

**AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME
PREVENTION ROLE IN PROTECTING THE ASSETS OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE
METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA**

By

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DECLARATION

I Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli, with student number: 39680738 declared that this research project titled "***AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME PREVENTION ROLE IN PROTECTING THE ASSETS OF THE CITY OF TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA***" is my own work. All sources consulted or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged through complete references.



Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

22 September 2023

Date

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ABSTRACT

Traffic policing, enforcement of the city's by-laws, and preventing and combating crime in cooperation with the South African Police Service (SAPS) stand at the forefront of the Municipal Police Service (MPS) main mandate. South Africa has eight Metropolitan Police Departments (MPDs) across five provinces (namely Ekurhuleni (EMPD), Johannesburg (JMPD), Tshwane (TMPD), Buffalo City Metropolitan Municipality, Durban Metro Police Service, and the Cape Town Metropolitan Police Department). Two of these metros (i.e., Mangaung and Nelson Mandela Bay) are yet to be operationalised due to implementation issues and court-related matters. The nature of the mandate, responsibilities, and roles of the MPS in South Africa is quite complex, owing to the fragmented and often cumbersome legislative framework.

Multiple theoretical frameworks through five theories were applied guided by their applicability and relevancy to the current study. Through an interpretivist research paradigm adopting a qualitative mono-single case study strategy, 14 TMPD metro police officers were interviewed to understand their experiences, perceptions, and opinions in their role in the municipal asset protection mandate. Atlas.ti, a qualitative data analysis software was used to analyse data. Five themes emerged: legislative loopholes, synergy inter-and intra-stakeholders, challenges with the asset protection mandate, strategy-oriented mandate, and improvement strategies.

The results of the study revealed a variety of challenges experienced by metro police officers such as the insufficient and inadequate allocation of resources, inadequate management support in the provision of resources, dissatisfaction with remuneration practices and promotion opportunities, lack of regular performance management and evaluation systems, ineffective and inefficient strategy-oriented mandate, lack of effective technology-aided crime prevention techniques and strategies, lack of adequate capacity development interventions and inadequate collaboration with CPFs especially in townships.

Based on the findings and drawing from the limitations of the study, the recommendations for future research are provided, so that a comprehensive understanding of the role of traffic and law enforcement officers in crime prevention and protecting assets of the

metropolitan municipalities can be enhanced lack of clarity on the articulating the crime prevention mandate, in the context of MPDs, especially the municipal asset protection function. The contribution of the study is three-fold – empirical and theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions.

KEYWORDS: Asset protection, Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT), Coordination Theory, Crime Prevention through Environmental Design (CPTED) model, Municipal Police Service, Road policing; Traffic policing; Tshwane Metro Police Department; Systems Theory, Situational Crime Prevention (SCP) model.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANC	African National Congress
ANPR	Automated Number Plate Recognition
AVL	Automated Vehicle Location
CAD	Computer-Aided Dispatch
CBD	Central Business District
CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
COPE	Congress of the People
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CPF	Community Policy Forum
CPPT	Critique of Community Partnership Policing Theory
CPTED	Crime Prevention through Environmental Design
CTMM	City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality
DA	Democratic Alliance
EFF	Economic Freedom Fighters
EMPD	Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Police Department
FF	Freedom Front
IDP	Integrated Development Plan
IPID	Independent Police Investigative Directorate
ISS	Institute of Security Studies
JMPD	Johannesburg Metropolitan Police Department
KPAs	Key Performance Areas
MEC	Member of Executive Committee
MPDs	Metropolitan Police Departments
MPS	Metropolitan Police Service
MSA	Municipal Systems Act

NCPS	National Crime Prevention Strategy (
NPC	National Planning Commission
PMG	Parliamentary Monitoring Group
POP	Public Order Policing
PFMA	Public Finance Management Act No. 1 of 1999
QMS	Quality Management System
RCT	Relational Collaboration Theory
RMS	Record Management Systems
RTMC	Road Traffic Management Corporation
SAPS	South African Police Services
SCP	Situational Crime Prevention
TMPD	Tshwane Metropolitan Police Department
UK	United Kingdom
US	United States

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CHAPTER 1: AN OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

South Africa has eight metropolitan municipalities, referred to in this study as the “metros”. Their strategic focus is the growth of the local economy and provision of infrastructure and services. One of these services include Municipal Service Services (MPS). At the forefront of MPS lies traffic policing, crime prevention and enforcement of by-laws mandates. The establishment and formation of the MPS is enshrined by the prime law of the country, that is the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996 (hereinafter referred to as the “Constitution”) as promulgated by the first democratic President of the new dawn since apartheid, President Nelson Mandela on the 18th of December 1996 (South African Government, 2019). The Constitution took effect on the 4th of February 1997, and Section 206 (7) thereof gives effect to the existence of MPS through the provisions made on their establishment, powers accorded to metro police officers, how they function and how they are managed and controlled. Their roles and responsibilities as explained by Naidoo (2020:12) include enforcing the municipal by-laws, traffic policing and control, and crime prevention.

The promulgation of Sec 64 of the South African Police Service (SAPS) Act, 1995 (Act No. 68 of 1995), gave effect to provisions of Section 205 (1) of the Constitution, which states that the national police service needs a structure to enable it to function properly. This structure, according to the constitution, should be organised by national, provincial, and local government. Furthermore, Section 205 (3), the main mandate of police service is on:

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

These mandates are in line with the 2030 National Development Plan’s (NDP) third outcome focusing on safety and security. The overarching goal of this outcome is on “*building safer communities*” and through that National Planning Commission (NPC) envisions that by 2030, South African population should be sensing a safe and secure environment with no one having “fear of crime” through the NDP, the

SAPS and the MPS institutions should embody sense of professionalism capacitated with skilful, disciplined and officers of high ethical values and standards in serving the community (NPC, 2012:53).

Currently, MPS are operational in five of South Africa's metro-municipalities (Faull, & Kelly, 2020:06). According to Makgoke and Mofokeng (2020:19), the metros with operational MPS include Tshwane, Johannesburg, Durban, Ekurhuleni, and Cape Town. The Nelson Mandela Bay and Mangaung MPDs were established; however, they are yet to be operationalised due to associated implementation challenges ranging from service delivery protests and disruptions, recruitments, and legal battles calling for dissolution and challenging the appointments – both operational and strategic positions (Chabalala, 2022; Khumalo, 2021; Rantao, 2022).

Building on the research aim of this study which is to evaluate the crime prevention role TMPD assume in protecting the assets of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM) in the Gauteng province of South Africa, this chapter presents an overview of the study. That said, the rest of the chapter is structured as follows. Section 1.2 presents a discussion on the background to the study. This is followed by the presentation of the brief review of the literature and the research problem statement in sections 1.3 and 1.4 respectively. In section 1.5, the research aim follows and provides an account of the overall purpose of the study. This is done through presentation of the formulated research objectives (ROs), which are divided into the main and secondary ROs. Subsequently, in section 1.6 follows presentation of the study's research questions (RQs), which are also structured into the main RQ, then followed by secondary RQs. The potential significance of the study is presented in section 1.7. This presentation is done in three ways – methodological, empirical, theoretical, and practical.

Definition of key concepts for the study follows in section 1.8, while section 1.9 makes provision for the presentation of the short description of the methodological research design followed to address the ROs of the study. The last two sections of the chapter focus respectively on the structure of the dissertation to show how it is organised and the chapter summary to account for concluding remarks.

1.2 Background on the study

Section 64E of the SAPS Act and its amendment, SAPS Amendment Act no. 83 of 1998 gave effect to the formation of the MPS. In the enactment, the MPS was conceptualised to function independently of the SAPS, however there is a potential for collaboration. Further to this point, MPS is supposed to be accountable and funded by the local governments (SAPS, 2017:22). The idea behind the conceptualisation of the MPS and their strategic intent was informed by the government's determination to increase the number of police officers in the cities of South Africa and most importantly strive towards save and crime-free environment as per the NDP 2030 Strategic agenda.

Metropolitan policing remains a comparatively new occurrence on the policing landscape in South Africa. The difference in functionality, mandate, and authority between the MPD and the SAPS worsens the existing debate on expected MPD roles in the current criminal justice structure (Marcus *et al.*, 2020:1). The main theme in the debates is the scope of crime prevention in terms of metropolitan policing and the issue of duplication efforts as well as overlap. The latter, as believed by the research, blur the lines of authority and results in inefficiency.

Bezuidenhout and Kempen (2021:259) describe the MPDs' crime prevention directive as often misunderstood, undefined, and unclear. Signifying this misunderstanding, according to Krone *et al.* (2020:91), SAPS is making every effort to implement continuous situational crime prevention (SCP) and resolve the opportunistic nature of the crime. SAPS uses targeted environmental or situational factors, which enable an individual to commit the crime, mainly increased efforts and risks, rewards and provocation reduction as well as the removal of justifications for likely offenders. According to the Institute for Security Studies (ISS) Africa, there is intertwined in many crimes in South Africa. For instance, gangsterism and domestic violence are the principal causes of the increased cases of murder (ISS Africa, 2022).

South Africa has in response to the most recent SAPS crime statistics supported programmes on violence prevention. Some of the tactics involved adopting zero tolerance on crime. According to Lamb (2021:93), some of these measures were evident in SAPS' approach of remilitarisation of the service and this was evident

since the 2000s. This, argues Lamb (2021), was a strategy to respond to government's concerns over police underperformance and the surging violent criminal offences. Segell's (2021:61) adds that these remilitarisation attempts were evident through added reinforcements in 2010, a year during which the country hosted the International Association Football Federation, known as FIFA World Cup. During the preparations to and during the World Cup, the reintroduction of the military salutes, ranks and insignias was evident. These remilitarisation attempts were part of SAPS' declarations of war on the crime in South Africa, however they are in contradiction with NDP 2030 strategy of demilitarizing the police force (NPC, 2012:54). Despite all of these efforts, the legislative framework continues to fail in ensuring clear control and command lines. For example, SAPS has, in regard to crime prevention, failed to impart discipline to police members, increase the morale of police and public confidence (Geldenhuys, 2019:26; Segell, 2021). Similar experiences and challenges are seemingly evident with regards to metro police officers.

The rising crime records since 1994 are dramatically increasing the workload for South Africa's entire criminal justice system. Public confidence and trust in SAPS is central to efforts of crime prevention and public safety preservations. Violence prevention programmes remain vital to unpoliced crime reduction. A majority of SAPS' initiatives like Community Policing Forums (CPFs), particularly in the high crime areas like Gauteng struggle to optimally function, thereby obstructing efficient community engagement in safety promotion and crime prevention (ISS Africa, 2022). The contest of social transformation and simultaneous response to public pressure and the high level of crime defeats any service delivery efforts by SAPS and the South African government (Lamb, 2021:139). The viable solutions to such an increase in workload are internal departmental restructuring, restocking of crime prevention skills and staff shortages staff, a lack of skills, increased morale, and new statutory-backed rules (Peacock, 2021:285).

There is a need for police service in South Africa, including the MPS to learn from its failures, effectively improve crime prevention impact and save its resources (Kriegler, 2021:2). Instead of adopting dogmatic experimentations in their crime prevention efforts, they need to embrace learning arrangements and promote intentional experimentations (Newham & Faull, 2011). The promotion of an

institutional culture, which encourages careful and intentional experimentation as well as openness helps SAPS improve rapidly in previously failed crime prevention initiatives (Edelstein & Arnott, 2019).

In line with research objectives of this study, the empirical review of literature on the challenges experienced by metro police officers in their mandate of crime prevention, municipal asset protection and law enforcement is explored in detail in Chapter 2. The next sub-section presents a brief review of literature.

1.3 Brief review of the literature

Chapter 2 and 3 of this study present an in-depth review of the literature. This is divided into review of empirical studies in the field of crime prevention and the role of law enforcement, particularly from the perspective of metro police officer. The following chapter then presents a review of theoretical literature. The current section provides highlights and a synopsis of both theoretical and empirical literature that were reviewed.

The ever-changing political landscape, for example, changes in local government administration and the dynamic nature of criminal elements perpetuates the complexity. The constitution, as the supreme law of the land, through Sections 205 and 206 makes provision for the enactment of the MPS under the auspices of municipal MPDs. The SAPS Act 68 of 1995 enables and gives effect to the establishment of the MPS. Through Section 64A of the Act, the process to be followed by a municipality in its quest to acquire an MPD is outlined (Newham, 2006; Rauch, 2001; Rauch, *et al.*, 2001). The metro police officers are then appointed at the local government level to serve and protect the citizens toward a safe and secure city. The functions and mandate of the metro police officers fall into crime prevention; municipal regulation and by-laws enforcement; and traffic policing.

On the other hand, the evidence in the literature points to overlapping and in some instances, restrictive powers and functions between the SAPS and MPS. Such a limitation potentially leads to increased challenges for MPDs in safeguarding municipal properties, duty execution, and crime prevention. Therefore, there is a lack of clarity on the MPDs' responsibilities and roles in crime prevention as well as the protection of municipal assets. Regarding asset protection, the TMPD plays a vital duty in asset protection. Madzivhandila, Mofokeng and Motsepe (2022:375) contend that

the TMPD roles include regulation of vending undertakings, security service provision, by-law enforcement, as well as protection of municipal resources, properties, and assets. According to the CTMM (2022), the main duties of the TMPD in is the protection and maintenance of municipal properties, assets and buildings crime prevention, control, road, and traffic control. The MPDs' role in crime prevention and protection of municipality's assets and properties comprises campaign management and enforcement, driver and traffic regulation, prevention, education, and awareness of accident.

Madzivhandila et al. (2022:375) studied the extent and nature of crime in South Africa's railway setting to conclude that the TMPD is legally mandated prevent, combat, and investigate crime, public order maintenance, law enforcement, security, and protection of municipal property. According to Du Toit (2022:25), the TMPD is charged with traffic policing, crime control and prevention. Mabasa and Olutola (2021:1) find that the main responsibilities and roles of the local government police departments are enforcement of the traffic laws, prevention of crime as well as municipal's by-law. Geldenhuys (2019:26) studied that municipalities' role in the prevention of crime and found that one of the key roles is physical policing by the municipal police and preventing theft of municipality property, mainly police patrols.

Grounded within multiple-theoretical framework domain - community partnership policing theory (CPPT), Coordination Theory, Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design (CPTED) model, Systems Theory, and SCP model, this study evaluated the crime prevention role TMPD officers assume in protecting the assets of the CTMM.

1.4 Research problem statement

South Africa has in the last two decades been associated with the highest rate of crime globally (Mabasa & Olutola, 2021:1). The COVID-19 epidemic complicated and worsened the crime levels and associated prevention techniques. Putting the country on a lockdown for over 18 months from 2020 and turnaround the law enforcement fraternity. The epidemic has expanded the assortment of laws, getting over fifty-five (55) arrests on the first day of the national lockdown, for breaking regulations on the Disaster Management Act (Kriegler, 2021). Relating

to these developments, Independent Police Investigative Directorate (IPID) indicates that in the financial year 2020/21, police action caused 353 deaths.

Law enforcement institutions have been criticised for failures in their mandate. For instance, while the SAPS arrested over 400000 people for new crimes relating to COVID-19 related curfew violations such as breaking lockdown rules on gathering. The SAPS officers were found to have engaged in 256 alleged torture incidents. Civilians reported 4228 police perpetrated assaults (IPID, 2022). Lekgau, Maluleke and Roelofse (2021:28) also contend that the NCPS and SAPS have lost the needed drive because of political and public pressure to convey interim solutions.

Roelf (2020:1) continues that there is a continued rise in violent crimes regardless of annual policing undertakings by the SAPS. The command structure of SAPS has failed its property protection endeavours in South Africa. The SAPS runs a compliance-based hierarchical institutional culture, which hardly embraces failure as an opportunity for learning and career advancement. There is a failure to integrate uniform tactics, strategy, and law enforcement agencies into SAPS central command structure. The uncoordinated property protection approaches defeat any established crime control purposes and property protection endeavours. As a result of law enforcement officers' failure to execute their asset protection mandate effectively and efficiently, this fuels the public's lack of confidence and trust in police service. Some of the related examples relating to the failures of law enforcement point to municipality property protection, unconstitutional regulations, particularly on alcohol access as well as the regular accusation of police officials for excessive force (Henrico, Mayoyo & Mtshawu, 2022:1).

Mabasa and Olutola (2021:2) point out that regardless of the government efforts to reduce or prevent crime through decentralisation of SAPS and the formation of six (6) MPDs, the immense vandalizing of government properties, high rate of crime and arson is causing growing debate on the effectiveness and roles of MPDs in crime prevention. Research from Shikwambana and Mofokeng (2016:74), as well as Van-Biljon (2014:47) suggest that an increase in crime levels may be attributable to centralisation of certain powers and functions to the SAPS and also inadequate specification or delineation of MPDs roles and responsibilities.

Existing legislation like the Constitution and the SAPS Act enable and effect for the establishment of MPS, however there no clear articulation of crime prevention functions and powers of MPD officers compared to those of SAPS officers. Evidence in the literature suggest overlapping and blurry lines of command between the mandate of the SAPS and the MPS. Such limitation led to the increased challenges for MPDs in safeguarding municipal properties, duty execution, and crime prevention (Makondo, Mofokeng & Khosa, 2021:161). There is therefore a lack of clarity on the MPDs' responsibilities and roles in crime prevention and protection of municipal assets. There seems to be overlapping roles and responsibilities and, in some instances, restrictive powers and functions between SAPS and MPS. Notwithstanding the vast international literature on assets protection and crime prevention, there is paucity of extant research on studies on the role of the metro police service from the perspective of legislative framework.

1.5 Research aim, objectives, and questions for the study

Research aim is the overall pronouncement of what the research project intends to achieve (Creswell & Poth, 2016:38). In this section, the study's aim, the formulated objectives, and research questions aimed at addressing the research phenomenon, in particular the research problem are presented. Therefore, the current research aims to evaluate the role of crime prevention the TMPD assumes in protecting the assets of the CTMM in the Gauteng province of South Africa. This is achieved through exploring the statutory mandate of the MPDs, challenges faced by the officers in the daily execution of their work and possible areas of improvement necessary to enhance their mandate.

1.5.1 Research objectives

Research objectives are concise and clear statements, which enable a researcher to investigate the study variables. In general, a research objective assists in the measurement of the study variables (Yassine, Kadry & Sicilia, 2021:5). Priyadharma (2021:123) insists that while the primary study objective defines a particular study aim and is stated clearly in the introduction of the study protocol, research objectives are declarations on how a study will efficiently answer the indicated research question. Research objectives clearly state the measures a study used or will use because they help in guiding the development of study design, procedures, and calculations of sample size. The objectives determine the

value of the conducted research and help guide protocol development and study design. Drawing from the introduction, the background discussion, and the aim of the research, the research objectives for the study are formulated as follows:

- To explore the role of TMPD officers in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM.
- To examine the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM.
- To make recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the TMPD officers can be enhanced.

1.5.2 Research questions

According to Davies and Mosdell (2022:17), research questions are the particular inquiries a study intends to resolve. Creswell and Poth (2016:39) state that with qualitative studies, the technique to address the research objectives of the study is through probing exploratory or explanatory research questions instead of having hypotheses, which are usually predictive in nature and are associated with quantitative studies. Following from the above discussion on the background and introduction to the research problem, as well as the presentation of research objectives, the research questions for the purpose of this study are formulated as follows:

- What is the role of TMPD officers in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM?
- What are the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in the CTMM?
- What measures need to be put in place to enhance the asset protection mandate of the TMPD?

1.6 Potential significance (contribution) of the study

According to Mudau, Mukonza and Ntshangase (2019:4), research has to make a rationally useful or direct contribution to the field of private or public priority. Drawing from the research findings, the potential significance of the study is illustrated according to methodological, theoretical, and practical contributions.

1.6.1 Methodological contribution

The value of qualitative research lies in its ability for an in-depth exploration of the research phenomenon. Likewise, in the current research, qualitative research methodology was employed through espousing the use of semi-structured interviews to gain more insights and understanding of the role of the TMPD's metro police officers in their crime prevention mandate, in particular the function of protecting the CTMM's assets. Through this research method, I was able to discover the challenges experienced by the metro police officers in the execution of the mandate. Furthermore, the added value of employing semi-structured is that it allows flexibility in probing technique as the researcher is able to employ a predetermined thematic framework without having questions set or phrased in particular order.

The lessons learned from this study is that collecting research data, especially through interviews from metro police officers can be a challenging exercise. This is due to the demanding nature of their job, ethical issues as well as logistical challenges for most of these officers are not office bound. As a researcher I then had to devise convenient and suitable way of securing the interview slots. For example, I employed the following three strategies which helped to increase the response rate, which is usually a challenge for these kinds of studies. The tactics employed are espoused in the below subsections.

1.6.1.1 Establish a rapport through building partnerships

The first step was to establish a rapport through the local enforcement in the form of TMPD management. This was a way to garner support from the management of the metro to connect me with the potential and relevant research participants. This collaboration strengthened the credibility of the study and the data collection method.

1.6.1.2 Seek official endorsement through gate-keeping letter

This tactic is a follow-up and is intertwined with the previous one of establishing rapport and building collaboration with relevant strategic key stakeholders. In line with ethical considerations from both Unisa and the TMPD, official endorsement was sought through gate-keeping letter from both institutions. This enabled

approval of ethical clearance certificates as attached in appendix B of the dissertation.

1.6.1.3 Leveraging on personal referrals

With my prior experience of having worked in the TMPD and my familiarity with MPD, I had the advantage of leveraging on personal referrals to know as to who to go for to build rapport with municipal officials, especially those who are involved with research-related matters.

1.6.1.4 Build trust and provide assurance for the research participants

This is necessary before the interviews can take place and is probably the most important and effective tactic as the availability and consent of the research participants ultimately affect the success of the research project. For the fear of victimisation as they are working in a sensitive industry, I was able to earn trust from the participants through providing them with assurance that their responses are to remain anonymous and in no way, the findings of the study will be linked to their personal information.

1.6.2 Literature and theoretical contribution

The current study contributes to both the empirical literature and theoretical framework. The study continues and improve from the prior work of Madihlaba (Faull, 2008; Madihlaba, 2018; 2021; Naidoo, 2020; Taumang et al., 2022) whose research fall within the realm of exploring the plight of the metro police officers. The strength of this contribution lies in the field being confronted with paucity of research studies exploring the role of the metro police officers from the perspective of the legislative mandate.

The theoretical contribution of this study lies in the adoption of a multiple theoretical framework as an approach to review of theoretical literature. This study employed relatively less explored theoretical framework, especially from the perspective of South African metro police environment to understand the role of metro police officers on the mandate of crime prevention and protecting the assets of the city from the new theoretical perspective. The following theories were employed for the purpose of understanding the research phenomenon, namely Systems Theory, Coordination Theory, CPTED Theory, SCP and Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT).

1.6.3 Practical contribution

The practical contribution of this study lies in the implications the study will have on policy refinement on the working conditions of the MPDS officers, revision in the legislative framework and implications on policy implementation. This study adds to prevailing literature on the crime prevention role of the TMPD in the protection of the assets of CTMM, Gauteng, South Africa. This study explores the various TMPD strategies for crime prevention and the determination of assigned functions. This study enables communities and law enforcement agencies in South Africa to appreciate comprehensively the role of TMPD in crime prevention and property protection.

In addition, this contribution pertains to community-led crime fighting intervention, and the study signifies the importance of involving communities in crime prevention. This approach has proven to be successful in other parts of the world like the United Kingdom (UK), the United States (US), and even in some parts of Africa. This study proposes a conceptual model for crime prevention mandate model for MPDs, and this is presented in Chapter six, section 6.2. Finally, this study shed a light on the information and recommendations pertaining to crime prevention mandate from the perspective of MPDs in South Africa. The recommendations are presented in section 6.3 of Chapter six.

