFICATION OF OFFENCES

15.2.1 GRAVE OFFENCES

15.2.1.1 Any offence aimed at damaging the integrity of the SC and or destroying its personnel, property, shall be considered as grave offences.

15.2.1.2 A grave offence shall be committed by a person who *inter alia*:-

15.2.1.2.1 acts with intention to destroy the integrity of the SC, its personnel, or property;

15.2.1.2.2 sabotages the activities of the SC;

15.2.1.2.3 creates division within its ranks;

15.2.1.2.4 does any other act calculated to undermine its effectiveness as a SC;

15.2.1.2.5 act for other organization(s) or groups hostile to the SC's policy and principles;

15.2.1.2.6 act for any group or person who wishes to destroy the SC or prevent it from fulfilling its set aims and objectives.

15.2.2 SERIOUS OFFENCES

15.2.2.1 Any violation of the principles of the SC and standards and behaviour expected of members, which seriously threatens the safety, property or good name of the organization, or which substantially impedes its good functioning, or which creates or is calculated to create demoralization amongst the members, shall be considered a serious offence.

15.2.2.2 Such offences shall include:-

15.2.2.2.1 acting in a way that exposes members to serious physical harm or death;

15.2.2.2.2 deliberately destroying the property of the organization or recklessly exposing it to danger;

15.2.2.2.3 behaving dishonestly in relation to the property of the organization;

15.2.2.2.4 careless passing on information that might be harmful to the working of the SC;

15.2.2.2.5 abusing office by using one's position to obtain material or other undue advantage from members of others;

15.2.2.2.6 fighting or behaving in grossly disorderly and unruly ways; or

15.2.2.2.7 committing a serious crime defined by the Criminal Justice System in South Africa.

15.3 SCHEDULE FOR PENALTIES

15.3.1 Reprimand

15.3.2 Suspension

15.3.3 Expulsion

15.4 DISCIPLINARY PROCEDURES

15.4.1 Adjudicating Bodies

The Executive Committee of the SC or any leadership organ from Street Committee Central Office shall be the adjudicating body in any disciplinary enquiry.

15.4.2 An accused in any disciplinary matter shall have the right to appeal to a superior organ to the one that heard the case.

15.4.3 An accused person shall not have the right to be represented by a legally qualified person but may be assisted by any other member of the SC.

Signed at _____ on this day the _____

Witness 1 : _____

CHAIRPERSON

Witness 2 : _____

VICE-CHAIRPERSON

SECRETARY / TREASURER

MEMBER

MEMBER

MEMBER

MEMBER

MEMBER

MEMBER

MEMBER

ANNEXURE H: VUKUKHANYE/CRA INVITATION TO STREET COMMITTEE INDUCTION TRAINING



HIV/AIDS | Orphans & Vulnerable Children | Early Childhood
Development | Youth and Adult Education & Development |
Community Safety & Development

Postal Address P.O. Box 567, Westville, 3630, KwaZulu-Natal,
Republic of South Africa **Offices** 17B Westville Centre, 52 Norfolk
Terrace, Westville, 3630 **Telephone** +27 (0)31 266 2288
Cell +27 (0)83 233 2924 **Fax** 086 694 8970 (RSA) / +27 (0)31 266 5115
Email admin@vukukhanye.org **Website** www.vukukhanye.org

NPO reg no 017-325 PBO (Sect 18A) reg no 18/11/13/2073

Safer Cities

Att: Mr Martin Xaba

04 August 2009

Re: Invitation to Street Committee Induction Training (8,9 August)

Vukukhanye and the Chesterville Residents Association are presently engaging with various stakeholders (community, government, business and civil society) in the implementation of a Community Safety Initiative targeting the community of Chesterville. The formal resuscitation of Street Committees in Chesterville forms part of this initiative. The process was started in July 2008 and to date there has been significant progress, with the formation of over 20 street committees in Chesterville.

A two-day "**Induction Training**" will be held at the University of KwaZulu-Natal Howard College Campus on the 8th and 9th of August, for 300 delegates (including street committee members, special guests and presenters).

Date: Saturday 8 & Sunday 9 August 2009
Time: 8:30am daily to 3:30pm (Sat) / 1:30pm (Sun)
Venue: "TB Davis Lecture Theatre (L5)", Howard College Campus, UKZN

We are therefore inviting you to attend this training event, which we trust will play a significant role in improving safety and security in and around the community of Chesterville. The agenda for the 2 days is attached.

Your support is greatly appreciated. Thank you very much.

Regards

Floyd Ngcobo
Chairperson –Chesterville Residents Association

ANNEXURE I: ETHICAL CLEARANCE APPROVAL



19 October 2020

Mr Nhlanhla Floyd Ngcobo (214579863)
School Of Man Info Tech & Gov
Westville Campus

Dear Mr Ngcobo,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00001652/2020

Project title: The crime prevention role of street committees in selected townships in the eThekweni municipal area
Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

This letter serves to notify you that your response received on 08 October 2020 to our letter of 15 September 2020 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. **PLEASE NOTE:** Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

This approval is valid for one year until 19 October 2021

To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours faithfully



Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X34001, Durban 4000
Tel: +27 31 260 8350 / 4557 / 3587
Website: <http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/>

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

INSPIRING GREATNESS