This study takes note of the fact that the existing resources and SAPS structures hardly permit the duplication of units, and functions, yet the TMPD suffers from increased expenses, replication of different support and inadequate training services by national police service institutions, municipal and metro divisions. Therefore, stakeholders like the Parliament, the Ministry of Police, MPDs and other key stakeholders involved in crime prevention mandate both in public and private institutions can use the findings from the study for policy development or refinement, future training initiatives, and the capacitation of the police service. This then offers crime-prevention experts and other interested practitioners an exceptional chance to explore crime prevention from the MPD perspective. The study thus adds toward the advancement of a standardised interpretation of crime prevention legislative framework for harmonised working relationship between the SAPS and the MPS from the perspective of municipal policing. All in all, the

research provides a valuable understanding of how MPD members participate and accordingly perceive crime prevention strategies and tactics.

1.7 Definition of key concepts for the study

The main concepts in this study include the following:

1.7.1 Crime prevention

According to Umanah and Wotela (2020:79), crime prevention means any actions intended to deter and prevent the actual crime levels. For Govender (2019:376), crime prevention involves assessment, anticipation, and acknowledgement of the risk in crime as well as the commencement of needed action for crime eradication or reduction. While the crime prevention concept is, a problematic notion due to the different crime stages involved therein, however, crime prevention comprises actions projected to restrain the real crime levels (Benson, 2021:425; Pridmore, Mols, Wang & Holleman, 2019:97). Crime prevention is according to the 1998 White Paper on Safety and Security the undertakings which deter, prevent, or reduce the incidence of crimes by environmental alteration, change of causing conditions and provision of strong deterrents, mainly an efficient Justice System.

From the above and for this study, crime prevention includes the activities for mitigating criminal conduct, reduction, deterrence, and prevention of re-occurrence of crimes. Crime prevention involves a change in the existing environment of crime occurrence as well as changing conditions attributed to the rate of crime. This study establishes that crime prevention comprises the provision of strong deterrence in the form of efficient criminal justice systems.

1.7.2 Policing

According to Bello and John-Langba (2020:306), policing is the methods, practices, and strategies for amongst others, keeping law and order as well as crime prevention. The National Institute of Justice (2022) suggests further that broadly, tenure policing comprises procedures, a general obligation of social order, several processes, and institutional preparations as well as deliberate undertakings to enforce shared community standards and protection from predators. For this study, policing means the reactive and proactive statutory activities by government, law enforcement agencies, and private and public

persons intended to deter wrongdoing, reassure safety, maintain public order, create executable enforcement functions, and investigate and prevent crime.

1.7.3 By-laws

By-laws mean the legislation or rules by a municipality council to standardize matters in the area of authorised jurisdiction (CTMM, 2022). By-laws means laws, which a municipality and its council administer, adopt, and make to regulate the services and affairs within the municipality's jurisdiction (Drakenstein Municipality, 2022).

1.7.4 Traffic laws

Traffic laws mean rules on interactions between pedestrians and vehicles. These rules are part of crime prevention (CTMM, 2022). Road or Traffic policing means enforcing the 1996 National Road Traffic Act No. 93 as amended. The intention of traffic policing is to protect road infrastructure, promote free traffic flow and reduction of road traffic accidents or incidents (Mabasa & Olutola, 2021:1).

1.7.5 Police

According to the CTMM (2022) and 1995 SAPS Act, No. 68, police mean government agencies and departments concerned principally with public order maintenance, as well as law, safety, and health enforcement. Police means SAPS that is responsible for crime prevention, combating and investigation; public order maintenance; protection and security of inhabitants and property and law enforcement (SAPS, 2022).

1.8 Short description of the methodological research design and approach

Given the mono-qualitative nature of the research, the exploratory research design was employed by following Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill's (2009:101) methodological framework known as the '*research onion*'. This framework shaped the research philosophy, research approach, research strategy, population and sampling, methodological choices, time horizon, data collection procedures as well as data presentation and analysis techniques followed in this study. The interpretivist research philosophy was adopted to explore the experiences and insights of selected TMPD officers involved in the asset protection and crime prevention mandate of the CTMM.

Subsequently, the choice of this research philosophy aligns with qualitative research, and from the sample of 56 TMPD officers from the crime prevention department, who are directly involved in the crime prevention and assets protection mandate of the CTMM. These include traffic wardens, chief of police, constables, commanders, and directors. The selected officers were sampled through purposive sampling for the interest was on those officers involved in the crime prevention and assets protection mandate of the municipality. Additionally, the interviews were arranged based on their availability and consent to partake in the study.

Furthermore, the interviews were live recorded on the Microsoft Teams platform and were later transcribed through the Microsoft word program. Due to financial and time constraints, a case study method was followed to study officers only in the Tshwane area. Still within the realm of qualitative research, an inductive research approach was employed, which helped the researcher in exploring the lived realities and experiences of the TMPD officers on their role in crime prevention and asset protection. Data was analysed through qualitative data analysis software, named Atlas.ti version 23. Hence, a thematic analysis approach was followed by research to determine the themes that emerged from the interviews.

On the other hand, the findings of the study revealed that fragment legislative loopholes on the framework governing the mandate of both the MPS and SAPS, in particular when it comes to powers to arrest and investigate the cases. Further to these findings, the TMPD officers are grappling a range of various challenges from lack of adequate resources and necessary equipment to fight crime and protect assets of the CTMM, inadequate management support, unfair remuneration practices, misalignment performance management system, lack of employee involvement and participation in strategy-oriented mandate, insufficient technology-aided interventions for crime prevention to insufficient specialised units. The role played by community-led initiatives to fight and prevent crime seems to be underestimated and CPFs are underutilised. In terms of the recommendations there is a need for sustainable funding model to capacitate law enforcement officers.

1.9 Organisation (structure) of the dissertation

This part presents chapter summary for the study, which are organised as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction and background

This chapter presents an introduction and background to the study on the role played by TMPD and its crime prevention mandate in the protection of the assets of CTMM. The chapter also details the problem statement, research aims, objectives and questions. This chapter indicates the organisation of the study.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter presents contemporary review of the literature on the study topic. This review comprises of scholarly findings, conclusions, and opinions in the literature on the crime prevention role and challenges of TMPD in the protection of municipal assets in CTMM. The research objectives guide reviews of literature in this chapter, and the identified research gaps, which inform the direction and nature of the study questions.

Chapter Three: Theoretical review of literature

In this chapter, an account of theoretical framework underpinning the research phenomenon is undertaken. The multiple theoretical approach to the review of the literature has been adopted in the study to identify the gaps, the relevancy and critic of each theoretical framework. The conceptual model is also presented in the chapter.

Chapter Four: Research design, philosophy, and methodological overview

This chapter describes the research methodology employed to study the crime prevention role of the TMPD in the protection of the assets of CTMM. The chapter discusses the chosen research philosophy, design, and approach used in the study. This chapter also indicates the target population, sampling method and design. The methods of data collection and analysis used throughout this research process are also outlined. The concluding section of the chapter indicate the theoretical framework guiding the process of research as well as the limitations of the study.

Chapter Five: Findings, presentation, and analysis

This chapter presents the research findings from the data collection. The chapter also analyses and discusses the research findings within the context of the literature review.

Chapter Six: Summary, conclusions, and recommendations

Based on the study findings, this chapter presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of the study. The chapter identifies general limitations to the study as well as the areas for further study.

1.10 Chapter summary

The chapter contains an introduction and background on the crime prevention role of the Tshwane metro police department in the protection of the assets of CTMM, Gauteng, South Africa. The chapter establishes that the problem is South Africa's metropolitan policing struggles with property protection and crime prevention. SAPs has failed to embrace a common and holistic approach to municipality property protection and crime prevention. SAPS suffers from restructuring its property protection arrangements and/or programmes for increased community participation. The following chapter is a review of contemporary literature on the crime prevention role of the Tshwane metro police department in the protection of the assets of the CTMM, Gauteng, South Africa.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The previous chapter introduced the study through background information. In addition, chapter one also presented a discussion on the research problem, research aim, a brief review of the literature, and the research methodology. The last two sections of chapter one respectively presented the study's contribution and the chapter outline. The current chapter presents a discussion on the preliminary review of the literature of the study. The following sources were consulted as part of the critical review process, namely: journal research articles, industry reports, theses and dissertations, and parliamentary and media publications.

Figure 2.1 provides a schematic presentation of this study literature review, and the rest of the chapter is structured as follows: section 2.2 presents the origin and evolution of policing in South Africa. This section is followed by a discussion of the historical perspective on the CTMM in section 2.3. In section 2.4, the review of how MPDs are established, including the legislative framework is reviewed. In section 2.5, the mandates of the MPDs from the perspective of the Constitutional framework are reviewed. The review of legislative mandates governing the MPDs follows in section 2.6. The international and continent perspective of MPS is respectively reviewed in sections 2.7 and 2.8. Section 2.9 documents the challenges faced by MPDs, whilst the last section provides concluding remarks for the chapter.

2.2 The origin and evolution of policing in South Africa

Through the constitution, the South African government has accorded the SAPS the power and responsibility to enforce the law and defend the lives, property, and safety of its residents. The Constitution, and SAPS Act No. 51 (68) of 1995 are the enabling legislative framework governing the functions and responsibilities of the SAPS. The history of the SAPS and its evolution is quite a complex one given the historic nature of South African politics, from apartheid to the transition into a democratic society. The critics of the previous (apartheid) police force were on its hard-rule approach to law enforcement and militarisation attitude or stance. Under the apartheid, the police force was known as the South African Police (SAP) and the officers were instrumental in the enforcement of laws of the regime at the time, maintaining control and using maximum force to suppress those who were in the opposition.

Therefore, the birth of democracy, through the Constitution, saw the government embarking on a transformation journey for the police in 1995. At the core of this exercise was to restructure and reform the functions and responsibilities of police officers in community policing, human rights, and democratic principles. More than anything was the urge to view police service as servicing the community, henceforth the police service reference. This implies the endeavour to serve the community rather than adopting a seemingly hostile and heavy-handed approach. According to Walker (2012:143), the police's primary responsibility was to uphold the law priority to guarantee that all citizens and their property were safeguarded.

Figure 2.1 below provides a schematic presentation of this study literature review.

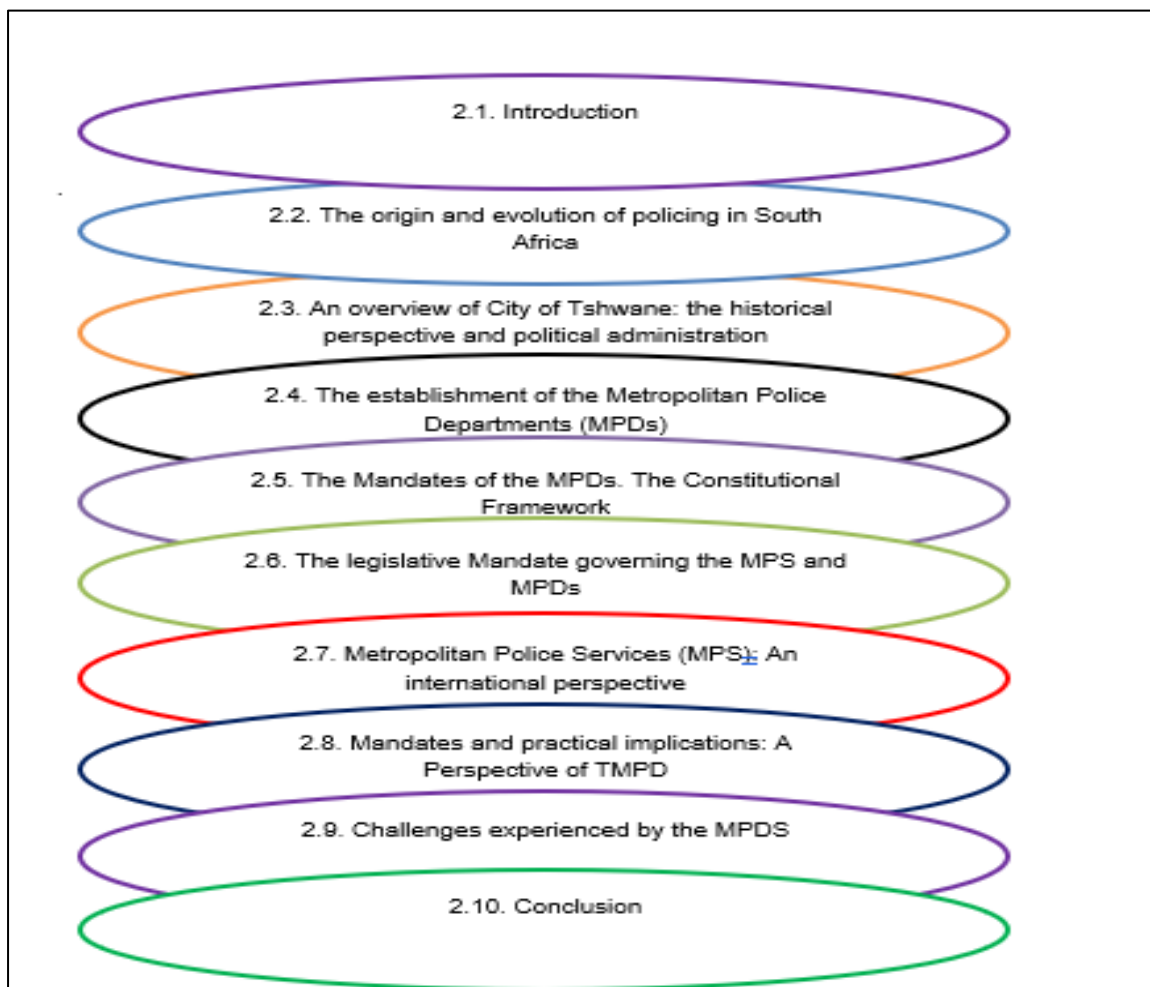


Figure 2.1: The layout of empirical review of literature

2.3 The establishment of South African Police Service (SAPS)

The SAPS underwent a significant transition as a result of the democratic rule that followed the national elections of 1994. In the post-apartheid era, the SAPS was

confronted with myriad challenges, from leadership instabilities, corruption, and maladministration to surging crime statistics. The latter points to inefficiencies in the fight against crime and law enforcement. This could have been exacerbated by transformation efforts and targets that were aimed at diversifying the human capital at the SAPS and correcting the imbalances of the past. This then saw most white law enforcement officers exiting the police force either through resignation or retirement (Walker, 2012:143). To contextualise some of these challenges, Van Heerden (1982:29) asserts that there was a rise in the incidence of livestock thefts, particularly those involving cattle, farm animals, pigs, and sheep. This then means that the law enforcement officials are required to help and put efforts to stop crimes from happening and catch those who commit crimes so that the community lives in a safe place.

Upon the establishment of the SAPS, there were various reforms and strategies that were enacted aimed at improving the efficiency of the police. Training and development, accountability, and governance frameworks as well as technology integration are some of the reforms that were proposed. Furthermore, the idea of the CPFs was also conceptualised as part of the community-engaged response to crime and law enforcement and forging relationships with the community.

2.4 The legislative framework enabling the SAPS

Section 68 of the SAPS Act, together with articles 205 (1), (2), and (3) of the Constitution, state that the changes to SAPS are meant to enhance how the police enforce the rule of law in the population. According to the Constitution, the nation founded the police service with the goals of defending citizens from criminal elements, upholding national law and order, and looking into criminal behaviour generally. As stated in Section 205(3) of the Constitution, the SAPS has the following functions:

- ❖ work to guarantee that illegal acts are avoided and dealt with;
- ❖ that accused corrupt officials are brought to justice;
- ❖ that public order is preserved;
- ❖ that personal property is safeguarded: and
- ❖ that harmony and peace are always upheld.

The Constitution further stipulates in Sections 206 (1), (2), and (3) that the president's designated government head, who is in charge of police matters, must also develop a

policing plan that would serve as a clear roadmap for management and administration. The SAPS Act as amended by the SAPS Amendment Act 83 of 1998, governs SAPS. Following the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) and National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) of 1996, the constituted council police authority is given certain authority to develop and implement criminal plans and strategies that will improve society's overall well-being, including its roads, localities, and housing stock. In the other perspective, Palmiotto (2011:85) claims that SAPS has established a system of cross-departmental communications and community engagement to address any rising criminal element in society. In terms of statutory mandates, authority, and accountability, the SAPS's role in criminal reduction differs from the one that the metropolitan police force is anticipated to participate in. Therefore, the following are the primary legislative frameworks enabling the functions and responsibilities of the police service:

- The Constitution, 1996
- The SAPS Act (Act 68 of 1995)
- The SAPS Amendment Act (83 of 1998)

There are several supplementary legislative frameworks worth mentioning that affect the work of the SAPS. However, the review of such legislation falls outside the scope of the current study. Such pieces of legislation amongst others include the Criminal Procedure Act No 51 of 1977; Security Officers Amendment Act 25 1990; Criminal procedure amendment Act 56 1979; Parliamentary internal security commission Act 67 1976 (see Wits Libguide, 2023). For this study, the aim of literature review was to demonstrate how MPS in the metropolitan cities were established based on the provisions in the Constitution and how the SAPS Act became an enabling legislative framework for this purpose. In the next section, the historical perspective of CTMM's political administration is presented, leading to the establishment of TMPD.

2.5 An overview of the CTMM: The historical perspective and political administration

Pretoria, the Capital city of South Africa, is situated in the northern part of Gauteng Province. The town boasts a rich and significant history dating to the 19th century when it was known as the Transvaal Republic. Its birth points to the influence of white Afrikaners, particularly Marthinus Wessel Pretorius, who founded the city in 1855 and

dedicated the name to his father, Andries Pretorius who was the prominent Afrikaner leader. The strategic location of the city was underpinned by the trade potentials at the time and the city being the capital of the RSA. Pretoria alongside Johannesburg is the anchoring corridor for economic development and concentration in Gauteng. Furthermore, they are regarded as the most dominant nodes, attracting development and economic growth distribution in the province (Brand, Geyer & Geyer, 2017). For this purpose, this study saw a need to evaluate TMPD's crime prevention role in protecting the assets of the CTMM.

Between the years 1899-1902, a period after Anglo-Boer War, British rule came into force and occupied the city until the Union of South Africa was established in 1910. This period was followed by the Apartheid Era (1948 to 1994), which was characterised by racial segregation. With this rule, non-white South Africans who were and still are the majority of the population, were discriminated against on the basis of their skin and were made to live in separate areas from the white minorities. They had to use separate public facilities from the white population such as transport, shopping facilities, and other forms of engagement and social life. The contact between the two groups was therefore strictly restricted, including interracial relationships or marriages.

The end of apartheid witnessed the birth of new dawn through democracy after the country's first democratic elections in 1994. With this new political administration characterised by non-racialism and freedom, the African National Congress (ANC) became the dominant political party in both national and local political spheres. The democratic dispensation saw historical changes in the names of most of the country's artefacts or landmarks such as the streets, towns, buildings, etc. The Pretoria name was then changed to Tshwane, and this was met with hostility and discomfort, mainly from the white Afrikaners through the support of the Democratic Alliance and the Freedom Front (FF) Plus. Subsequently, through court battles, this has been a back-and-forth exercise directed by the court challenges, until Tshwane's name was maintained to be the name of the local municipality, with the town remaining as Pretoria.

ANC's dominance in local government continued until 2016 when it lost governing power to the DA. Almost three years later, there were realignments and shifts in local government politics. This saw a city being under a coalition government being formed,

which comprised the ANC, Economic Freedom Fighters (EFF), and other smaller parties. The DA then lost power and since then, the city has been experiencing instability challenges as a result of changes in local governance. One of the notable challenges has been coalition-led governance dictated by the influence of smaller parties such as the EFF, FF Plus, Action SA and Cope. The TMPD has not been spared from these developments and some of the challenges are evident in staff and resources-allocation because of budget allocations, which are primarily the function of the Council.

2.6 The establishment of Metropolitan Police Departments (MPDs)

South Africa has eight metros across five provinces. Three metros are in Gauteng province, that is Ekurhuleni (EMPD), Johannesburg (JMPD), and Tshwane (TMPD). Buffalo City and Nelson Mandela Bay are two metros in the Eastern Cape, while the Western Cape has the City of Cape Town metro, KwaZulu Natal has the Durban metro and Free State has the Mangaung metro.

Section 64A of the SAPS Act 68 of 1995 outlines the process to be followed by a municipality in its quest to acquire an MPD (Newham, 2006; Rauch, 2001; and Rauch *et al.*, 2001). Chapter 12 of the Act discusses some topics related to the creation, operation, and management of metropolitan police forces. MPD application may be submitted by any municipality to the member of the executive committee (MEC) of the concerned province following Section 64A, in the manner prescribed (Kynoch, 2016:31; Riekert and de Vries, 2015:100). The approval or rejection of the establishment of the MPD rests with the MEC. According to Khumalo and Obioha (2016:38), the application needs to comply with the conditions that are underlined in the Municipal Police Services:

- ❖ The request must adhere to the pertinent conditions outlined in the Municipal Police Services Regulations.
- ❖ The municipality shall be equipped to offer a 24-hour metropolitan police service that adheres to the federal norm for MPD.
- ❖ The creation of such a metropolitan police department shouldn't harm the municipality's traffic enforcement efforts, and enough provisions should be created to provide civilian control of MPD.
- ❖ The creation of an MPD ought to increase the province's police force's efficiency.

The municipality needs to have adequate resources and can meet the MPS needs.

2.7 The Mandates of the MPDs: The Constitutional framework

The South African metropolitan police agencies had significant challenges in the years following 1994 about the duties they vowed to carry out in combating and preventing crime. Initially, the Black Local Authorities Act No. 102 of 1982 provided the courage to form municipal security units inside municipal boundaries. This Act gave the municipal safety forces the right and authority to patrol the streets, detain people who are operating without a permit, and inspect vendors who are operating in the big cities'-controlled areas. While on duty, municipal police officers control traffic by maintaining visibility, responding to criminal situations, and making sure that crime and accident scenes are kept clean.

There are three sections in the Constitution that make provision for the existence of the MPDs. First, Sec 205 (1) states as follows: "The national police service must be structured to function on a national, provincial and where appropriate local spheres of government." This implies that MPDs are enabled to function in a local administration through the metropolitan municipality. Then, Section 206 (7) makes provision through national legislation by providing "a framework for the establishment, powers, functions, and control of municipal police." It is from this provision that the responsibilities and functions of the various MPDs are drawn.

The last section is Sec 207 (2), which reads as follows: "The National Commissioner must exercise control and manage the police service in accordance with the national policing policy and the directions of the cabinet member responsible for policing. Basically, this provision empowers the National Commissioner of the police the management and control functions in line with the national strategy of policing. By extension, MPDs' mandate should be in aligned with the national strategy of poling which states as follows: "*Prevent, combat and investigate crime, maintain public order, protect and secure the inhabitants of South Africa and their property, and uphold and enforce the law.*"

The establishment of the MPS was influenced by the need to complement the SAPS, given the inefficiencies and challenges the police service was and is still experiencing. The MPD establishment is necessary to improve crime prevention through asset protection in the city. They work in collaboration with the SAPS but operate under the

authority of the local municipality. Furthermore, focus on enforcing local bylaws, traffic management, and community safety within their respective jurisdictions. According to Moulton (2019:19) the functions of MPD's include:

- crime prevention;
- asset protection;
- municipal regulation and by-laws enforcement; and
- traffic policing

2.8 The legislative mandates governing the MPDs

The failure of South Africa's top law enforcement agencies, including the SAPS and municipal police, to stop serious criminal elements is perceived as posing a grave security risk to the greater society (Pheiffer, 2013:157). This study saw that gap of a failure suggested by Pheiffer (2013) then seeks to make recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the TMPD officers can be enhanced. The SAPS Act and its amendment are the legislative mandates governing the functions and responsibilities of the MPDs. The promulgation of Sec 64 of the SAPS Act, 68 of 1995, gave effect to provisions of Sec 205 (1) of the Constitution in the establishment of the MPS. According to Section 64L of the SAPS Act, the "National Commissioner shall determine the minimum standards for training for police force. These standards and protocols are explained in section 2.6.4 as part of collaboration and cooperation efforts between the SAPS and MPS.

2.8.1 Traffic policing

The National Road Traffic Act (Act 93 of 1996) laws are a crucial part of an MPD's regulatory system. A certified traffic officer is a requirement for appointment as an MP officer under Section 3A of the National Road Traffic Act (Regulations for Municipal Police Services, 1999). To the same degree that they apply to provincial and municipal traffic officers, the rules regulating the hiring, training, and termination of MP law enforcement personnel must also apply to them.

- Traffic policing, subject to any legislation relating to road traffic (Road Policing)
- National Road Traffic Act, 1996 (Act No. 93 of 1996)
- National Land Transport Act, 2009 (Act No. 5 of 2009)
- Administrative Adjudication of Road Traffic Offences Act, 1998 (Act No. 46 of 1998) (Presently only active in Johannesburg and Tshwane)

Road policing operations are managed and supervised by a traffic officer and a metropolitan police officer appointed according to Section 31 of the National Road Traffic Act (Van Biljon, 2014:25). As Van Biljon (2014) stressed that road policing operations are managed and supervised by a traffic officer and a metropolitan police officer, then there is a need to develop a comprehensive study to evaluate metro police department's crime prevention role in protecting the assets more in particular at CTMM because Van Biljon (2014) study was on road policing in general. According to Section 64A of the SAPS Act, a local authority's functional responsibility for traffic enforcement, monitoring, and control cannot be altered by the establishment of a Metro Police Force. Hence this study clarified the role of SAPS and went further to investigate the crime prevention role of TMPD's protecting the assets of the CTMM.

In addition, Mokoena (2007:71) declares that highway visibility, accident management, street patrol, and road traffic control are essential municipal police activities to establish a stable environment for driving. Moreover, according to Mokoena (2007) the municipal police's primary responsibilities are to uphold and implement the law's provisions for traffic control, management, and authority. This study is similar to Mokoena (2007) however, this study is more unique as its focus is on the Capital city of the RSA with also a dimension of examining the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM.

2.8.2 By-laws and Regulation Policing

The policing of municipal by-laws and regulations which are the responsibility of the municipality in question. Municipalities each promulgate by-laws relevant to their unique environments. A by-law is a piece of local legislation that a municipal council adopts to impose limits on a variety of local offences (Memeza, 2001; Mokoena, 2007). The following provisions of Section 156(2), Schedule 4 Part B, and Schedule 5 Part B of the Constitution (1996) may be regulated, among other things, by municipal by-laws:

- Rules for buildings;
- Day-care centres and public health services;
- Services for battling fires;
- Local public transportation;
- Piers, harbours, jetties, pontoons, and ferries;
- Regulations for trade;

- Public spaces, amusement parks, and beaches;
- Billboards, as well as the placement of advertisements in public spaces;
- Cemeteries, chapels of worship, and crematories;
- Noise pollution and public nuisances are under control; and
- Management of businesses that provide alcohol to the public.

2.8.3 Crime prevention

Crime prevention entails modifying the environment in which certain behaviour takes place, the factors that cause it, and providing a strong deterrent through establishing a functional criminal justice system. In 1996, the National Crime Prevention Strategy (NCPS) was adopted as the RSA's main strategy for combating crime (Pelser & Louw, 2002). With the implementation of this policy in May 1996, South Africa's approach to crime switched from proactive crime prevention to reactive criminal control (Bruce, 2006; Naudé, 2000). According to Newham (2006), South Africa's National Crime Prevention Policy is a comprehensive national strategy for lowering crime. Du Plessis and Louw (2005) went further to highlight that the NCPS, serves as a structure for a variety of interdepartmental projects that are focused on enhancing ecological architecture as a means of preventing crime, enhancing the criminal justice system, enhancing community values and education, and refocusing on transnational crime to increase safety.

On the other hand, one of the objectives of the NCPS is the creation of a unified regulatory framework that will enable the government to combat crime in a synchronised and coordinated manner and that makes use of the assets of all government entities in addition to civil society (1996). In addition, the promotion of a unified understanding and vision for how our country will combat crime. This vision should educate and inspire the province and local initiatives in the creation of a set of national programmes that serve to launch and concentrate the efforts of different government departments in providing quality service and focus on resolving the issues that contribute to high crime rates. With all has been discussed above, it is evidence that there is still a gap in conducting a study that will evaluate metro police department's crime prevention role in protecting the assets of the municipality particularly at Tshwane.

2.8.4 Co-operation and collaboration efforts

The co-operation and collaboration legislation regulates cooperation between SAPS and Metro Police. This is not a service level agreement because MPS is not an agent for SAPS but a strategic alliance partner (PMG, 2019). The ever-changing legislative and operating landscape for policing needs a more flexible and proactive cooperation system rather than a stringent and reactive one. Based on this claim, Du Preez (1983:282) for example makes a specific recommendation about a redefinition of the role of the SAPS and then declares as follows: "there must be a move away from the current reactive policing process in which negative enforcement controls enjoy rank".

Through the following sections in the SAPS Act, the cooperation and coordination between the SAPS and MPS are regulated: Section 64 C (2) (e) - (g); Section 64 K, L, M, N, O, and Section 64 P. The following are the structures and mechanisms through which cooperation between the stakeholders takes place, namely:

- National Standards, Regulations, and National Instructions
- Standard Operating Procedures (SOP's)
- Local Station and Cluster Meetings
- Provincial Joint Operation Command Meetings
- National Joint Operation Command Meetings
- National Chief's Forum Meetings

Regulations, standards, and instructions were issued to give effect to the legislative prescriptions for cooperation and coordination between the SAPS and MPS. These include:

- National Standard for Metro Police on Crowd Management
- National Standard for Metro Police on Domestic Violence
- National Standard for Metro Police on Crime Scenes
- National Standard for Metro Police on Arrest, Search and Seizure

It is evident from the above discussion that there are clear regulations, standards, and instructions between SAPS and MPS. Therefore, this study will focus more on the regulations of the MPS rather than that of SAPS. The next section is devoted to the discussion of MPS based on the international perspective, what are their practices when it comes to crime prevention and asset protection.

2.9 Metropolitan Police Services (MPS): An international perspective

MPDs in other parts of the world, for example, the New York Metropolitan Department in the United States (US) uses its police force to investigate crimes, carry out intelligence-driven operations, and carry out operations aimed at preventing crime by stopping and searching anyone walking the streets who is thought to be a criminal (Bushnell, 2017:30). This differs from provisions accorded to MPDs in South Africa where the investigation powers rest with the SAPS. Melbourne, Australia's Victoria town, has an exponentially rising theft, robbery, and assault rate because there is no clear legislative direction or administration of the metropolitan police hierarchy (Bushnell, 2017:29). This points to blurry lines of authority, which is explored in the current study. Our study is unique from the study of Bushnell (2017) because in this study there is a clear demarcation of the roles of SAPS and that of MPS.

Mexicans are seemingly dissatisfied with the municipal police's and their associated national police forces' performance in the prevention of crime in the city of Michoacán owing to rising drug-related crimes and drug syndicates and the presence of hard-core crime lords who appear to be winning the criminal war against the police and security clusters (Ochoa & Torres, 2019:226). In all these instances, this may point to incongruent policy alignment and clarity. This policy gap may be a result of South Africa's more centralised governance structure than the federal structure utilised by the United Kingdom (UK) and the US. The study of Ochoa and Torres (2019) state the dissatisfaction of the Mexicans with the municipal police; therefore, this study addressed the dissatisfaction by making recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the municipality officers especially at Tshwane can be enhanced.

In another study examined the role of metro police in Zimbabwe, Nyamadzao (2017:2) indicated that municipal police in Zimbabwe have many roles, which include the provision of security services, enforcement of all by-laws, clamping offending vehicles, and protection of municipal assets, resources and properties and regulating vending activities. The roles stipulated in the study of Nyamadzao (2017) are similar to the roles this study aimed to evaluate in TMPD. The study of Nyamadzao focused on Zimbabwe, however this study focused on South Africa especially in Tshwane as according to this study's knowledge there is no study evaluated police department's crime prevention role in protecting the assets of the CTMM.

According to Riekert and De Vries (2015:130), the chief responsibilities of TMPD in South Africa are the maintenance and protection of municipal assets, buildings, and properties including combatting crime, crime control, traffic control, and protection of Tshwane's by-laws. The study of Riekert and De Vries (2015) further added that the function of MPDs in crime prevention of municipality's assets and properties consists of managing and enforcing campaigns, regulating traffic laws and driver habits, and participating in accident prevention awareness as well as educating the public on traffic-related matters.

The study of Riekert and De Vries (2015) intentionally ignored the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM. Therefore, this study fills that gap by examining the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM. Additionally, Madzivhandila (2019:9), argues South African MPDs are required to investigate and prevent crime as well as maintain and execute the law. Moreover, MPDs are also required to preserve public order and safeguard and secure municipal property. The argument of Madzivhandila (2019) will cause confusion between the roles of SAPS and MPDs. This study clearly states that the investigation role lies with SAPS.

Khumalo and Obioha (2016:105) investigated the main roles of TMPD and found that the main roles of the TMPD include crime prevention and control as well as traffic police. The study of Khumalo and Obioha (2016) excluded the maintenance and protection of municipal assets as the role of TMPD. This study then included the maintenance and protection of municipal assets; hence it is unique from the study of Khumalo and Obioha (2016). Newham and Rappert (2018:8) excluded the maintenance and protection of municipal assets and add that the key roles and responsibilities of local government police departments include traffic law enforcement, crime prevention and municipal by-law enforcement. To define the role of the TMPD in crime reduction, the Tshwane Road Policing Strategy (2013:01) argues that Tshwane local authority must adhere to crime prevention laws while maintaining order and regulation within the municipal's scope (Khumalo & Obioha, 2016:41). According to the strategy, the metro police or public police's capacity to deter and end criminal behaviour in the Tshwane area increases the likelihood of bolstering trust and confidence in society (Newham *et al.*, 2006:102).

2.10 Mandates and practical implications: TMPD perspective

To improve the quality of life for everyone within the municipal jurisdiction, TMPD uses by-law policing, which ensures voluntary cooperation with the municipality (Faull, 2008:21). According to Khumalo and Obioha (2016:47) all initiatives to stop, discourage, or lessen the frequency of specific criminal elements fall under the category of crime prevention. Newham *et al.*, (2006) added that the TMPD also uses law enforcement to impose a punishment on behaviour that obstructs the administration of justice. As already mentioned, the SAPS Amendment Act enables local governments to ask for the implementation of the metropolitan police, and the approval is sought through the office of the MEC (Newham *et al.*, 2006).

On the other hand, a comparative breakdown of the time spent on operational functions by metropolitan police officers revealed that Cape Town, TMPD, and JMPD spent the most time (60%, 43%, and 77%, respectively) on traffic control. Durban and the EMPD spent about 60% of their time on crime prevention. Thus, the primary areas of interest for MPS are the rules governing illegal dumping, hawking, and land invasion. The fact that enforcing traffic laws makes up a sizable portion of some Metro Policing activities can be attributed to the fact that the majority of Metro Police officers were once traffic officers. The abilities available to carry out further asset protection initiatives are impacted by this reality. Drawing from the crime prevention, law enforcement, and traffic policing mandates of various MPDs, the following section discussed these mandates from the perspective of the TMPD.

2.10.1 Crime prevention

Within the Tshwane municipality, the special operations division of TMPD identifies criminal hotspot regions (Faull, 2008:27). The metro police are expected to prioritise their efforts when it comes to crime prevention. They are also expected to give priority to the risks and anticipated consequences in crime prevention. Khumalo & Obioha (2016:38) stressed that managing high-crime areas seeks to provide a long-term answer for initiatives and knowledge about crime prevention. In addition, Riekert and De Vries (2015:13), highlights that the TMPD traffic policing in the prevention of a crime of the municipality's assets, buildings, and immovable properties consists of enforcing and managing drunken driving campaigns, regulating driver habits and traffic laws, and handling license suspensions and allocations.

Other roles of the TMPD in crime prevention include supervision of evacuations, participation in accident prevention awareness forms, and educating the municipality's people and staff on traffic-related matters (Riekert & De Vries, 2015:101). According to Newham *et al.* (2006) analysis, the use of visible policing, search and seizure roadblocks, and an increase in arrests are the three most effective ways for these MPDs to achieve their goals of preventing and reducing crime. Education campaigns and information sharing are often forms of initiatives that major MPDs consider to be part of crime prevention and asset protection tactics. All these studies focused only on crime prevention, and they have overlooked the challenges faced by the metro officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets more in particular in the CTMM. Hence this study filled that gap by examining the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM.

2.10.2 By-laws regulations and enforcement

The Constitution through Sec 156 (2) Schedules 4 and 5 enables the various legislatures to create and enforce municipal's by-laws. The by-laws are local legislations that are enacted and passed by the municipal council. These by-laws include regulations on aspects such as building and construction compliance, cemeteries, funeral parlours, cremations, firefighting services, the municipals, and other compliance requirements that may be applicable to public places (Khumalo & Obioha, 2016:39). Other areas that these by-laws may apply to include advertisement display in public places, fencing, municipal's recreation, sports, and parks facilities, and street lighting to mention the few (Riekert & De Vries, 2015:108). From TMPD's perspective, their by-laws include educating the Tshwane community on the by-law matters, trader licensing, providing counselling and assistance to the people who have breached the by-laws, and facilitating voluntary compliance with the relevant by-law's regulations and enforcement as one of the roles of the metro officers in Tshwane municipality.

2.10.3 Traffic policing

Traffic policing is another important function of the TMPD. Since the 1930s, one of the significant functions of municipal has been traffic policing. Members of the TMPD need to be aware of traffic-protecting tasks. The Tshwane legislature shows that the functions of the TMPD are not limited to law enforcement (Khumalo & Obioha,

2016:37; Riekert & de Vries, 2015:130). Traffic policing consists of multiple functions carried out by the municipal's police officers. The TMPD operations consist of those lawful activities, whether reactive or proactive, that are carried out by the police in the process of offering to the municipal their prescribed services. Such activities include maintaining public order functions, creating a visible deterrence, reassuring the public, and investigating a crime (Kriegler, 2021:13; Newham & Rappert, 2018:18; Singh, 2018:11).

The CTMM in 2006 developed the "*Safer City Policy*". Through this policy, the intention was to come up with a traffic police strategic plan to help manage and reduce traffic accidents, conduct frequent roadblocks at strategic and problematic areas, and streets patrol as part of visible policing (Riekert & De Vries, 2015:101). Additionally, the strategy was seen as a tactical strategy to create safer roads in the city, providing round-the-clock road security and regulation (Tshwane Road Policing Strategy (2013:01). Through this strategy, a variety of patrol units, including foot patrols, motorised patrols, and even horse patrols were made for the citizens. Other five metropolitan municipalities followed this approach to patrolling. Thus, a significant portion of their operational duties consists of visible policing, tourist protection, and traffic management amongst others.

Again, from the discussion above it is evidence that the studies focused more on the roles of the metro policies and totally ignored the challenges faced by the metro officers. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a study that will look at the dimension of the challenges of metro offices as this study did.

2.10.4 Asset protection

Asset protection is the main responsibility and focus of a patrol policeman's duties. The present study concentrates on the role of TMPD in asset protection because it is the foundation of all that a protection officer performs in asset protection. It is the main responsibility of a protection officer to ensure that the assets such as municipality building are being protected from being vandalised for example. Depending on the strategy used to safeguard the asset, its locality, as well as the type of item, asset protection can have a variety of meanings and purposes. Asset protection has been used for centuries, whether to safeguard the Roman city with night sentries patrolling the streets or to put valuables in a contemporary safe. The mediaeval castle served as asset protection in the most obvious and recognised manner. A valuable object,

such as the king or ruler, a priceless metal like gold, or a base from which to defend the empire, was the purpose of the castle's construction. In the beginning, castles were quite simple, but as the hazards increased, they started to use more layers of security, including a moat, drawbridge, or fighting positions (Ellis *et al.*, 2022). Buildings and facilities, parks, sporting fields, infrastructure for culture and tourism, paths, lands, water and wastewater, roads and sidewalks, and public transportation are all examples of municipal assets.

On the other hand, at work, the asset protection continuum's detection and response components need sufficient amounts of delay. Delays can be brought on by wide perimeters that take time for an attacker to travel, high fences that need effort to climb, thick doors that must be forced open, and interior defence like additional doors into rooms or a safe that takes even more work to unlock.

Attackers can either be repelled by mounting a defence from within the site, or a sufficient reaction can be organised and sent to the site if the attacker is sufficiently delayed. The layers of defence must, however, hold off the assailant for long enough that they can stop him before he leaves the premises with the item, either on his way to the object or on his way out with it.

The functions of MPDs in South African asset protection are governed by some laws. These are the White Paper on Protection and Wellbeing, the Public Finance Management Act No. 1 of 1999 (PFMA), the Municipal Systems Law No. 32 of 2000, the Municipal Finance Management Act No. 117 of 1998, the SAPS Act No. 83 of 1998, and the Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2000. According to the PFMA of 1999, it is the responsibility of the central and local governments to make sure that all of their assets and liabilities are handled effectively (PFMA, 1996:66). However, the White Paper on Safety and protection of 1998 also regulates the municipal role of asset protection as it states that the responsibility for asset protection rests with all levels of governments, including local governments (Pheiffer, 2013:43).

In South Africa, the Municipal Systems Act (MSA) No. 32 of 2000 serves as a legal basis for MPDs. According to the Act, one of the duties of municipalities is to establish fundamental guidelines, procedures, and frameworks that are required to allow municipalities to gradually advance toward the social and economic uplift of local communities. Furthermore, the Act states that South African municipalities must take

measures against malpractices such as the stripping of municipal assets (MSA, 2000). In addition to the Municipal Structures Act, which governs asset protection by South African MPDs. According to section 36(1), municipal managers must exercise the utmost care in ensuring reasonable protection of all municipal assets (Pheiffer, 2013).

2.11 Challenges experienced by the MPDs

Challenges experienced MPDs have been documented in the literature by various empirical studies. For example, Faull, (2008), Madihlaba (2020; 2018) and Naidoo (2020); are amongst some of the notable studies that shed light on these challenges. Given the ever-changing landscape of the policing sector, there is a need for continuous examination or investigation of these challenges. This need is underpinned by new tactics by criminals to avert detection or arrest. Likewise, Burgers (2007) documents national initiatives on the prevention and combating of crime owing to the dynamic nature of criminal offences. PMG (2020) highlights the common challenges the various MPDs are battling, such as:

- insufficient funding
- expensive law enforcement infrastructure
- shortage of vehicles, communication, weapons, and information systems
- inadequate specialised training on crowd management)
- staff incapacity (officer-to-population ratio) and
- increase in protest actions and land invasions.

In addition to these challenges, there is an increased demand for more effective community-gearred interventions through localised policing. At the centre of this intervention is the increased need for collaboration with communities in the fight against crime and endeavour to safe and secure environment. Maximizing civil society involvement in launching and sustaining crime prevention programmes is necessary. Regulations for Municipal Police Services - *Reg 10* read with Annexures 5 & 6, contains various sections on different legislation applicable to MPS. This necessity is also appreciated by the 2030 NDP strategy which calls for more community participation through civil society bodies and civic organisations towards safe communities. This can be realised through building community centres geared at crime prevention (NPCS, 2012:54).

There are also legislation-related challenges that make the function of the MPDs difficult and in some cases ineffective. For example, PMG (2020) note that there are limitations by the legislative framework put on the MPS as far as the investigative powers for traffic and bylaw-related crimes are concerned. In other words, metro police officers are restricted on such powers. However, other practitioners like those in health and safety are enabled and empowered by law to investigate incidents in their realm of work. Furthermore, there are more stringent and excessive requirements placed on training and accreditation and this affects promotion and growth opportunities. For example, the emphasis for promotion is placed on the need for a dedicated National Metro Police qualification, otherwise, promotion is stalled if not impossible to earn.

2.12 Summary

The current chapter delved into the presentation of the literature review, specifically concentrating on studies and research related to the research phenomenon at hand. It commenced by providing insight into the historical development of policing in South Africa, followed by a concise overview of the CTMM and its historical context. Subsequently, the chapter delved into the establishment of the Metropolitan Police Departments (MPDs) and elucidated their respective mandates. It placed significant emphasis on the legislative framework that governs the work of metro police officers, highlighting the pivotal role played by the Constitution as the supreme law of the nation, as well as the enabling the SAPS Act and its Amendment Act. Furthermore, the chapter explored the role of the MPS and incorporated an international perspective into the discussion. It also delved into the mandates of metro police officers and provided practical insights from the perspective of the TMPD. Additionally, the chapter addressed the challenges encountered by MPDs, as documented in the literature, while striving to fulfil their mandates. In the next chapter, the literature review will persist, with a primary focus on the theoretical frameworks that shape and underpin the context of the study.

CHAPTER 3 THE THEORETICAL REVIEW OF LITERATURE

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the critical review of literature. The focus on chapter two was on understanding the legislative framework that governs the establishment and the mandate of the MPS. By extension, the MPDs' roles, functions, and responsibilities were reviewed. Given the Metro Police Officers' mandate of crime prevention, traffic and road, asset protection, the challenges and practical implications of these frameworks were also reviewed. In the current chapter, attention is drawn to the theoretical review of literature. With this review, theoretical framework related to the research phenomena are reviewed on their relevance to addressing the research problem.

As now the background of the chapter is provided, the rest of the chapter is structured as follows: Section 3.2 presents an overview of the theoretical framework that underpins the study. In section 3.3, a discussion of the systems theory is presented. This is followed by the discussion of the second theoretical framework in section 3.4, that is Coordination theory. Section 3.5 focuses on the third theory, Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT) while section 3.6 discusses the fourth theoretical lens – SCP model. The last theory, CPTED model is discussed in section 3.7. In section 3.8, a conceptual model is proposed through proactive policing strategy. The last section, 3.9, provide for concluding remarks for the chapter.

3.2 Theoretical framework

Theoretical frameworks are fundamental and essential components of research across various disciplines. Grant and Osanloo (2014) describe theoretical framework as the procedure one follow when they create a blueprint for their house. Therefore, a successful research journey is defined by a successful theoretical framework. Grant and Osanloo, (2014) further stressed that theoretical framework is often misunderstood and confused with conceptual framework.

The conceptual framework serves as a crucial and thorough procedure for conceptualising the research. This usually include the philosophical, methodological and the design of the research. On the other hand, the theoretical framework deals specifically with theories, models or frameworks that are necessary to explain the phenomenon under study (Weaver-Hightower, 2014). Ravitch and Riggan (2012)

indicate that conceptual framework comprises of three elements, namely personal interests, research topic and theoretical framework.

Grant and Osanloo (2014) expound that theoretical framework form a pillar of knowledge creation for a study and furthermore guides the literature review process, serves as an anchor for the study, research problem research and basis for formulating research questions. In summing this topic, Lysaght (2011) suggests that theoretical framework, although not an arbitrary process, reflects ones' beliefs, their understanding of knowledge and research phenomenon. Similarly, Sekaran and Bougie (2019:72), indicate that theoretical framework represents a researcher's beliefs on how certain concepts, phenomena or variables are related to each other (model) or explanations of why a researcher believes that these concepts, phenomena, or variables are related to each other (theory). Therefore, theoretical framework is intertwined within the conceptual framework. Figure 3.1 provides a schematic presentation of the theoretical framework for the study.

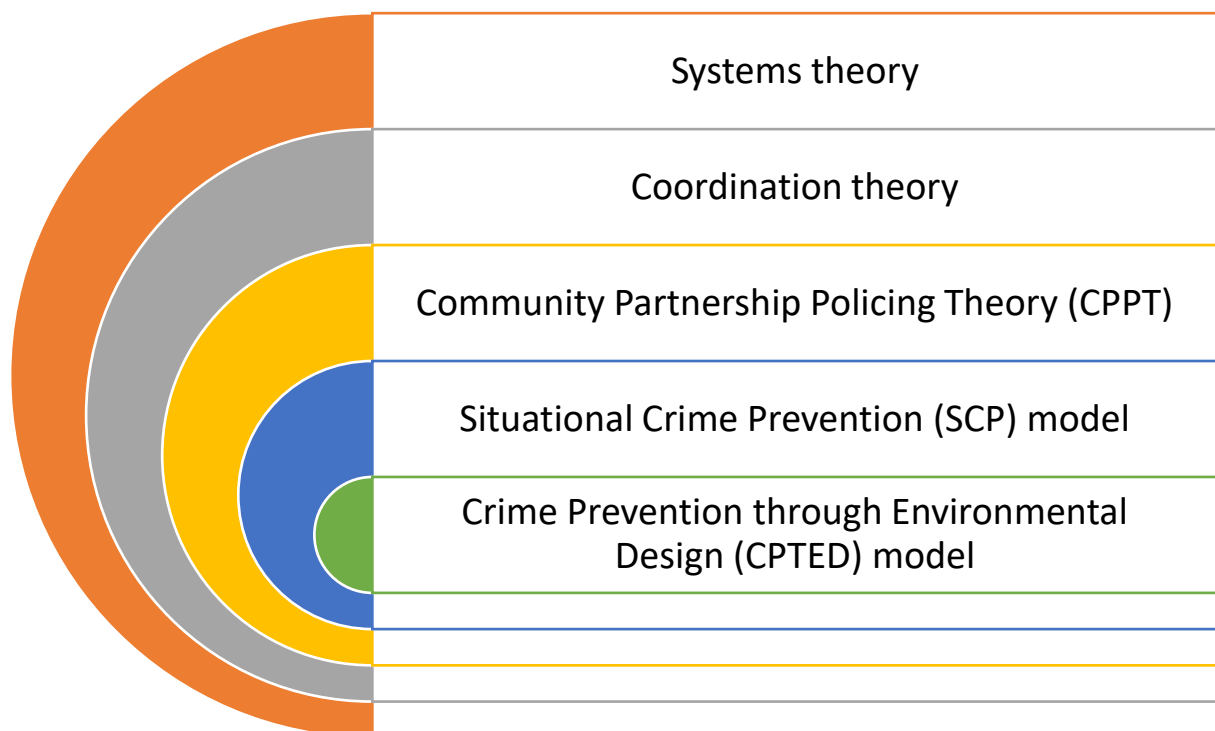


Figure 3.1: The theoretical framework

Source: Own compilation

3.3 Systems theory: a preamble

Systems theory has been widely used as an analytical tool within the business landscape and has a potential to be a useful approach to examine law enforcement and crime prevention mandates (Roelofse, 2007). This claim is informed by a need for systems thinking in the fight against crime and enforcing the law. In this section, the literature is reviewed on the application and suitability of the systems theory to understand the mandate of MPS in crime prevention, law enforcement, road policing and asset protection. The relevancy and suitability of systems theory in the current study is guided by Arnold and Wade's (2015) claim that in a complex systems and environments facing the world, systems theory is critical as analytical tool.

The world of crime prevention and law enforcement is a complex environment that need interaction or interdependence of various elements/variables towards a common goal. Roelofse (2007) cements this view when the author claims that "*crime prevention is a community responsibility*". The interaction implies the need for systems thinking, a concept which has been redefined and is still being redefine (Arnold & Wade, 2015). The concept of systems thinking has been credited to the 1987 work of Barry Richmond.

In 1991, Barry wrote that as interdependency increases, we need to learn differently, but most importantly in a new way. This qualifies the complex nature of the system, hence Meadows (2008) states that a basic principle of a system is that the system is more than a collection of its parts. Essentially, this view sums up a systems theory as follows: "the whole is better than sum of its parts". From the discipline of science literature in the mid-1600s, famous saying "nothing exists in a vacuum", simply means, as described by MacMillan Dictionary that no one can successful exists separately or independently from people, society, or environment. Therefore, there is a degree of interdependency in our existence, and this points to the essence of a system. The nature of the work performed by law enforcement officers is symbolic of a systems approach. The next section takes this view forward as it presents the basic tenets that underpin this theory.

3.3.1 The basic tenets of systems theory

As already stated, that system theory has its traits with business environment, the core of this theory is underpinned by the "*business principle*" of transformation process.

This process comprises of three variables, namely: input, process, and output. This approach emphasises the importance of looking at the system as a whole and how different parts of the system interact with each other. The assumption the researcher holds in the current study is that individuals are the basic structure of the society (input) and are processed through primary systems of socialisation. The outcome (output) of that process is dependent on the interaction of the two preceding variables (i.e., input and process). This view ties well with Roelofse's (2007) argument that primary structures, such as the family, schools, and the community are crucial primary structure required to transform the individuals. Therefore, there is need for interaction between the variables to have desired outcome.

3.3.2 Key Concepts and Principles of systems theory

Building on the tenets, the key concepts and principles of the systems theory are form on an idea of what a system is.) A system is regarded as a set of units interacting with one another and have a relationship among each other. Similarly, van Gigch (1991) describe a system as an assembly, alternative to a set of interrelated elements. Common and inherent in these two definitions are the core elements of the systems theory, which include sense of interconnection and interdependency of the elements: feedback loops and dynamics, emergence, and self-organisation as well as systems thinking and holistic view of problem solving.

3.3.2.1 Organisational aspects

The influence of the internal professional environment on the fulfilment of the police role is an important determinant of style. Police institutions and also the South African Police are considered typical bureaucratic institutions. The dysfunctional flaws of this organisational system give rise to frustrations and unsatisfied needs on the one hand, morale is adversely affected, and the police officer may be less inclined to the positive aspects of his role and may see the strict adhere to legal style. On the other hand, the internalisation of rules and regulations aimed at realizing the institutional objective with greater efficiency gives rise to the displacement of objectives and the priority overemphasis of certain functions.

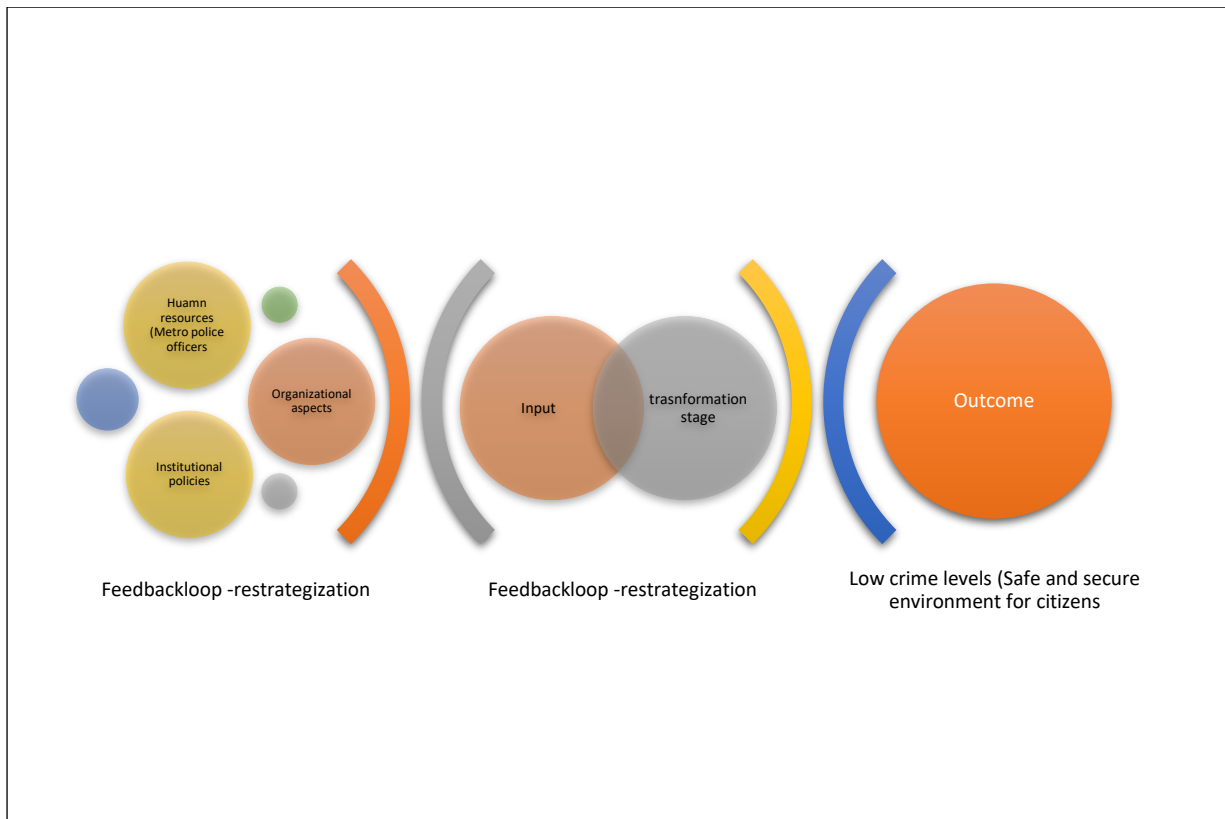


Figure 3.2: Illustration of the systems theory

Source: Own compilation

For example, personnel charged with the primary objective of crime prevention are often withdrawn to perform other secondary functions, with the accompanying decrease in the protection function (Van Heerden 1994:116-118).

3.3.2.2 Institutional policies

Institutional policy establishes guidelines for achieving the objective and largely determines the policing style. If reactive policing (law enforcement) is preferred, it can be assumed that the legal style will be preferred over the vigilante or service style. In this respect, knowledge of previous research findings is important. Botha (1988:72) emphasizes the important influence of government or political policy on police policy (institutional policy) and more specifically the influence of political policy on the way the police task is carried out at the lowest functional level. A telling example is Du Preez's (2010:66) reference to the Flag era in South Africa, which was characterised by efforts to improve police-community relations in the RSA. Notwithstanding the relevancy of the systems theory, the next section presents the critics of the systems theory.

3.3.3 Relevancy of the systems theory

Application of systems theory to crime prevention and law enforcement mandate in South Africa is explained through two approaches. The first approach is teleological which is defined by Infante, Rancer and Womack (1997) as a journey one seeks to achieve a goal. That journey alone is not sufficient; therefore, there is a need interaction of various elements to form a whole. With this approach, the interactions of various elements that makes up a system are necessary towards a desired goal. We therefore need to understand this interrelatedness in conjunction with the systems goals, and the endeavour to reach those goals. The second approach to applying system theory is homeostasis. According to this approach, systems are characterised by their continued effort to create a state of balance. Basically, systems are in continuous effort to attain state of equilibrium.

Within communications literature, researchers continuously study systems to comprehend the interaction of various elements, and ultimately how that interaction contribute to the outcome. The outcome is the intended goal. Likewise, with crime prevention and law enforcement literature, there is a need for interaction of various elements within these complex systems of police force. The mandate and responsibilities of MPS in fighting crime and enforcing the by-laws need various elements through resources- vehicles, equipment and human element, stakeholders, policies that should and are interrelated with one another through transformation stage towards desired outcome. The desired outcome in this instance is safe and secure environment. This would imply low crime levels and law-abiding citizens, which in line with this approach is the desired state of equilibrium needed by the society. At the core of this interaction and desire for the state of balance is the need to understand this complex system. Ideally, there is a need to understand the antecedents to crime and offences, the consequences of such, the social and environmental factors contributing to this situation and most importantly leveraging intentions strategies to change the status quo and bring it to the point of balance. It is on this basis the systems theory finds its relevance to the study, as the objectives of the study are aligned to exploring the mandate of MPDs, with reference to the TMPD. This exploration is undertaken whilst understanding that metro police officers' function in a complex system characterised by multiple legislative frameworks, institutional policies, organisational culture, and ever-changing political landscape amongst other factors.

3.3.4 Critics of the system theory

The potential challenges associated with the application of the systems theory to crime prevention in South Africa relates to the issue of limited resources and capacity for systemic interventions, which is a known problem for most of the municipalities including the SAPS. There is also an issue of resistance to change and entrenched power dynamics in most of organisations and this is in contradiction with systems theory's philosophy. The success of the systems theory is premised on the need for interdisciplinary collaboration and policy coherence, which proves not be the case for law enforcement fraternity.

3.4 Coordination theory

The theory of coordination as it is well known, is underpinned by the following tenets – collaboration and dependencies. Castner and Oliveira (2020) explain these elements as follows: collaboration is a non-mandatory cooperation from various stakeholders with the common objective. Cooperation is seen as more than collaboration as it relates to attitudes and behaviour that work together towards the desired objective. The popularity of the theory is credited to the work of Malone and Crowston who in 1994 opined and explored the theory from advanced IT background. In their explanation, the success of the coordination theory is dependent on the ability of the team to adapt to working together towards a common or unified goal (Malone and Crowston in 1994:87-119).

Almost three decades later, Gittel and Logan (2018) refined the theory of coordination and at the centre their review on the collaboration aspect of the theory. Their discussion of the refined theory is referred to as the relational collaboration theory (RCT). The premise of this refined work is on the “*shared*” meaning, purpose, knowledge, and the significance of mutual respect. Therefore, this shared responsibility is dependent on communication and building sustainable relationships towards desired objectives or goals (Margalina *et al.*, 2014; Gittel & Logan, 2018). Figure 3.3 illustrates the basic elements of coordination principle.

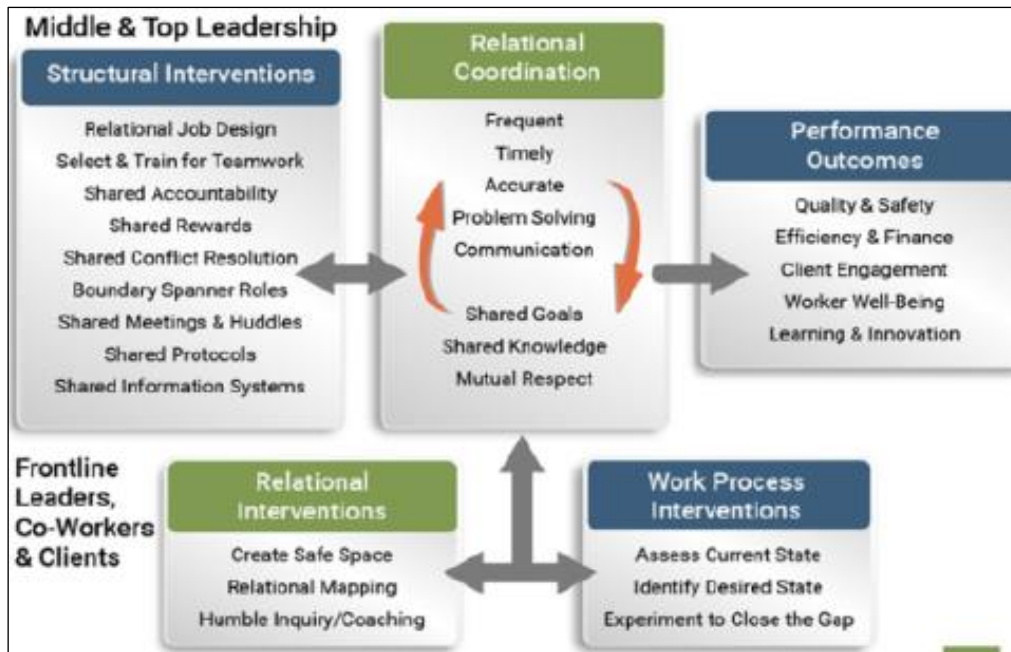


Figure 3.3: An illustration of the coordination theory model

Source: (Gittel, 2021:1)

The above model developed to capture the essence of the relational coordination theory, consists of five components: relational coordination, structural, relational and work-process interventions and finally performance outcomes (Gittel, 2021:1). The model takes relational coordination as a function of “frequent, timely, accurate, problem-solving communication” communication attributes and relationships attributes (common goals, knowledge, and mutual respect) (Gittel, 2021:1). Three forms or types of interventions are required to bring about an optimal state of relational coordination.

Structural interventions are aimed at resolving any structural barriers that can impede units or entities from effective relational collaboration (Mynhardt, 2013). Relational interventions address interpersonal or intergroup barriers to relational coordination while work process interventions look at work processes and procedures that may adversely affect relational coordination (Gittel & Logan 2018:1). The last two types of interventions are mainly addressed at line employees, who in the context of this study include traffic law enforcement officers. The result of a well-coordinated system is efficiency and effectiveness factors such as “quality and safety, efficiency and finance, client engagement, worker well-being and learning and innovation” (Gittel, 2021:1).

3.4.1.1 Relevancy of coordination theory

The relevancy of the coordination theory is drawn from Taumong et al. (2022) work that explored extent road crashes in the CTMM, adopting the approach of the need for collaboration from police units. In the current study, the relevancy of coordination theory study lies in its elements and its ability to approach the tactics in fighting and preventing crime and law enforcement through coordination of various stakeholders and interdependencies towards a common goal. The elements are the need for structural, relational, and work process interventions alongside the need for relational coordination in timeous and accurate manner for the desired outcome.

As already stated, that this theory builds on systems thinking, the prerequisites for success through this theory is collaboration, interdependence, common goal for the desired outcome (Robinson, 2014). This therefore signifies the degree to which collaboration and coordination in the mandate of metro police officers is vital for crafting effective crime prevention and control strategies. It also goes back to critical mass theory which states that two is better than. Another way of describing it is that: "*united we stand, divided we fall*". Still within the realm of relevancy and connection of the coordination theory to the systems thinking, this approach acknowledges and embrace the notion that that criminal elements occur in a complex system as it is a complex social problem. This therefore requires a coordinated effort of everyone involved, from officers themselves, community, government, private agencies etc., basically various role players from all facets of the society.

3.4.1.2 Critics of the coordination theory

Overall, the coordination theory emphasises the significance of the need for collaborative efforts between the stakeholders and the related activities. Furthermore, there is a need for coordination among different agencies and stakeholders to develop effective crime prevention and control strategies. This approach recognizes that crime is a complex social problem that requires a coordinated response from different sectors of society. SCP, on the other hand, focuses on modifying the physical and social environment to reduce the opportunities for crime to occur. Both approaches emphasize the importance of addressing the root causes of crime by modifying the environment and improving social conditions (Robinson, 2014). Given stringent and

bureaucratic legislative environment of South African law enforcement system, these expectations may prove to be difficult to realize.

3.4.2 Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT)

In accordance with Part 214 of the Interim Constitution of the RSA, Act No. 200 of 1993, the public can participate in crime reporting, alertness, and elimination through the SAPS Act No. 68 of 1995, the IDP, the NCPS, and other governmental initiatives. This prompted the development of official societal policing organisations that collaborate with law enforcement, security firms, business corporations, and the public to address the illegal seizure of private property, assets, and causes of destruction (Kole, 2015:76).

These measures strengthened the police's objective to find passionate and eager citizens to actively participate in the legal society's crime prevention organisation (Minnaar, 2005:94). To help the police root out 62 criminal elements, particularly in the urban cores of major cities like Tshwane, Ekurhuleni, and Joburg, community policing systems were developed nationwide. Additionally, the population in the historically vulnerable black townships, rural regions, and squatter camps now participates in the society's policing partnership systems that patrolled at night and transport offenders apprehended there to the police building (Mabunda, 2014:6).

Additionally, Burger (2011:103) and Minnaar (2005:94) both are of the view that the governing party had drafted laws that gave initiative and privilege to the structuring of community partnership police to fully deal with concerns regarding the dangerous aspects and apply themselves within the bounds of the regulations. A community-private corporation project called Institute Sao Paulo Against Violence was established in the Brazilian city of Sao Paulo in 1997. This policing collaboration is made up of academics, members of the public, business and corporate groups, private security, and multimedia platforms (Kole, 2015:84). Mokoena (2007:97), on the other hand, asserts that the Botswana crime squad has lately established a community policing model, under which they cope with criminal groups by integrating community police unit with other stakeholders to confront crime. Additionally, this community-based policing philosophy greatly facilitated Canadians' interactions with other people in society on issues related to crime prevention (Hyde, 2002).

3.4.3 Barriers of Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT)

Kole (2015:83) claims that participants in crime prevention, including community, metro police, and private security, believe that the SAPS Act and the Constitution provide national police with an unjustified increase in their policing controlling, managing, and commanding roles. Kole (2015:104) argues further that the established community policing groups in South Africa are not achieving the enhanced crime-fighting outcomes first anticipated because of a lack of enthusiasm on the side of this society's leadership. This concept becomes clear as soon as one looks at current crime statistics on the police's success in reducing crime. These crime statistics show the exclusive role the SAPS played in reducing the number of criminal elements in the country, but they do not highlight any successful collaboration with other parties (Kole, 2015). Corruption-related issues are the other most ridiculed problem consuming the mission of the whole police department, from the top executive to the ground force officer. Approximately one-fourth of all policing levels and ranks, either accept bribes or maintain corrupt activities including selling dockets, serving as hit men on taxis, taking involvement in political killings, or freeing prisoners (Newham & Faull, 2011:20).

In addition to the previous Police Commissioner's conviction and sentencing, the previous Acting Chief of police was also held by the SAPS in 2019 for fraud and corruption. Burger (2006:142) argues that a community policing partnership is more effective in a contemporary, well-organised context where law enforcement officers are dedicated to their profession than in one where they are viewed with disdain owing to the SAPS Act's insufficient policing power. Burger (2006) asserts that while these stakeholder policing programmes were established, they were unsuccessful in the USA and several parts of Europe, including England.

In the USA, there are ongoing conflicts about police brutally attacking, torturing, and ultimately killing black African Americans in a succession of incidents, which has heightened police animosity toward American residents. While the black community is not even considered when selecting new police recruits, police in both areas receive admiration and performance inspiration. According to Bayley (2011:313), police power ridiculing while dealing with topics like community service protests, little use of force, apartheid-style policing operations, and common arrests has irrevocably ruined, unbearable, and irretrievably tarnished police behaviour and relationships with the community. These sentiments show that the community is no more inclined to rely on

the police to provide crucial information that could result in the capture of community-based hard-core crime syndicates.

In addition, Bayley (2011) argues that, in contrast to what the police are taught as gospel in police academies, several academic institutions in the USA are promoting alternative concepts, models, techniques, and plans for dealing with criminal activity. The activities, goals, and missions of the good policing alliance are obviously out of reach due to the police's lack of commitment and loyalty. To ascertain the level of success and challenges connected with the community-private partnership police model in South Africa, the senior leaders of government, particularly in the supervision policing ministry, need to finish a thorough analysis. This would help in providing the deserving community with progressive feedback and inspirational awards regarding their policing involvement role in crime reduction (Sullivan, 2002:57).

3.4.4 Critique of Community Partnership Policing Theory (CPPT)

There are significant difficulties with partnership policing due to SAPS's lack of administration and control, considering the earlier concept of community participation in policing. The Department of Police does not seem to be paying much attention to making sure that the community's crime-fighting infrastructure is efficient, effective, and successful. The SAPS mind-set is often that while they are working for the SAPS, they believe that they're accountable to the community. On the other side, the fact that SAPS releases suspects for severe offences the day after they are detained demoralises metro police units and security firms in metropolitan areas.

The South African government has accomplished an outstanding job of providing the right environment and opening up doors for a variety of groups, NGOs, and entrepreneurs to establish community-based criminal policing operations. There are several simple steps and processes for reporting a criminal element in the community. There have been many guiding principles that have made it easier for residents to handle drug trafficking, child abuse, and even house invasions. The trust, respect, and commitment to providing public assistance without undue influence are the most crucial components of community policing cooperation.

To counter criminal behaviours among the populace, Metro Police, SAPS, the security sector, and community members must coordinate their efforts. It should be evident that SAPS is the only sector that takes the initiative in guaranteeing that community

partnership policing is well-organised in a given area. All parties rely more on being reported to the police, but because of staffing and vehicle shortages, officers are unable to transport detained criminals from the community to the police stations. Since the police are overworked in terms of crime prevention, they struggle to complete simple tasks like filing sworn statements and little offences, which can be handled by metro police. There will be abuses of power and ineffectiveness in the new policing strategy when SAPS has total control.

3.5 Situational crime prevention model

The SCP model proposed by Ronald Clarke in 1995 is defined as the crime prevention model that relies on reducing opportunities for crime rather than improving institutions (Madzivhandila, 2019:44). According to Clark (2018:2), this crime prevention model deters offenders from committing crimes because it focuses primarily on eliminating the chances of committing crimes. The SCP method does this in five ways: making it harder to commit a crime, (ii) raising the likelihood that offenders will be apprehended, (iii) decreasing the benefits of crime, (iv) lessening the desire to conduct a crime, and (v) eliminating the justifications for committing a crime.

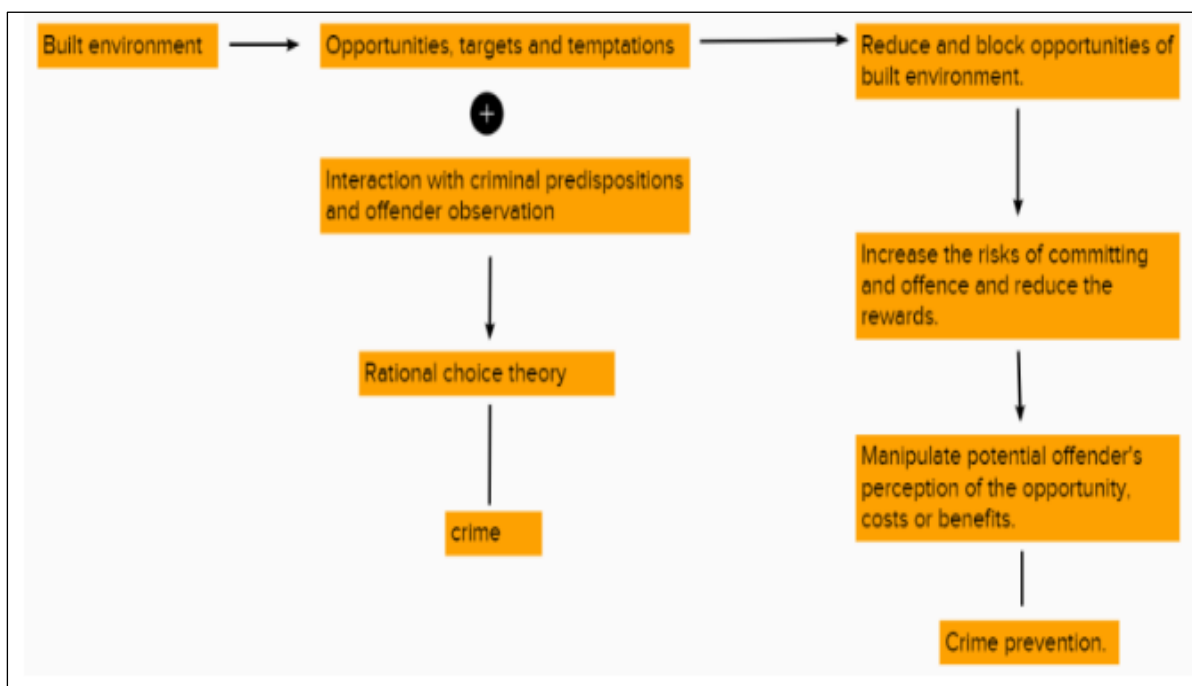


Figure 3.4: Summary of situational crime model

Source: Own compilation

Eck and Clarke (2019:357) mention that the SCP model includes opportunity reduction measures that target extremely articular types of crime and include the systematic and

long-term management, design, or modification of the surrounding environs. In addition to making the criminal activity more challenging and with less reward, it is important to restrict and control spatial chances by physical methods. This will affect the offender's perception of the costs and advantages of his conduct (Clarke 2010:4-14). It is important to approach crime prevention from a situational viewpoint since some aspects of the built environment might affect criminal activity, community order, and quality of life (Schweitzer et al., 1999:60; Wagers, Sousa & Kelling, 2008:247).

The SCP model builds on a solid foundation of criminological theories, namely (i) routine activity theory, (ii) crime pattern theory, and the (iii) rational choice perspective (Clarke, 2018:4). The routine activity theory is premised on the fact that for crime to be committed, motivated offenders must first find suitable targets (in this case municipal assets and properties) in the absence of capable guardians (in this case municipal police) (Van-Biljon, 2014:63). Also, the crime pattern theory integrates crime within geographic contexts demonstrating how surrounding environments promote criminality (Clarke, 2018:5). According to the rational choice theory, offenders are rational decision makers who base their decisions on comparing the costs and benefits associated with possible criminal deeds (Van-Biljon, 2014:62).

The municipality or government bureaucracy has created an environment that is better constructed and maintained to make it challenging for thieves to commit crimes in a particular residential area (Felson & Boba, 2010:200). On the other hand, SCP is characterised by Clarke (1997:27) as a site in residential neighbourhoods with a reduced situational potential that attracts would-be criminals to engage in criminal behaviour.

The SCP model entails putting in place several physical protection control options, such as perimeter palisades built by basic information standards, street lighting, closed-circuit television cameras, and an intrusion alarm system to deter, detect, and delay the motion of offenders outside of the crime zone (Kole, 2015:10). Kole (2015) goes on to suggest that as part of a situational crime reduction system, automated motion detectors should be installed, along with boom gates at main entrances for admission control and electronic biometric identification systems that hire contracted private security guards will keep an eye on and patrol. The local sector police supervisor and other local police organisations, like MPD, may work together to implement the high-tech situational preventing crime technique. The control room of

the neighbourhood patrolling private security firm operating within the boundaries of a particular society may also be connected to this system (Kole, 2015:107).

Masuku (2003:21), on the other side, agrees with Clarke (1997:27) that installing closed-circuit television (CCTV) camera systems within a specific apartment performs a protective security function that is recommended by the majority of households due to their ability to capture, monitor, react, and prevent criminal activity. Situational crime battling is a strategy that works well when there is security protection at one's place of business but none at the neighbouring company, according to Rogers (2006:131). The nearby firm will essentially benefit from the security personnel's availability. In addition, Rogers (2006) asserts that strategically placed security technology, such as CCTV tools, is crucial to the SCPT network of the overall covered area.

3.5.1 Barriers to the situational crime prevention model

According to Landman and Liebermann (2005:22), the use of situational tactics such as CCTV, access control, and turnstile barriers is regarded as demanding identity documents, and authorities go against the freedom of movement provided by the constitution and violate individual rights. Every time a camera system is put in place to take pictures and watch someone in a private environment, it infringes on their fundamental rights. Kole (2015:109) concurs with Landman and Liebermann (2005:22) that placing monitors in a location known to be a haven for illegal activity, particularly in a private sitting area, may infringe people's basic rights. It is evident from the foregoing materials that installing network access, security system, and video system is not meant to violate one's privacy but rather to cope with the amount of crime spiraling out of control. The community may use these security initiatives as a security control method so long as they comply with the legislation, which is backed by the SAPS Act, NCPS, and state IDP. The local police and metro police authorities would be made aware of the procedures for installing security cameras and controlling the entrance. They will also help to ensure compliance with the established council by-law requirements of the municipal organisation. Despite this, the SCP model suffers from criticisms. As stated by Madzivhandila et al., (2019:45), the main criticism of the theory is that it fails to address the root reasons for crime and the individual's motivation to commit the crime is not addressed. Nevertheless, according to Pheiffer (2013:165), SCP has implications in municipal policing as municipalities, via planning and legislation, exert enormous control over creating safe settings. On properties likely to

be either stolen or vandalised or abused. Madihlaba (2019:46) add that local governments are in the best positions to engage in crime by setting up systems that stop crimes at certain locations in particular circumstances.

3.5.2 Critique of situational crime prevention model

The employment of cameras and alarm systems, which were predominantly used on home interiors that had been the subject of criminal statistics data, has produced improved outcomes in the form of a low crime rate. The researcher claims that from early 2005 to 2016 when CCTV camera installations were made in the CTMM's central business district (CBD) and shopping centres, good results in the fight against crime were achieved. However, since the cameras system action plan contract expired in 2017, the city has become a haven for criminals. It is obvious that when access control, lighting, fencing, video systems, and intruder alarms have been installed, the crime rate has significantly decreased compared to regions with shrubs, vacant buildings, and dark open areas.

Boom gates are being used in various areas to restrict unfettered access to the premises and transit without verification and certification by security personnel. Additionally, access monitoring is done to track every person trying to enter a certain home, piece of property, place of business, or store for security control reasons. The number of instances of home breaking at the police stations has decreased significantly over the recent years in the CTMM, where security precautions were established in the form of cameras installed in the CBD and security officers routinely monitoring the area. With the help of this criminal endeavour, society may finish up their night-time and after-68-hour security responsibilities and manage entry at the main doors to their residences. The standard of their building's perimeter railing in front of the main gate has also been recommended by SAPS. Physical security requirements talk about no blocking or impeding in terms of the style of structure or fencing and the necessary height of 2.6 metres up (Masuku, 2003:21). This cautious situational criterion has led to extraordinary results in low-level crimes like home invasions and thefts from within families. The relationships between the three crucial crime prevention strategies in this investigation are worth considering. This entails community partnership policing via night-time patrols, SCP model through the management or use of a security to execute outflow and entrance, and, finally, CPTED

through the development of an effective environmental plan on a specific crime hotspot suburb or vacant building area (Kole, 2015:117).

By directing the local utility authority to build lighting, create perimeter fences, and remove vegetation every predetermined amount of time, particularly in summer, it can be concluded that an MPD will have a pivotal function in this crime-prevention operation (Kole, 2015:109). Metro police have auditory exhibits on criminal and violation data to convey to the community designers, engineers, and artists who are collaborating on the structure plan while they patrol metropolitan locations. Inside the local council regional level, metro police officers can also patrol and control the entrance to any municipal buildings, facilities, and open areas that are seen to be crime hiding places.

3.6 Crime prevention through the environmental design model

The CPTED is a crime prevention model proposed by criminologist Ray Jeffrey in 1971 that focuses on the tactical design and effective use of built environments which, when applied, reduce crime and the fear of committing crime (Pheiffer, 2013:124). The model attempts to reduce or eliminate opportunities by using environmental elements to control access, providing opportunities to observe, and be observed, define ownership and encouraging maintenance of territories (Madzivhandila, 2019:38).

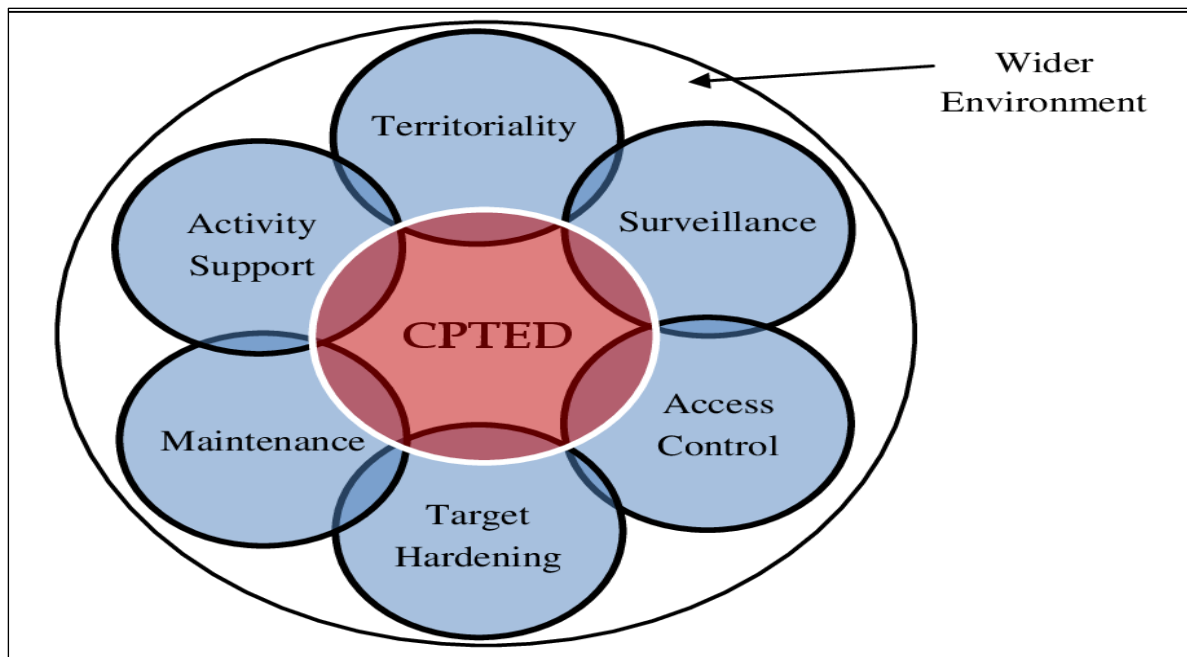


Figure 3.5: The CPTED model

Source: (Pheiffer, 2013).

In other words, the CPTED attempts to reduce crime by minimising opportunities for crime and promoting positive social interaction among users (Armitage & Ekblom, 2018:32).

The three elements of the CPTED are surveillance, territoriality, and access control (Pheiffer, 2013:125). Territoriality in the context of CPTED, refers to the desire to protect what the owners consider their territory and to have some respect for the territory of others (Armitage & Ekblom, 2018:32). Surveillance, on the other hand, entails a close watch where potential criminal activities are likely to transpire (Pheiffer, 2013:124).

Hence, the CPTED works by eliminating opportunities for crime on and around the owner's property. The CPTED further claims that places highly accessible to the public are highly perceptive of crime (Madzivhandila, 2019:39). For example, in this case, municipal immovable assets and properties such as land, commercial and residential infrastructure. In addition, CPTED includes five principles: (i) physical security, (ii) movement control, (iii) surveillance (iv) management and maintenance and (v) defensive space (Armitage & Ekblom, 2018:33).

- ❖ Physical security refers to the measures used to ensure that an asset or property is resistant to attack
- ❖ Surveillance design ensures that residents can observe the area around them (Madzivhandila, 2019:40).
- ❖ Movement control refers to the restriction of access, the limitation of mobility, evacuation, and entrance.
- ❖ Management and maintenance refer to the processes to ensure security.
- ❖ Defensible space requires that ownership of must be clearly defined, for example, public, semi-public, semi-private or private (Pheiffer, 2013:125).

According to Fennelly (2004:66), CPTED is the right design of an ecological system that may be successfully used as a crime-free ecological place for our communities' residents to live in harmony and peace. Lack of food, bad housing conditions, food shortages, lack of upkeep of crucial infrastructures, and unemployment must all be addressed regularly because if they are not, the crime rate will rise (Burger, 2006:142). The idea of CPTED, as per Lab (2014:54), engages critically with a specific environment that is abundant, such as outdated stadiums, should be modified to cope

with criminal activities brought on by an absence of the government's future development strategies. Ordinary access control measures, such as the installation of a shopping centre with an alarm and video system, would deter criminal elements from gaining unauthorised entrance to the unoccupied or constrained space. The abandoned open spaces should be transformed into playgrounds and resorts for kids (Kole, 2015:111).

The SCP model and the earlier discussed CPTED ideas, such as camera deployment and installation, are related. This indicates that both beliefs may work together to create the most effective crime-fighting strategy that can help to keep crime under control. To create a good crime-free zone, CPTED is more detailed when addressing environmental conditions. The SCP model is primarily concerned with actually visiting sites that may be environmentally friendly and crime-free so that everyone can walk freely.

3.6.1 Barriers to CPTED theory

Pheiffer (2013:125) add that the CPTED model applies to municipal policing as municipalities are responsible for designing, managing, and ensuring the proper use of public properties. However, the crime prevention model is criticised for not addressing the causes of crime. According to Kole (2015:112), authorities are fighting a losing battle when it comes to maintaining and fixing commercial centres, school buildings, municipal areas, and sports facilities. In addition, this encourages the criminal thugs who are terrorising society to continue their occupation of this white elephant institution. Any public building or open area will be less likely to be used by criminals if it is well-maintained. Kole (2015) adds that a lack of community involvement in the construction of those schools and shopping centres also ensures that residents lack the will to defend them since they lack a strong sense of belonging to a particular institution. The well-being of society suffers from a lack of youth training initiatives and programmes.

3.6.2 Critique of CPTED theory

Fennelly's (2004:66) study suggests the CPTED theory is strategically positioned at the local government level, focusing on crime-eradication efforts, and reducing poverty and homelessness. Mabunda (2014:7) suggests that providing prompt services to distressed, poor, and handicapped individuals can reduce their suffering. Addressing

resource availability and removing conventional grass and tangled fields can help reduce crime. Implementing security measures like streetlights, neighborhood watches, camera equipment, and perimeter fences can also help. Furthermore, Palmiotto (2011:215) emphasises the importance of considering local structures in planning development projects, such as CPTED programmes, to protect playgrounds, markets, and institutions. He also highlights the need for cleaning vacant lots, replacing outdated streetlights, installing integrated camera alarm systems, and using cutting grass and forest pruning for crime reduction.

3.7 Proactive policing strategy: A conceptual model

A proactive policing strategy, in accordance with the historical-philosophical principle that crime prevention is the fundamental and primary task of any police institution, and which is based on the involvement of society, is, according to Du Preez (1988:55), absolutely necessary. An example is the involvement of the police and the community in the grassroots community police forums. In this way, the police become involved in the community and the community is involved in solving its own problems. Such a proactive strategy finds its *raison d'être* in several considerations. Alderson (1979:38) emphasizes its important nature with respect to the ethical sense in particular, namely "... since by preventing crime it saves people from their follies and the moral oblique which confrontation with the criminal justice system brings" and also to regarding its use value in the sense that " it reduces the cost as well as the suffering of crime".

Very significant, however, is Alderson's (1979:38) position that the traditional views on crime prevention are insufficient and obsolete for a modern, contemporary society. He puts it appropriately as follows: "Therefore, a newer philosophy of policing is required in which policing is not only seen as a matter of controlling the bad but also includes activating the good". A telling example is the traditional premise that the police were created per se to prevent crime at the precipitating level, in other words the elimination or reduction of opportunities to commit crime.

Du Preez (1988:55-56) criticizes the outdated views and states that crime prevention cannot only be moment-oriented to protect the status quo, but that crime prevention is essentially future-oriented. Therefore, a proactive policing strategy must include methods and techniques that are focused on both short-and long-term prevention. The basic objective of social control is the protection of order and the promotion of

voluntary legal compliance. The application of law involves the protection of society against the violation of the rules of conduct. Proactive policing can then be seen as steps through which society exercises its control over the behaviour of the individual strength. According to Van Heerden (1994:17), this can involve the following:

- "the promotion of respect for the control structure, whereby voluntary legal compliance is promoted and indeed through the manner in which the police role is fulfilled;
- short-term prevention techniques such as street patrols and visible protection of life and property;
- long-term prevention techniques such as educating the youth and society in relation to crime and policing issues;
- the delivery of services which, although not aimed at behaviour that poses a danger to order, contribute to the strengthening of mutual respect for and trust in the authority structure;
- the elimination or minimisation of opportunities to commit crime; and
- any other measure by which the repetition of a crime is prevented, the development of criminal motivations is prevented, and the spread of criminality to other susceptible persons can be minimised".

Van Heerden (1994:4) further says that the protection of order and the promotion of voluntary obedience to the law (persuasive lord) should be the ultimate goal of the police, while the restoration of order (enforcement control) should be available as an alternative. For Alderson (1979:38) there are three identifiable levels of policing in modern society. At each of the levels, a greater or lesser degree of prevention is present. In this regard, Alderson (1979:39 onwards) identifies a three-dimensional policing strategy consisting of primary policing, secondary policing, and tertiary policing to ensure optimal crime prevention. According to Alderson (1979:38), this necessitates a new credible approach to crime prevention. This approach is society-oriented and must therefore include the drastic changes that take place in the social order. During March 1995 the police launched the Community Safety Plan. This plan was ". an overall strategy to combat crime and violence in priority areas and to address crime tendencies of national importance" (Annual Plan of the SAPS 1996:7). This plan contained short- and long-term strategies and was operationalised by the following:

- A strategy that was initially aimed at stabilizing priority areas in the provinces; of Gauteng, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal and later areas in other provinces;
- Strategies that were aimed at national crime priorities and crime trends; and
- Strategies aimed at establishing an operational partnership between key players.

When analysing police activities, it is clear that the activities cover a wide spectrum that requires increasing skills and knowledge from police officers. The requirements that these activities require have meant that the police officer can no longer be just a law officer, but rather must be seen as a peace officer who assists the community. It must also be deduced from this that the police alone cannot address crime problem. Help, assistance, and initiatives from the community are indispensable. It is also gratifying that there has been thought in the direction of eliminating means (firearms) with which some crimes are committed, by proposing stricter legislation in their control (Annual Plan of the SAPS, 1996:16). However, the NCPS does not address the elimination of the means used to commit crime. It is a void. If South Africa's crime problem is really to be addressed, attention must also be paid to the contributing factors. Therefore, MPS, with their law enforcement and crime prevention mandate need a model that is preventive in nature, community-oriented and embracing of technology tools to deal with crime. It is from this basis that a conceptual model is proposed, which is underpinned by a proactive policy strategy as an approach to effective crime prevention and combating.

3.8 Summary

This chapter presented an overview on theories underpinning the role and responsibilities of the metro police officers as part of the theoretical framework. Systems theory, Coordination theory, CPTED model, SCP model and CPPT are theories that were reviewed. The discussion was based on the basic tenets, barriers, critique, and relevancy of each theoretical framework to the current study. From the review, the next chapter focuses on the adopted research philosophy, methodology and approaches that guided attempt to address the study's research objectives.

4.1 Introduction

Chapter three provided in-depth discussion of the theoretical perspective that guides this study, using the theoretical framework as a critical lens through which to view and analyse the study. Within this chapter, we undertook an extensive exploration of five distinct theories, rigorously assessing their applicability and relevance in the context of the present study. Therefore, the focus of chapter three is on presenting the research philosophy, methodology and approaches the researcher followed in an attempt to address the study's research objectives. This chapter therefore provides an account on the methods, techniques, and procedures the researcher adopted in the selection of participants to accomplish this study's ROs as outlined in Chapter 1. Research is basically the systematic process through which the research plans, collects and analyse data in an attempt to comprehend the research phenomena (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001:4).

Structured into ten inter-related sections, the rest of the chapter is organised as follows: The next section focuses on the discussion of the different types of research designs and the chosen design. This will be followed by presentation of epistemological and philosophical lens underpinning the study in section 4.3. This is done through Saunders *et al.* (2009) research onion technique to account for the methodological flow and the design of the chapter. In section 4.4, research approaches and justification of the chosen one for the study are discussed. Section 4.5 focuses on the case study as a chosen strategy and how this links with philosophical lens of the study. The heart of the chapter is sections 4.6 and 4.7 which respectively present a discussion on methodological choices made in the study as well as the time horizon. These choices include the discussion of target population, sample, and applied technique to sample the research participants. Then follows the discussion of data collection instruments, procedures, and data analysis approaches in section 4.8. Six validity and reliability issues were covered in section 4.9, and these were followed by discussion of ethical issues pertaining to the study in section 4.10. The second last section presented on the procedure on reporting of the results, while the last section provides for concluding remarks for the chapter.

4.2 Research design

Mouton (2001:54) states that after the researcher completes devising and articulating the problem statement and objectives of the research, what follows next is to conceptualise the research design. According to Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009:58), through the research design, a general strategy applied by the researcher to solve a problem in research is detailed. This design is more of an architectural plan of the study and details a step-by-step outline and organisation of the research. It is not surprising that often the research design is confused with the research methodology in fact, the two concepts differ (Mouton, 2001:55).

Research design is a plan or blueprint of how the research was conducted. It sets the motion for methodological procedures (Saldana, 2011). Research design is like the house plan used by an architecture to illustrate the structure of the house. Figure 4.1 depicts a graphical presentation of how the chapter is structured through the methodological research design. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:58) define a research design as a technique, procedure, or a way of structuring the research project to explain how data is collected, analysed, interpreted, and reported. Basically, this design is a pathway through which a research study is conceptualised and structured. This therefore implies that a research design outlines the entire research process, from problem statement conceptualisation to reporting of research results (Creswell, 2014). There are various types of research designs that researchers can choose from. For example, there is descriptive, explanatory, experimental and exploratory research design. The next four subsections differentiate between these research designs and expounds on the choice of the research design that I followed as a researcher.

4.2.1 Descriptive research design

The basics of descriptive research is that it proves a snapshot of a phenomenon under study. It is a type of research that paints a picture about the characteristics of the group or phenomenon under investigative process (Atmowardoyo, 2018). Descriptive research provides an accurate image of the characteristics of a specific individual, scenario, or group and provides researchers with a method to uncover new meaning or characterize an existing occurrence (Wollman, 2018).

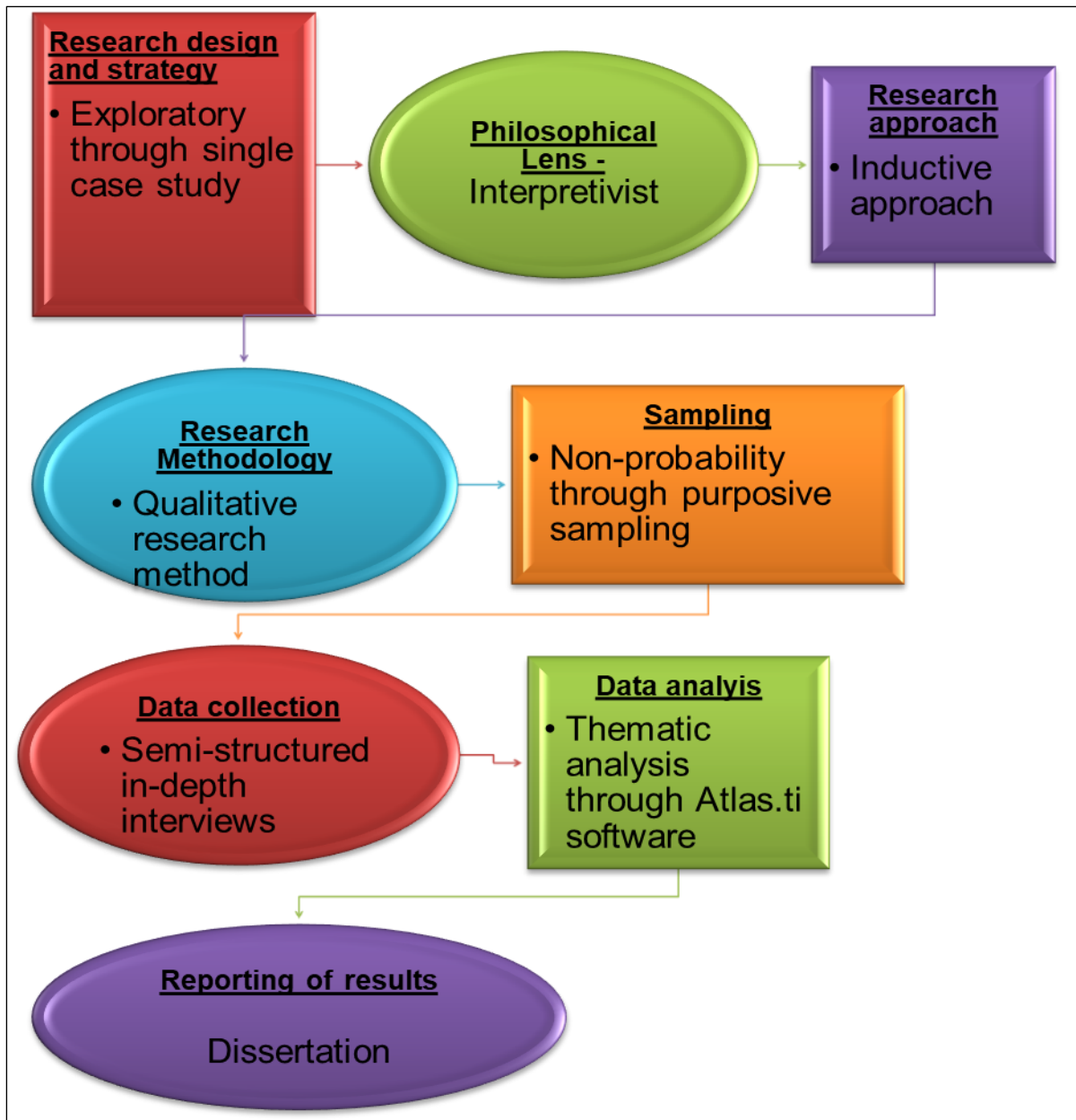


Figure 4.1: The methodological research design of the study

Source: Own compilation

4.2.2 Explanatory research design

Explanatory research hypotheses explain the type and direction of the relationships being researched between or among variables (Wollman, 2018). When there is insufficient information, explanatory research is used to explain. It aids in the understanding of a specific topic, explains why a particular theory exists, and forecasts the future and its events (Seco, 2020). It explains the cause-and-effect relationship and delves into why patterns and trends exist that have not been investigated. The study is referred to as a casual study (Atmowardoyo, 2018).

This descriptive model focused on the "what" of the research subject instead of the "why." The descriptive research method focuses on describing the nature of a specific population rather than on "why" a specific thing happen (Rodrigues et al., 2021). In other words, it "explains" the research topic without clarifying "why" it happens (Ott et al., 2018).

4.2.3 Experimental research design

In an experimental research design, as opposed to correlational and descriptive research designs, the relationship between variables is evaluated following the researcher's manipulation or control in order to look at cause and effect linkages. These kinds of study designs have great internal validity since they can connect causes and effects (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

4.2.4 Exploratory research design

The current study employed exploratory research due to its complexity and unexplored nature. Exploratory research design allows for preliminary data collection, hypothesis generation, and in-depth understanding of the local context, laying the groundwork for more structured research (Etican & Bala, 2018).

4.3 Epistemological/philosophical position of the study

By adopting the Research Onion framework in figure 4.2 below developed by Saunders *et al.* 2015 this study's epistemological and philosophical position interpretivism is clearly stated, aligning with the objective of comprehending participants' unique views on the police department's contribution to reducing criminal activity. The study's design, methodologies, and data collection processes are all coherent and in line with the selected philosophical perspective owing to this systematic strategy, which further enhances the validity and applicability of the results of the study.

Table 4.1 provides the differentiation between research philosophies that researchers can choose from. Positivism is usually associated with verification and prediction assumptions as rationale of the study or research project. Positivists identifies with objectivity in their discovery and their epistemological basis is premised on the belief that scientific knowledge is the truth.

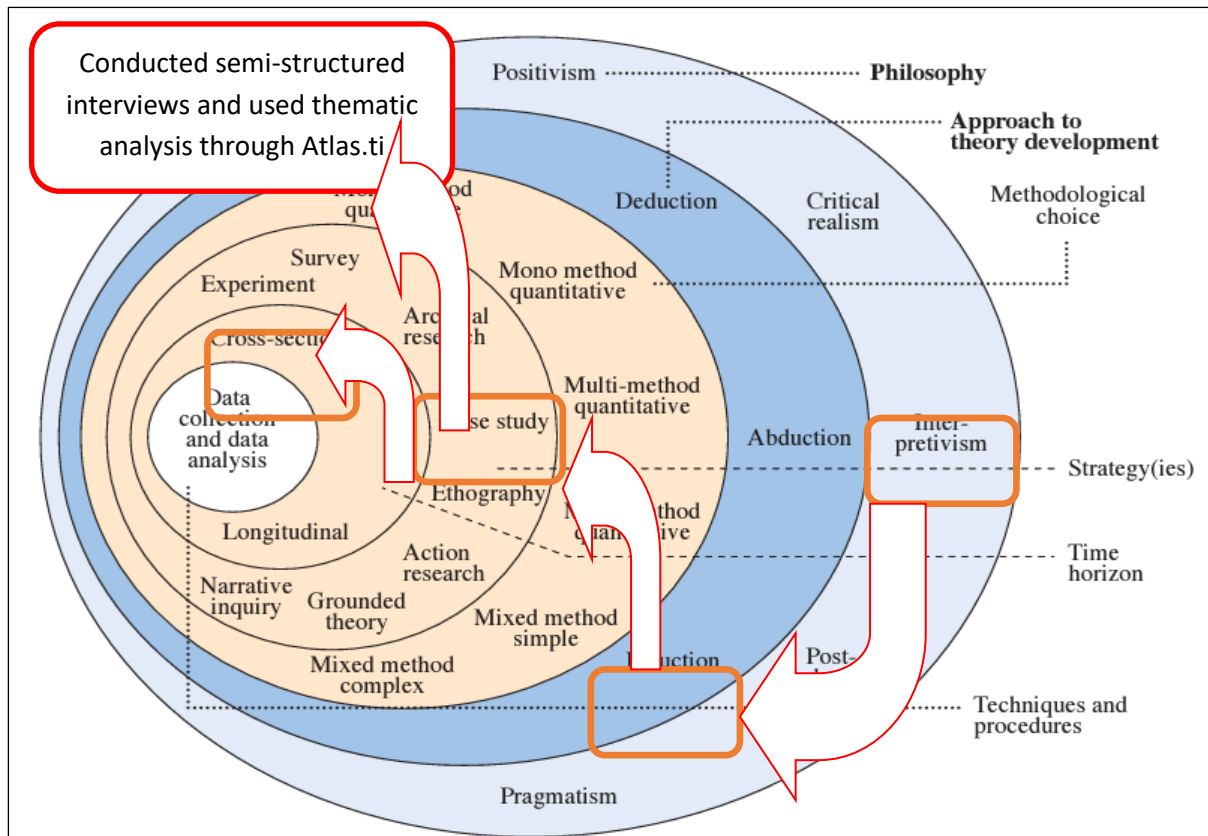


Figure 4.2: The research onion technique

Reworked from: Saunders *et al.* (2009:48)

In terms of the sample and data structured, positivists usually deal with large sample sizes and tend to use highly structured data set (McCloskey & Silvestri, 2021). Probability sampling is then adopted as their technique or strategy to sample the population (Trochim, 2006). Interpretivists on the other hand are driven by the rationale and the quest to understand and interpret the research phenomenon (Capps, 2019). Their reality (ontology) is underpinned by the subjectivity in their findings while their epistemology is that there are multiple realities to the truth. Collis and Hussey (2017:123) describe, interpretivism research philosophy focuses on exploring complexities of a social phenomenon with a view of gaining understanding as shown in Figure 4.2. According to Rubin and Babbie (2018:38), the main purpose of the interpretivism philosophy is to understand and interpret everyday occurrences, experiences, social structures as well as values attach to the phenomenon under examination. As per this research philosophy, social reality is subjective as it is shaped by perceptions of participants to research as well as the aims and values of the researcher(s) (Saunders et al. 2009:102). Owing to their

lineage to qualitative research methods, they rely on the less-structured data sets, relatively small sizes, and non-probability sampling methods (Tjano, 2021; Dudovskiy, 2022).

Table 4.1: Differentiation between research philosophies

Dimension	Pragmatism	Positivism	Interpretivism	Realism
Rationale	Dialectic	Verify or predict	Understand and interpret	Idea of independence of reality from the human mind
Reality — ontology	Realism — constructed on the world we live in	Objective findings	Subjective findings	Objectivity
Truth — epistemology	Objective and subjective viewpoints	Scientific knowledge is truth	Multiple realities and truth are co-created	Scientific approach to the development of knowledge
Research strategy (methodological approach) — examining what is real	Multiple methodologies — hybrid of qualitative and quantitative	Leans towards quantitative methods	Leans towards qualitative methods	Largely qualitative methods
Sample size	Mixed or multiple	Large	Small	Small
Data type	Mixed or multiple	Highly structured	Less structured	Less structured

Source: Adapted from: Tjano (2021); Dudovskiy (2022)

Pragmatism which lies between the positivist and interpretivist research philosophies, is underpinned by dialectic rationale. This implies that the aim of the research is to discover the truth from opposing arguments, perspectives or competing ideas (Mason et al., 1982). The ontology is based on reality and is constructed on the worldview of practicality. This reality according to Kaushik and Walsh (2019) is defined by socially constructed beliefs and habits. From the perspective of research strategies, pragmatism is associated with mixed-method research designs, and do embrace the idea of plurality of research methods – from data set, sampling design and methodological approaches (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019).

Realism is underpinned by the critical realism philosophy (Maxwell, 2011). According to this philosophy, reality is apart from theories, perceptions, and presumptions defining our worldview. It is based on our observations and past and existing experiences. In essence, it set apart true world from the observable world. Through the research design, the methodological procedures followed by the researcher in their attempt to address the research objectives are encapsulated. These are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

The interpretivist philosophy emphasises understanding human behaviour and social phenomena within their contexts, acknowledging the subjective nature of reality.

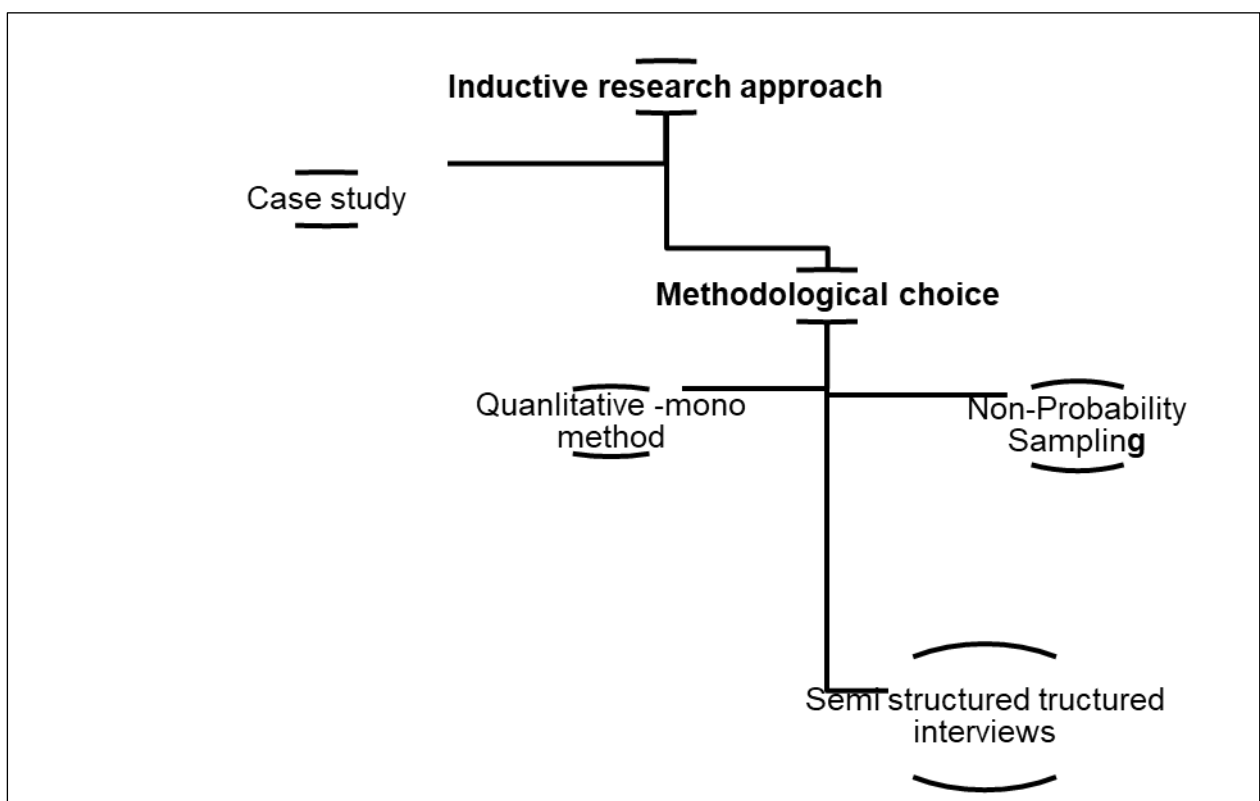


Figure 4.3: The methodological choices

Source: Adapted from: Tjano (2021)

It uses qualitative research methods like interviews to capture nuances of human experiences. In addition, the interpretivist philosophy is suitable for this study because it can be employed for complex social realities, acknowledging human agency, respecting cultural diversity, and providing valuable insights for policy and practice.

4.4 Research approaches

Research approach is defined as the plan consisting of the steps for conducting research spanning from broad assumptions to detailed data collection and analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2016:122). The second layer of the research onion consists of research approaches, which include deductive, inductive, and pragmatism methods. According to Matthews & Ross, 2010; Creswell, 1994; Robson, 2002, and Saunders *et al.* (2009) deductive approaches are primarily associated with positivistic philosophies and quantitative methodologies, while inductive approaches on the other hand are associated with interpretivist philosophies and qualitative methodologies.

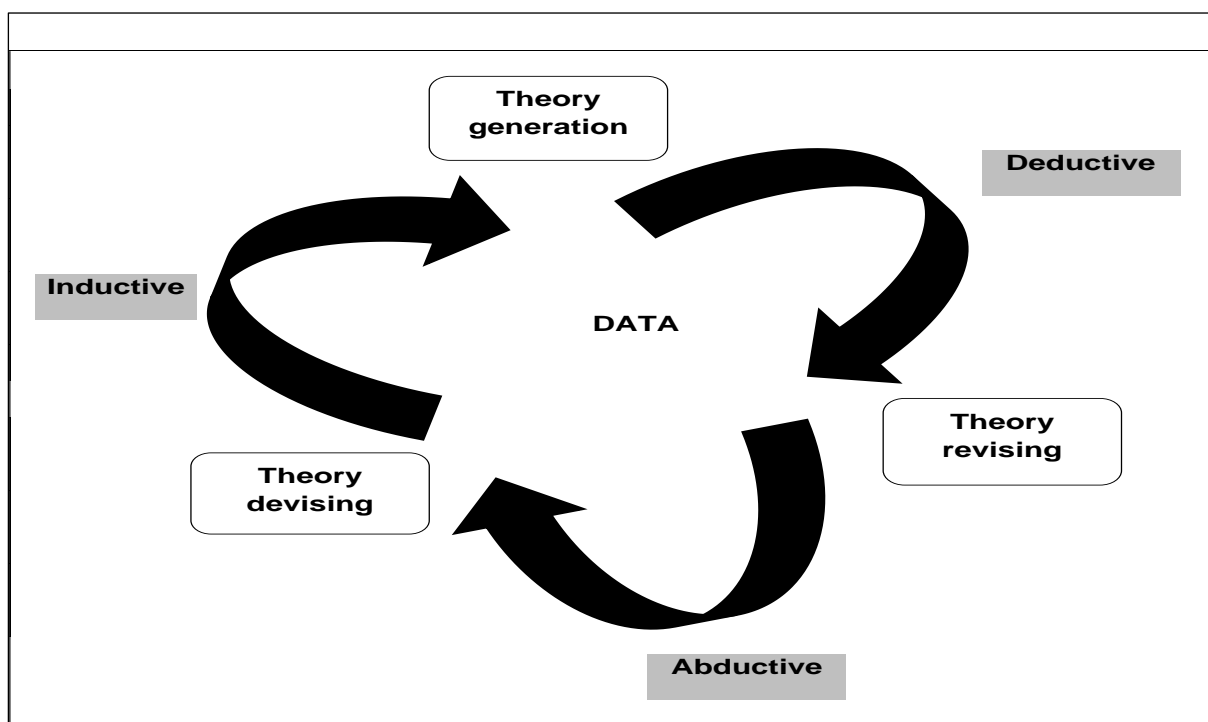


Figure 4.4: The research approaches strategy

Source: Own design Additionally, deductive approaches involve theory testing using variables and statistical procedures, while inductive approaches focus on theory generation using data meanings. Pragmatism, a combination of both approaches, involves retroductive or abductive reasoning to devise theories rather than revising them (Makumbang, 2021). Figure 4.4 above demonstrates the research approaches strategy. For the purpose of the current study, an inductive research approach was adopted. This choice was informed by the qualitative nature of the study, and the aim is to determine and understand the themes that emerge from the data and possibly form theory out of them.

4.5 Case study as a chosen research strategy

In the third layer of the research onion, we have research strategies. Research strategy is described by Saunders *et al.* (2009:90) as the "*overall plan of how researchers go about solving research issues*". Saunders *et al.* (2009) differentiate between experiments, surveys, case studies, action research, grounded theory, ethnography, and archival research as various research strategies that researchers can employ to realise the objective of their research. Robert K. Yin is known to have advocated for and championed the use of case study as a research strategy. The primary goal of the case study approach is to get a deep grasp of the research by coming up with explanations for "why," "what," and "how" (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:139). According to Bryman (2009:67) case studies always been regarded as more of interpretivist and idiographic tool and are distinctly qualitative research driven.

Yin (2018:20) differentiates between the single and multiple case studies. Single case studies refer to those studies that focus on a single case for individual units of analysis such as school, community, or individual firm. Multiple case studies on the other hand are the direct opposite of single case studies and focus studying more than one case. These are usually units with similar or homogenous characteristics or environmental settings. Further to this differentiation, Yin (2018:6) explains that there can be exploratory, descriptive, and explanatory case studies. Exploratory and descriptive research designs are often associated with qualitative research and are inductive in nature. On the other hand, explanatory studies are usually deductive and lean towards quantitative research methodologies (David & Sutton, 2011:165). Building on this background, a single case study as a research strategy was adopted as the focus was on evaluating the role of TMPD officers (single case) in their crime prevention mandate of asset protection. This is a single case as the focus is only on Tshwane metro police officers and not officers in other MPDs in the country. In the next section the adopted research methodology and research methods are explained.

4.6 Methodological choice

The methodological choice is the fourth layer of the research onion. Methodological or research choices refer to the ways in which researchers choose either to employ quantitative and qualitative techniques or use them in combination (Saunders *et al.*, 2020:145). The three primary types of research options are one-method,

mixed-method, and multi-method research. Researchers may choose to use a single data collection and analysis technique or procedure (mono-method), a number of them (multiple-methods), or both qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis approaches (mixed-methods) (Sekaran & Bougie 2019:122). Therefore, the study uses qualitative research methods like interviews to explore the dynamics of crime prevention and asset protection, providing rich data and allowing for adaptation to new insights.

4.6.1 Population and sample size

In research, a population is the study of an object composed of events, human products, organisations, social groups, social entities, and individuals that a researcher bases his or her conclusions (Creswell & Poth, 2016:81). Similarly, a population can refer to a group of individuals that are the study focus and about which the study results are projected to be generalised (Collis & Hussey, 2017:202). According to McMillian and Schumacher (2010:140) sample size must be considered in conducting and evaluating research. The logic of the sample size is related to the purpose, the research problem, the major data collection strategy, and the availability of information-rich cases (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010:328).

CTMM has about 4000 metro police officers and these include traffic wardens, chief of police, constables, commanders, and directors. The target population comprised of 56 the metro police officers who deals with the mandate of crime prevention and protection of municipal assets, and from this number 16 were available to be part of the interviews. The final sample comprised of 14 research participants as two withdrew due to personal commitments, and this is shown in Table 5.1. The excluded individuals are those who are not affiliated with the department of crime prevention and do not deal with the mandate of asset protection. The exclusion criteria were informed by the staff's lack of necessary experience in developing strategies, dealing with crime scenes, conducting daily patrols, and communicating crime prevention plans to the appropriate authorities pertaining to asset protection mandate.

For qualitative research, sample size between 5 and 25 is deemed sufficient (Creswell, 2014:227). Creswell (2014) refers to this as a data saturation point as the researcher will start to pick repetition in responses from the participants.

Arguing in favour of saturation point, Yin (2016:13), in qualitative research, sample size does not matter much as the best sample size is one that sufficiently gives solutions to the research questions. Sekaran and Bougie (2019:155) go a step further to explain that in qualitative research, sample sizes do not necessarily need to be representative of the study population but serve to allow researchers to collect rich and sufficient data.

4.6.2 Sampling technique

There are two broad categories of sampling namely probability and non-probability sampling techniques. This research adopted a non-probability sampling known as the purposive or judgmental sampling technique. Purposive sampling strategy allows the researcher to select cases or individuals who suit specific study needs (Bryman & Bell, 2018:16). The purposive sampling technique was the most appropriate to the research as it allowed the researcher to use expert judgement to select individuals who directly engage in crime prevention and assets protection. The main rationale behind this sampling technique is that individuals from the TMPD are positioned to provide relevant information pertaining to crime prevention and asset protection mandate. The use of the purposive sampling technique is also supported by Hair *et al.* (2017:13) who opined that in qualitative research, sampling tends to be less random and more purposive. The purpose is to draw attention to the lessons from the experience of the metro police officers and demonstrate how they might be used now to combat crime.

4.7 Data collection instruments, procedures, and data analysis

Research methodology and research methods primarily perform two functions. First, they act as controlling mechanism on how data is collected, prepared, and extracted. Secondly, they dictate how analysis and reporting is undertaken (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Qualitative and quantitative research are the two distinct research methodologies, each with its own worldview and application. There is then mixed-method research that takes features of both qualitative and quantitative, and usually is applicable in instances where neither the two distinct research methodologies are appropriate to address the research phenomenon under study.

Within quantitative research methodologies realm, Matthews and Ross (2010:143) describe the quantitative research methodology as an inquiry into a social or human

problem that is driven by deductive mindset of testing the existing theory. These research methodologies align with a positivistic epistemological approach and are largely concerned with gathering and working with structured dataset (Trochim, 2006). With qualitative research studies where often, a researcher may only have a general idea of what they attempt to study, the results are subjective. Meanwhile in quantitative research methodologies, the researcher can quantify the variables and thus makes it easier for objectivity (Matthews & Ross, 2010:142).

Following the inductive nature of the study as outlined above and alignment to the interpretivist paradigm as the chosen research philosophy, the qualitative research mono-methodology and related research methods were employed in this study. The application of qualitative research methodology was deemed appropriate for the study as the aim was to employ the associated research methods such as interviews, transcription, and purposive sampling to address the research problem. Although qualitative research is associated with high degree of inability to generalize the findings to the population, they boost advantage of ability to obtain rich data from few participants, which was the case with the current study (Creswell, 2012; McDaniel & Gates, 2001). The following subsections explain in detail these research methods and how they were employed.

4.7.1 Data collection instruments and procedures

In this section, data collection instruments and procedures are expounded. According to Malhotra (2017:44), data collection is a system of gathering a piece of raw information on the study field that concerns a particular number of events or human beings aimed at addressing the study's research questions. In this study, qualitative research method, specifically semi-structured interviews, were employed for the collection of data. The data collection procedure began with the careful selection of participants representing relevant stakeholders, who include metro police officers from the CTMM. Informed consent was obtained, and an interview guide with open-ended questions was developed to elicit comprehensive information about the police department's role in asset protection.

Pilot testing was conducted to refine the guide, and interviews took place in private settings, recorded with participant consent, and supplemented with detailed field

notes. Subsequently, thematic analysis was employed to identify patterns and themes within the interview data.

4.7.2 Semi-structured interviews

There are various approaches to data collection and a variety of instruments can be used for this purpose. In-depth and unstructured interview structured, or semi-structured interviews can be conducted as a way of gathering data from the research participants (Gray, 2017:41). According to Hennink *et al.* (2017:212), an in-depth interview refers to one-on-one conversations between the researcher (interviewer) and the research participant (the source). In the current study, semi-structured interviews were employed, and this allowed the researcher flexibility in the way the data was collected. Both structured and unstructured questions as shown in Appendix D were asked.

On the other hand, the benefit of using a semi-structured interview lies in its ability to offer the researcher flexibility and freedom to not only probe pre-determined questions, but to also ask to follow up questions depending on the interview direction. The study used semi-structured interviews to gather data. This system was chosen because it provides a comprehensive, adaptable, and semantically deep comprehension of the TMPD's crime prevention role and its impact on safeguarding assets within the municipality. Semi-structured interviews enable this study to engage with a varied range of participants and obtain perspectives needed to conduct an in-depth investigation of the subject under study. This procedure led to me being able to collect well-detailed and rich information. There were two participants who were not available for personal one-on-one interviews, and as a result, virtual interviews through Microsoft Teams were thus arranged.

4.7.3 Interview schedule

This study made use of the interview schedule, sometimes referred to as an interview guide and it had both open-ended and structured questions. The guide was used to steer the direction of the interview sessions. Each interview session lasted between 45 to 60 minutes, with small breaks of 10-15 minutes to allow the research participants an opportunity to stretch the body and gather some strength.

4.7.4 Data cleaning and analysis procedure

Once the interviews were completed, the recorded sessions were stored on the researcher's personal laptop and only the researcher and the data analysts had access to the recordings. Before the analysis, data which would be in the form of texts from the conducted interviews first had to be transcribed.

4.7.5 Data transcription

The process of transcription would be both manual and automated through computer-aided artificial intelligence tool on Microsoft Teams transcription service. Given the errors in language processing model on the Teams platform, especially with regards to African, and by extension South African accent, both manual and computer aided transcription methods had to be employed. The recordings were later transcribed verbatim on the Microsoft word processor in preparation for further analysis. The collected and transcribed data was cleaned for repetitions and unclear or inaudible text. The following steps were thus performed as part of transcription process:

- Step 1 - Audio was uploaded on to Atlas.ti software.
- Step 2 – Populate and create a Word file from uploaded audio in the previous step.
- Step 3 – Import a Word File into Atlas.ti.
- Step 4 – Transcription process starts until the last audio is listened to.

4.7.6 Data coding

When dealing with qualitative data, one of the first primary steps prior to analysis is coding. This process follows transcription stage, and it involves organizing collected data and assigning labels with the aim of identifying themes and relationships that are emerging from that data (Smit, 2002). Labels are assigned to sentences, words, paragraphs, numbers, phrases, or text that represent significant or recurring themes in every response. It is from this premise that thematic analysis, which involves analysing words and sentences the structure is built on and was adopted.

4.7.7 Data analysis steps

The research followed six main steps to thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2018:88). This procedure is illustrated in Figure 4.5 and applied steps involved:

- Familiarising myself with data;

- Generating initial code;
- Searching for themes;
- Reviewing potential themes;
- Defining and naming the emerging themes; and
- Producing the report

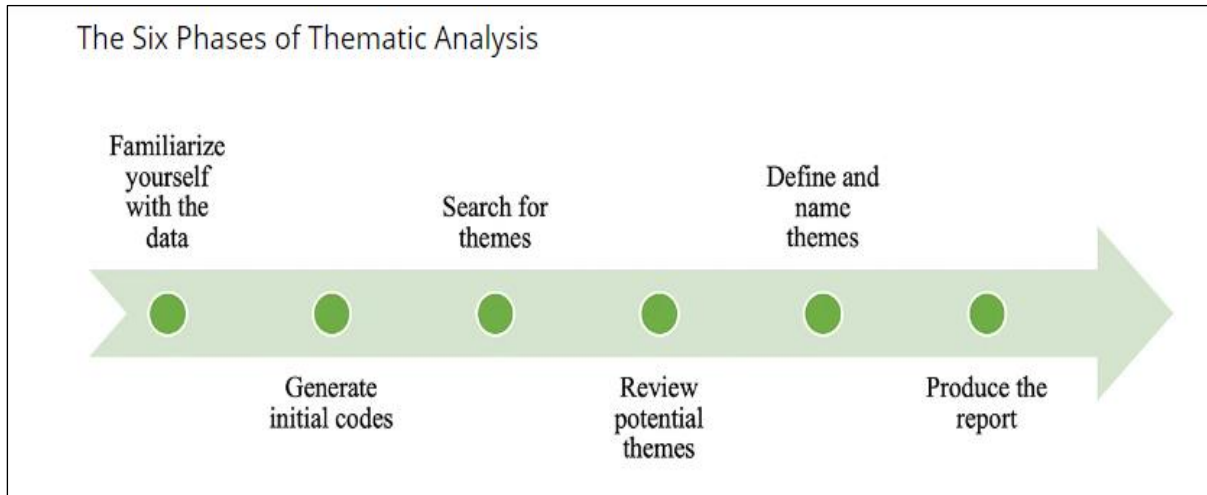


Figure 4.5: Six phases of thematic analysis

Source: Braun and Clarke (2018)

4.7.8 Thematic and relational analyses

Two approaches to data analysis were employed, namely conceptual and relational analyses. The former is known as a flat coding frame and determines the existence and frequency of concepts in the text being analysed. This technique or procedure identified with thematic analysis method. Relational analysis is associated with hierarchical coding frame and develops conceptual analysis further by examining the relationships among concepts in a text. These two data analysis procedures aid in enhancing rich information emerging from the data in order to identify presence of relationship between and priority of themes.

On the other hand, coding data into themes was done after a preliminary analysis of responses was conducted, which involved a process of sense-making. The developed codes were used to identify the emergent themes from the data and then identify the relationship between those themes. The data was analysed through version 23 of the Atlas.ti data analysis software. Figure 5.4 is an excerpt (output) from the Atlas.ti software and illustrates the identified themes through conceptual and relational analysis. The identified or emergent themes are illustrated in the interview guide that

was used to interview participants (see Appendix D). The identified themes were guided by both primary and secondary RQs.

4.8 Validity and reliability issues

Reliability and validity are constructs that are inherent to research in order to offer the tools and the data gathered the precision and consistency required to generalise the findings, obtained from the analysis of the variables under consideration. The degree to which an idea is precisely quantified, for instance in a quantitative analysis, is referred to as validity. When a research tool is said to be reliable, it means that it consistently produces the same results when applied repeatedly to the same circumstances. For the purpose of the current study, the following measures to enhance validity and reliability were undertaken.

4.8.1 Trustworthiness of the study

It means that the sources and data that are included in the research and result are valid and belong to trustworthy sources. In this research the data was collected from trustworthy sources, and in this case metro police officers employed to deal with crime prevention and asset protection mandate.

4.8.2 Credibility

Credibility refers to how the results of an investigation are true for the people who were studied and for other people who have experienced or been in contact with the phenomenon investigated. Credibility is achieved when the study findings are recognised as "real" or "true" by the people who participated in the study and by those who have experienced or been in contact with the phenomenon investigated (Clifton, 2020). To ensure credibility in this study, significant time was invested in developing trust with participants, becoming acquainted with the broader context of the study, testing for information discrepancies, and becoming acquainted with the data during the data analysis stage.

4.8.3 Transferability

The ability to apply the study's findings to further populations is referred to as transferability or applicability. Whether or whether the findings of a qualitative study can be applied to a new setting depends on the audience or reader of the report.

4.8.4 Dependability

Dependability defines the research study's conclusions as being consistent and reproducible, which is crucial to trustworthiness. Researchers want to make sure that the conclusions they draw are supported by the original data they gathered. Dependability refers to the consistency and reliability of the research findings and the degree to which research procedures are documented, allowing someone outside the research to follow, audit, and critique the research process (Sandelowski 1986). Same as to reliability in quantitative research, but with the understanding that stability is reliant of type of study. Dependability in this study was achieved through alignment of the research findings with the evidence in the literature review (both empirical and theoretical). Where gaps were established, recommendations for future research were provided and this was done in section 6.3 of Chapter six.

4.8.5 Conformability

Confirmability is defined as the objectivity of the information's interpretation or analysis, is attained when many researchers can "track" the initial researcher and get to comparable conclusions. Researcher's detail in the current study are traceable as shared on the first page of this this dissertation.

4.8.6 Authenticity

Authenticity is added when the researcher has the possibility of establishing empathic, trusting, and sensitive interpersonal relationships with the participants. Authenticity is added when the researcher can establish empathic, trusting, and sensitive interpersonal relationships with the participants. In the case of the critical approach, rigor increases when the researcher favours self-sufficiency in the participants.

4.9 Ethical issues pertaining to the study

Every research study needs to abide by ethical principles governing research projects. From Unisa's perspective each researcher where a staff member or a student needs to abide by the university's Policies on Research Ethics and on Academic Integrity. The Research Ethics policy governs research ethics to be practiced by researchers, explains roles and responsibilities of the researchers and at the same time offer protection of the rights of all stakeholders involved either directly or indirectly in the research project (UNISA, 2020a). On the other hand, Academic Integrity Policy aims to enforce adherence to all applicable

procedures and practices concerning academic integrity when conducting research. In line with these two legislative prescripts, the researcher undertook the steps to ensure adherence (UNISA, 2020b).

Ethical considerations were paramount throughout the research process, including ethical approval, confidentiality, informed consent, and participant debriefing, ensuring a rigorous and ethical approach to understanding the dynamics of the TMPD's crime prevention role and its impact on asset protection in the municipality. First the researcher applied for ethical clearance certificates from both Unisa and the CTMM. The approval was subsequently granted, and the proof of certificates are attached in appendices B and C of this dissertation.

4.9.1 Informed consent and voluntary participation

The participants were informed of their rights of participation in the study and their participation is voluntary. With the informed consent, they were made to sign agreement form as an indication that they consenting to partake in the study. They were also explained that no harm was to be expected should they decide to withdraw from the study. The researcher contacted the targeted participants to seek permission and reached consensus on date, time, and the place of the interview session. Where there was a discomfort or inconvenience on the part of the research participants, like it was the case with the two research participants, virtual interview through Microsoft Teams was arranged.

4.9.2 Protection of personal information

The research participants were also informed that no personal information of theirs will be shared with any party whatsoever. Only transcripts without identifiable personal information will be shared directly with those involved in the study that is the study promoter (supervisor), data analyst, and the language editor. This attempt is in line Protection of Personal Information Act 4 of 2013, which Unisa also acknowledges and subscribes to. Privacy was prioritised during data collection – arrangements and interview stage and this guided by UNISA's ethical expectations (UNISA, 2020a).

4.9.3 Potential for the researcher's bias

This risk is inherent in any qualitative research as the researcher is part of the objects for the study. This is shaped by the researcher's own assumptions, preconceptions, beliefs on the subject or topic being studied and have potential to influence the data

collection and the findings. The researcher was aware of this risk and strived to remain neutral when conducting the interviews. To strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings, the researcher outsourced the analysis of the collected data to an independent data analyst. There was a follow up meeting to discuss the findings and ask the data analyst any clarity-seeking questions pertaining to the findings (Sandelowski, 2000).

4.10 Results reporting procedure

The reporting of the results for this study is through Chapter 5 where the discussion of the findings is presented in detail. Ultimately a dissertation is then produced as a complete research report, which helps in communicating the findings of the research to the academic community and practitioners in the criminal justice system involved in crime prevention mandate.

4.11 Summary

In this chapter the focus was on the presentation of the adopted research philosophy, methodological choices and as well as the chosen approaches. The interpretivism research paradigm was the preferred philosophical lens of the study. Saunders *et al.* (2009) research onion technique was used to design the methodological flow and design of the study. Sampling techniques and procedures as to how the target and sample population were determined were also discussed. This was followed by data collection instruments, procedures and data analysis alongside validity and reliability issues. The chapter concluded with general summary of bias and ethical considerations undertaken by the researcher. The next chapter focuses on the findings, discussion, and analysis.

CHAPTER 5 FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on the adopted research philosophy, methodology and approaches to address the ROs of the study. This was done through Saunders *et al.*, (2012) research onion technique that was employed to guide the methodological flow and the study's research design. In the current chapter, the focus is on building from the previous chapter as it presents data analysis and interpretation of the findings in relation to the main purpose of the study, which was to evaluate the crime prevention role the TMPD officers assume in the asset protection mandate of the city. This purpose was informed by the problem statement as set out in chapter one. Following the research problem and the research purpose, the ROs of the study were three-folds as presented below:

- To explore the role of TMPD officers in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM.
- To examine the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM.
- To make recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the TMPD officers can be enhanced.

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows: The response rate is presented in section 5.2. This is followed by the presentation of the demographic details of the participants in section 5.3. This assists in getting a picture of demographic distribution by gender, position held, and years (level) of experience. The discussion and analysis of the findings through thematic analysis is presented in section 5.4 while section 5.5 is the last one for the chapter and deals with concluding remarks.

5.2 Response Rate

The response rate of the study stipulates those people that gave consent to be part of the study and thus agreed to be interviewed. Table 5.1 presents the distribution of the study's response rate. From the table, it can be deduced that 16 participants were initially sought and were contacted, however, 14 agreed to be interviewed, whereas 2 did not respond to more than two requests for their participation in the study. The non-response was categorised as rejection for the purpose of determining the response

rate for this study. This therefore translates into an 87.5% response rate and 12.5% rejection rate. The response rate was deemed ideal and sufficient for qualitative studies. Creswell and Poth (2016) state in their qualitative inquiry and research design book that research interviews of between 5 and 25 people are suitable for phenomenological studies for the research findings to be representative of the target population. Previous studies within a similar field also had response rates within this range, for example, Madihlaba (2021; 2018), both the response and rejection rates were acknowledged from the perspective offered by Morton et al. (2012) behind the falling response rate, and they state a trend from 90% in the 1950s to about 70% in the past two decades. One of the attributing factors the authors mention includes difficulties in finding eligible participants and their will when they are ultimately located.

Table 5.1: Summary of the Response Rate

Interviews	Frequency	Percentage
Interviews Sought	16	100%
Interviews Accepted	14	87.5%
Interviews Rejected	2	12.5%
Response Rate	87.5%	

5.3 Demographic details of the participants

The demographic details of the participants for this study comprised gender, education level, position held, and level of experience. These are discussed in the next subsections.

5.3.1 Gender

The analysis of gender distribution is illustrated in Table 5.1. From the table, 10 of the participants were 10 males meanwhile 4 were females. The male dominance of the field could be attributed to the notion that traffic and policing are usually male dominated by nature, partly due to the legacy of recruitment strategies in the past (apartheid) where females were less preferred for security and policing careers compared to men. This then by default implies that males may continue to have the advantage of dominance until the foreseeable future as few women would be available for promotion (Arain, 2014; Madihlaba, 2021). The employment equity targets

monitored by the Department of Employment and Labour are aimed at redressing the imbalances of the past when it comes to amongst others gender distribution, however, this is happening at a snail's pace. A study by Morrison and Conradie (2006) notes that the role played by women in society has largely changed, and more and more women are entering policing occupation which was traditionally a male-dominated field and most importantly these women stand chances of being promoted into positions of authority.

Table 5.2: Gender distribution

Gender	Participation
Male	10
Female	4

5.3.2 Education level

Figure 5.2 illustrates the distribution of the education level amongst the research participants demonstrates that 13 of the participants have at least Grade 12, while only one participant has managed to study further to obtain post matric qualification. This is not surprising because post matric qualification is not a requirement for eligibility to be appointed as a metro police officer. Instead, Grade 12 and driver's license are the main requirements.

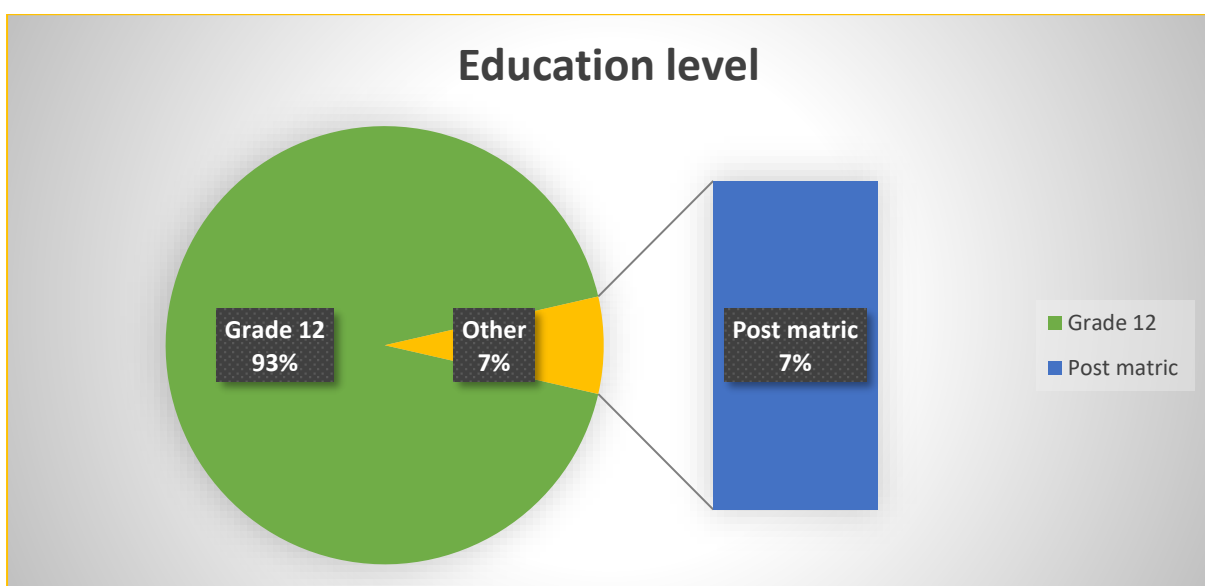


Figure 5.1: Education level

5.4 Presentation and Discussion of findings

This section is dedicated to the presentation and discussion of the findings emanating from the methodological procedures relating to interviews as part of data collection and subsequent data analysis process as explained in following sections. Figure 5.2 depicts the results of analysis (output from Atlas.ti) based on themes and sub-themes.

Table 5.4 illustrates each research objective with its associated coded themes and sub-themes. From the three research objectives, five main themes and subsequently nine sub-themes emerged during the analysis phase. These themes and sub-themes were developed from the research participants' transcripts, which were analysed through the Atlas.ti data analysis software (Smit, 2002). This process guided analysis of data collected and therefore formed basis of the interpretation and discussion of the findings as presented in the next subsection.

5.4.1 Research objective One #1: To assess the TMPD's officers' role in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM

The first research objective of the study was aimed at examining TMPD's officers' role in protecting the assets of the municipality. The associated research question for this research objective was phrased as follows: "*What is the role of TMPD in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM?*" The intention of this research was to understand from the officers' perspective their role in the asset protection function and if there is congruency in their responses. The existence of the varied responses suggest that there is no shared understanding in terms of their legislative mandate. The two supplementary research questions were thus formulated as follows:

- What is the main mandate of TMPD?
- How is the working relationship with other organs of state when it comes to asset protection?

Based on these two research questions, the sub-themes that were probed include the one on the legislative framework governing the work of the municipal police officers as well as their mandate as enshrined in the framework.

5.4.1.1 The legislative framework

Looking at the legislative framework in South Africa for a proper understanding of the responsibilities and the specific mandate of metro police, the legislative framework was scrutinised in relation to the research participants' responses. Since the dawn of

the democracy, there has been several legislative and structural overhauls on the law enforcement functions. This development saw more involvement of local and provincial governments in terms of their law enforcement units. Likewise, the road traffic safety responsibility sectors or units were restructured and strengthened both at the local and provincial government levels. These legislative developments according to Taumang et al., (2022) include:

- the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996);
- the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995);
- the SAPS Amendment Act (83 of 1998);
- the National Road Traffic Act (93 of 1996).

Section 206 of the Constitution enshrines the existence of municipal police officers as it makes provision for their establishment, the powers accorded to them, and how they function and are controlled. Their responsibilities include enforcing the municipal by-laws, traffic control, and crime prevention. Naidoo (2020:12) maintains this point as the author enlists three core functions of metro police officers, namely:

- (1) traffic policing,
- (2) policing municipal by-laws and regulations, and (3) prevention of crime.

There is congruency in these roles considering that they are all established under the SAPS Act of 1995, which was amended by Act 83 of 1998. The founding legislative framework is the Constitution, and this is acknowledged by numbers of authors (e.g., Taumang, *et al.*, 2022; Naidoo, 2020; Madihlaba 2018; 2021). The establishing statements of the municipal police officers from the four biggest metropolitan municipalities in the country (TMPD, Ekurhuleni Metropolitan Department [EMPD], Johannesburg Metropolitan Police Department [JMPD] and Cape Town Metro police Department [CMPD]) were also scrutinised, and from that exercise questions about legislative mandate were asked.

From these responses, it was clear that the understanding of their legislative mandate was varying. What can be drawn from these responses is that there is no shared understanding in terms of the primary legislative mandate of the TMPD officers. The lack of shared understanding is also observed by Rauch, Shaw, and Louw (2001) who found that due to both municipal police services and the SAPS having legislative

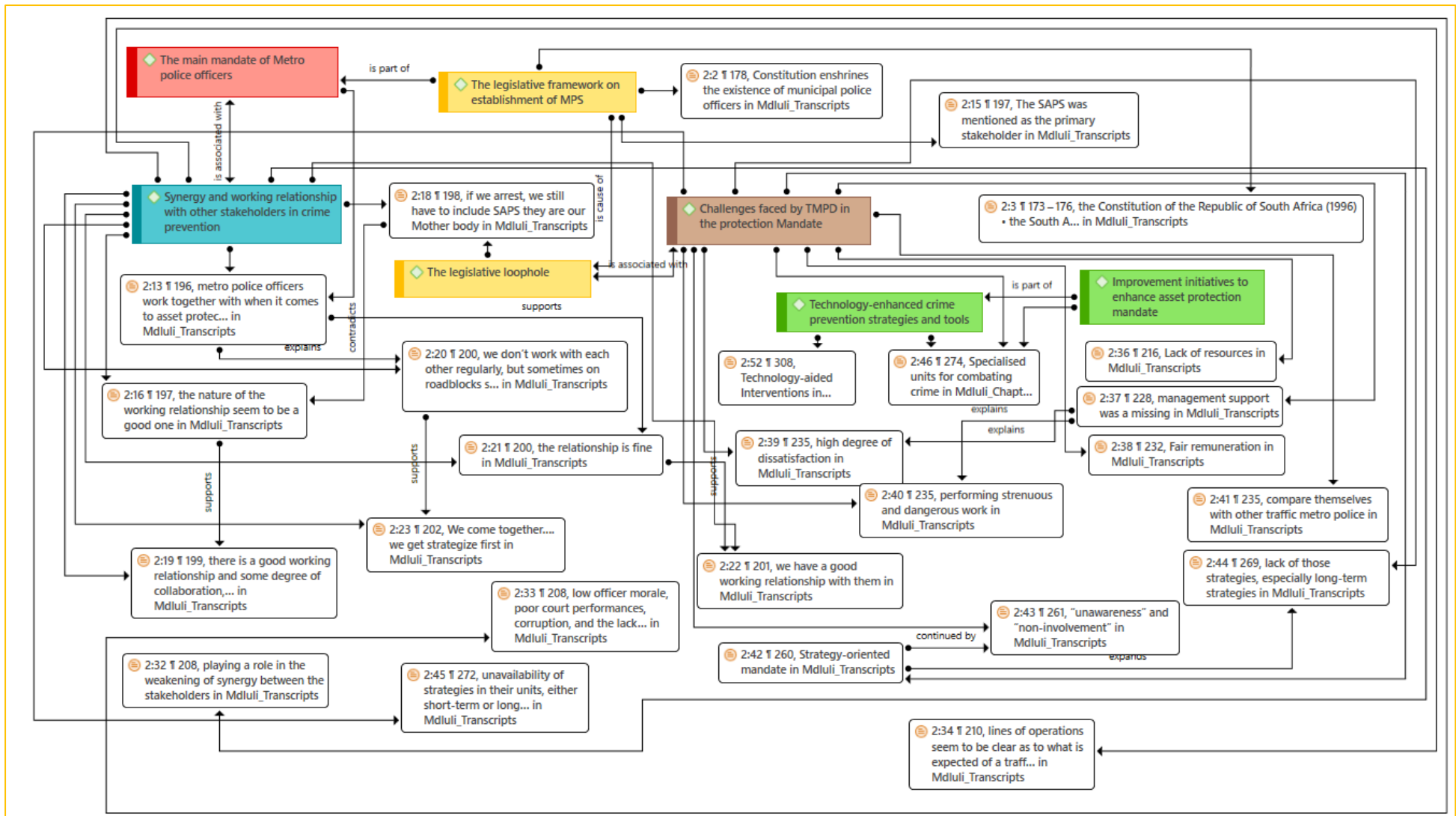


Figure 5.2: Conceptual and relational analysis: An excerpt from the Atlas.ti

mandates of preventing crime. This, as the authors observe leads to obstacles in coordination efforts owing to these agencies operating in various geographical jurisdictions. Interestingly, one of the research participants, for example, enlisted the responsibilities, at least according to him, by order of their priorities, which proves lack of shared understanding as prescribed by the legislative framework.

Research participant #2 stated as follows: “...the number 1 mandate would be Road Policing, that is our number 1. And then others are like crime prevention that is number two is Policing and then we have by-laws”.

With these responses in mind, it is important that there are workshops organised in the form of refresher courses or interventions that takes municipal police officers through their mandate, strategies, and other operational functions as prescribed by the relevant legislation. This is also an awareness exercise for them to know within which framework(s) they need to execute their jobs to avoid functioning outside of their legislative mandate.

5.4.1.2 The legislative mandate of the TMPD

The first supplementary research question quest to determine the legislative mandate of the TMPD in terms of the enabling act. From this mandate, the idea was to understand where asset protection fits in. Based on this question, the responses from the participant varied to some effect, and this is illustrated in Figure 5.4.

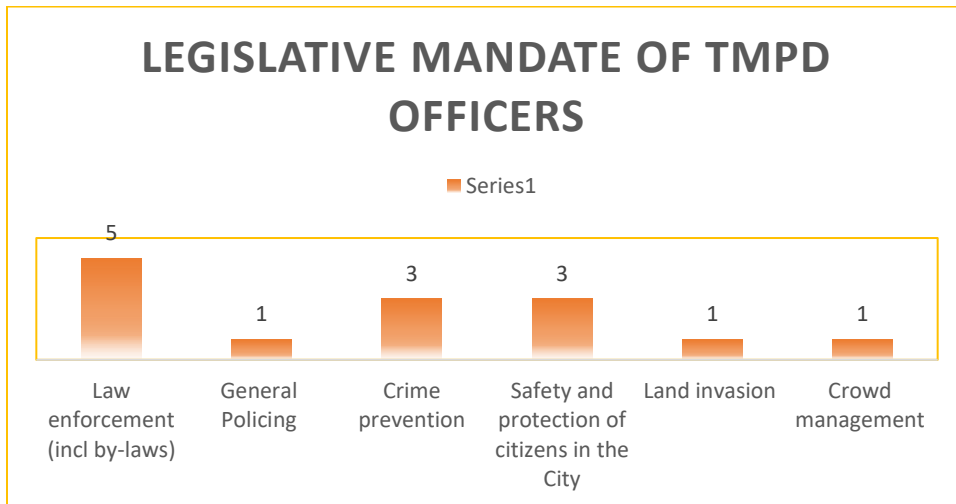


Figure 5.2: The legislative mandate of the TMPD officers

Law enforcement was cited the highest with a total of five research participants stating it as their prime mandate. Land invasion and crowd management were each cited once as part of metro police officers' mandate.

Research participant #1: said: *"My mandate is law enforcement of cause that I main thing we wake up for every day we wake up every day to enforce the law yeah, people come to you or give you a holistic approach"*.

Crime prevention and safety and protection of citizens in the CTMM were tied in the second position in terms of their mention, with three research participants per each category.

Research participant #6: said as follows: *"The first six months I was only focused on traffic and infringements and all by- laws. And then when we went out again after doing the basic course for the SAPS there's where we would be stationed at the Police Station, a second year was at the Police Station at Hammanskraal and Detective SAPS. So, when we were executing our duties, it would be Metro Police Officers vehicle a Metro Police Offers together with the SAPS"*.

The least mentioned was road and general policing, and based on the responses general policy relates to what SAPS would be involved in thus leading to a question on collaborative efforts between the stakeholders, which is discussed in the next subsection. The below response explains both the roles of road and general policing.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *"We are doing both road policing and general policing. ...We would execute general policing, for example, when we have arrested somebody be it for road Infringement or whatever that was reported we will do everything together until when reach the police station where we will open a docket together with the help of police here and there, ...including putting the arrested person into custody, yes and also safekeeping of the items we used to do everything"*.

Research participant #13 stated as follows: *"Yeah, so that is what we are generally do for the City, to do what we are expected ...to protect the municipality property and I don't know if I must focus only on the property or even the public in general"*.

Newham, Masuku and Gogomo (2002) enlist the statutory role of the metro police officers as traffic enforcement, crime prevention, and municipal by-law enforcement. These officers are legally accorded powers of arrest, and search-and-seizure operations as long as that is executed within their jurisdiction. Given the duplication efforts with the SAPS' mandate of crime prevention, Rauch et al. (2001) suggest that there is a serious need for role and mandate clarification when it comes to metro police services, given the coordination difficulties. Therefore, there needs to be a balancing act between law enforcement and crime prevention mandates, as the metro police officers are directing their energy less on prevention and more on traffic enforcement and traditional crime-combating mechanisms.

5.4.1.3 The working relationship with other organs of state when it comes to asset protection and crime prevention.

This research question aimed at attempting to understand what are other organs of state that metro police officers work together with when it comes to asset protection and crime prevention. Furthermore, it also aimed to understand the nature of the working relationship between them. This was to understand the specific role of the metro as it seemed to be intertwined if not duplicative of the SAPS, mainly from the perspective of crime prevention.

The SAPS was mentioned as the primary stakeholder when it comes to collaboration strategies and the nature of the working relationship seem to be a good one.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *"...crime prevention and road policing go together; we are same thing with SAPS. The only difference is that Metro police officers do not have the holding Cells, so even if we arrest, we still have to include SAPS they are our mother body. So, everything that we do, it has to go through them"*.

Assessing the working relationship between the TMPD officers and other stakeholders in the security cluster and the frequency of that collaboration, the responses by the research participants suggest there is a good working relationship and some degree of collaboration, although not that frequent. They usually meet or plan with one another when it comes to crime prevention strategies and roadblocks. The SAPS was cited by most as the collaborating partner and that was followed by provincial department traffic officers and the officers appointed in terms of the Road Traffic Management Corporation

(RTMC) Act. Usually, this working relationship takes place during operations initiations by the Minister. Provincial SAPS or the Member of the Executive Council (MEC). However, there were tensions in some cases that had the potential to break down collaborative efforts.

Research participant #3 stated as follows: *“The thing is we don’t work with each other regularly, but sometimes on roadblocks sometimes we do work with each other and like the relationship is fine, is fine. Because the good thing about the relationship is that you give me respect, I give you the respect that I wanted to give like I will never have any problem and no I will never have a problem with that. On my side is good”*.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *“As far as I am concerned with a little experience I had at least we have a good working relationship with them”*.

Research participant #9 stated as follows: *“Yes! We come together.... we get strategize first before it gets to ground”*.

5.4.1.4 Legislative loopholes in terms of the mandate

With this part of the research, the aim was to identify if any, existing gaps in the legislative framework governing the mandate and collaboration efforts between the TMPD metro police officers and other stakeholders in the security cluster like the SAPS. The evidence from the responses is that although they work together during roadblocks, search and seizure operations, and so forth, there is no specific legislative framework governing the operations of the metro police officers except the foundation section 206 of the Constitution and the SAPS Act.

This gap put limitations in terms of the efficiency of the traffic metro police as their functions are limited when it comes to arresting transgressors. Much as they can enforce the law, however they are limited in carrying out certain functions. Likewise, they enforce citizen arrest however they need to be accompanied by a SAPS official before they can open a docket or at least transfer a docket to the SAPS to avoid duplication. This observation is also contained in the SAPS Act 68 of 1995 as amended to Act 83 of 1998 which states that municipal police officers are afforded legal power to execute arrests and conduct search and seizures if that is carried out within their juristic area of operation. Any function outside their jurisdiction could be executed as a citizen arrest. Most

importantly relating to the limitation of powers, traffic metro police need to hand over criminal cases to SAPS for further investigation and processing. This according to Rauch (2001), is to avoid duplication of activities and the work of the SAPS.

5.4.1.5 Synergy inter-and intra-stakeholders

This sub-theme quest to understand the synergy that exists amongst stakeholders in line with the coordination theory by Malone and Crowston (1994). This quest was built from the working collaboration between the stakeholders as explained in section 5.1.4.2, which was found to be collegial, although in some isolated instances there were tensions.

For example, a study by Taumong, et al. (2022) which explored illegal speeding and consequential road crashes in the CTMM made a plea for more collaboration amongst various stakeholders in the policing fraternity such as the TMPD, the provincial Traffic Police, the National Traffic Police, and the SAPS. The findings from that study revealed weak inter-organizational coordination and collaboration between the stakeholders owing to internal politics. Internal problems faced by these entities were also found to be playing a role in the weakening of synergy between the stakeholders and such problems amongst others include low officer morale, poor court performances, corruption, and the lack of skills capacitation. The lesson drawn from this study is that there is a need for a coordinated strategy and the creation of a conducive working environment, free of internal politics amongst stakeholders involved in combating crime and law enforcement to enhance synergy and for effective results.

5.4.1.6 Clarity or blurrily of lines of operations between various stakeholders involved in crime prevention

The lines of operations seem to be clear as to what is expected of a traffic police officer and the SAPS officer in terms of the SAPS Act. However, in practice, this seems to be different owing to the criminal activities they are confronted with daily. The specific mandate or role of the traffic metro police are founded based on the SAPS Act. This implies that there is an overlap or duplication of their function or mandate. Furthermore, the traffic metro police are limited by the legislation in executing certain functions like opening the docket, as those are primarily the functions of the SAPS officers.

Research participant #9 stated as follows: “...*For example, when someone is committing a crime, I can arrest that and hand that person to a nearest Police Station but not as a Police Officer because we don't have those powers to enforce arrest and open a docket*”.

For example, Section 31 of the National Road Traffic Act (93 of 1996) as amended assigned “powers and duties” to road traffic safety officers consistent with the traffic safety law enforcement function of one of the three main components of road traffic safety management noted in the 1991 RTMS model. In short, Act 93 of 1996 required road traffic safety officers to focus on enforcing traffic laws and thus regulating and controlling road traffic according to relevant laws. However, as peace officers road traffic safety officers also had a more general, albeit limited law enforcement responsibility. They had to notify the SAPS when they suspected a non-traffic-related offence had been committed. Furthermore, whereas criminal justice agencies and the police played a role – although a quite diffuse role – in road traffic safety management between 1910 and 1994, post-1994 legislation detailed this role, but restricted it to the local government level (Röthe, 2008). Section 206(7) of the Constitution as amended, for example, provided for the institution of municipal/metropolitan police officers whose responsibilities included, amongst other things, the enforcement of road traffic safety laws.

In addition, (1) the National Road Traffic Act (93 of 1996) as amended, together with (2) the South African Police Service Act (68 of 1995) as amended by (3) the SAPS Amendment Act (83 of 1998), required municipal/metropolitan police officers to inter alia enforce road traffic safety laws. For example, the National Road Traffic Act (93 of 1996) as amended stated: a “‘traffic officer’ means a traffic officer appointed in terms of section 3A ... and any member of a municipal police service ... as defined in section 1 of the SAPS Act, 1995”. The SAPS Amendment Act (83 of 1998) specifies “traffic policing, subject to any legislation relating to road traffic”, as one of the functions of municipal/metropolitan police officers (Sedgwick & Hawdon, 2019). Furthermore, Act as amended stipulated that municipal police officers had the legal power to arrest, search and do seizures within their area of operation or jurisdiction.

However, to avoid duplicating the work of the SAPS, municipal police officers had to hand relevant criminal cases over to the SAPS for investigation and prosecution. More generally, and in terms of Sections 205 and 206 of the 1996 constitution, municipal police

officers had a constitutional duty to render a road traffic law enforcement service to the public that was efficient, community-based, and not only reactive but also proactive nature. Hence, and, by implication, municipal police officers inter alia had a constitutional duty to contribute towards road traffic safety and to do so not only reactively but also proactively (Rauch, 2001). Two other key post-1994 statutory initiatives also materialised namely the promulgation of the Administrative Adjudication of Road Traffic Offences (AARTO) Act (46 of 1998), and the Road Traffic Management Corporation (RTMC) Act (20 of 1999). These two initiatives were, as noted by Mynhardt (2013:104), “supportive of key issues noted in the [earlier mentioned] 1996 White Paper on National Transport Policy”. More specifically, the AARTO Act (46 of 1998) provided for the adjudication function of the law enforcement component of road traffic safety management (RTMC, 2016).

5.4.2 Research objective #2: To examine the challenges faced by TMPD in the protection of municipal assets of CTMM

The second research objective sought to examine challenges encountered by the TMPD daily when they execute their work. Lack of resources, support from the management, and problem areas such as fair remuneration, performance management issues, and strategy-oriented mandate were identified as themes that emerged from this research objective which are presented and discussed in the following section as follows:

5.4.2.1 Lack of resources

The overwhelming number of research participants mentioned a lack of adequate and proper resources as the main challenge they are facing in their work. The outcome of this challenge, as they mentioned, is the inability to perform their task with efficiency and effectiveness. Worryingly, one participant gave emphasised that when they see someone transgressing the law, they will do nothing because even if they have to apprehend the culprit, they will have to use their own resources, car in this case, however, they were not going to be compensated for fuel or maintenance expenses.

Research participant #10 stated as follows: *“Yeah! I have to arrest you and take you to the nearest Police Station but am I going to use my own vehicle to arrest you?”*

Research participant #13 stated as follows: *“we need vehicles because they assist us a lot of especially us as Traffic officer and metro Police Officers. When we don’t have*

vehicles, it deemed useless...I don't want to say it but it is what it is. Yes, a vehicle it's a must, that's number one".

In terms of proper resources, they cited examples of fast and reliable motor vehicles to chase criminals. For example, they are most of the time operating from the streets and roadblocks, however no allocation of speedy vehicles is taking meanwhile those who are office-bound will be given fast vehicles whilst criminals out there will be boosting these powerful vehicles, which themselves as TMPD cannot match.

Research participant #12 stated as follows: *"Yeah! As you can see, there's no marked vehicle here in all OCU (Overload Control Units), the only vehicle we've got is Ford Ranger and we have to share it".*

Research participant #14 stated as follows: *"We need vehicles and If me as an Officer suspect that this vehicle is overloaded, I must take that vehicle to Centurion because it's only we have the scale but even worse now there's been 4-5 years they haven't been calibrated scale, and they are not working properly".*

The lack of resources in the work environment is believed to be linked to the condition of low staff morale. For example, Ledwaba and Mofokeng (2014) found the low staff morale of the SAPS public order policing unit was attributed to the inadequate allocation of resources. Further to these findings, there were also stereotypes in terms of fairness and distribution of resources amongst police ranks.

5.4.2.2 Management support in the provision of resources

As a follow-up to the previous theme on the lack of resources, which was a concern for almost all the research participants, it emerged that management support was a missing link. I then went further as the interviewer to probe if they have complained to their management about their situation of lack of resources and the support they receive. The response was unequivocal as far as the lack of management's support. Basically, there seems to be little interest from the management in addressing their plea for support as far as the allocation of resources is concerned.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *"...management would say, "no we'll sort it out, we'll sort it out". Vehicles! We don't have vehicles, you'll be surprised other units*

there get allocated vehicle every allocation period such as Toyota DG6, the new Ford Rangers but as OCUs, we aren't allocated any".

Research participant #7 stated as follows: *"Because you'll be getting a tip-off about crimes and you take it to them... So, because they are dragging their feet, by the time they decide to give you what you are looking for, it's too little too late".*

5.4.2.3 Fair remuneration practices

The issue of fair remuneration remains a contentious issue, especially from a South African perspective, with the country being amongst those with the most unequal societies in the world. In the literature, remuneration of law enforcement personnel focuses more on police officers in general and not necessarily on traffic metro police. Nonetheless, as already determined, there seems to be an overlap of activities performed by the traffic metro police and those of police in general, although the latter is limited in executing certain functions due to legislative restrictions.

With this theme, the attempt was to understand if the research participants believed they were fairly remunerated for the work they perform. The theme was guided by the literature on the remuneration of traffic and law enforcement officers, which suggests that officers are likely to regard their remuneration as inadequate or unfair, especially when they take into account the level of risks associated with the work they perform, amount of stress that comes with the job and the demands of the job itself. However, the researcher was cognizant that these may vary according to the area of operation, economic conditions of the metropolitan municipality or provincial government as well as specific law enforcement agencies.

The responses from the participants revealed a high degree of dissatisfaction, with participants citing working under pressure and performing strenuous and dangerous work. In particular, on remuneration, they also cited that their counterparts like SAPS officers, the RTMC officers, and the national and provincial traffic officers seem to fair better compared to them and also seem to have a conducive working environment, with better allocation of resources. The worse situation is when they compare themselves with other traffic metro police in other metropolitans like Durban and Cape Town.

Research participant #1 stated as follows when asked if they are happy about their salary: *“Not quite, well it’s hard to have a living with a salary that we get my understanding is that they were supposed to grade us with the other metropolitans, like Durban, Cape Town and the other RT’s so that we be on the same level but it doesn’t look that happens because of the fact that, I feel like or I can say to myself that we are not being paid according to how we are supposed to be paid”*.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *“... so with the job we are doing, we are a threat to the criminals, and we risk us being followed and also our lives are in danger...”*

Research participant #9 stated as follows: *“They offer Police officers better remuneration and start having better refresher courses than here”*.

Intrigued by their responses, the follow-up question asked them how this situation made them feel and what it does to their morale. This was guided by prior exposure to the industrial psychology literature on the link between remuneration, job satisfaction, and commitment level (Ledwaba & Mofokeng, 2014; Mabila, 2014; Mushwana, 2012; Roodts, 2004). The responses were in affirmation of the low staff morale, with a concomitant high level of dissatisfaction and low job commitment. The study by Ledwaba and Mofokeng (2014) on job satisfaction and morale of the SAPS POP (public order policing) unit in the precinct of TMPD found that the officers were generally satisfied with their job, however, their morale was low. The contributing factor amongst others as cited by the authors includes inadequate career progress. These results support claims made by the research participants in the current study that t

Research participant #2 stated as follows: *“...I don’t know if it’s political or what, but now we’re still at the court so that they can remunerate us the same as those old ones. So, it even affects our morale”*.

5.4.2.4 Performance management systems

The issue of performance management is a serious one within law enforcement literature and antecedents seem to be job satisfaction and staff morale (Tembur, 2017). The research participants were asked to enlist performance management-related challenges or issues affecting their work. The responses varied but key issues included lack of recognition, lack of resources, and performance rating system. They indicated that if they

get a good support structure or recognition through staff awards, for example, they will be motivated to perform better. In line with this observation, research participant #8 stated as follows:

“Yes, there is insufficient recognition from top management and the awards are there but now eish it’s for few people...”

The other research participant indicated that they go extra mile for a good job performance but there is not enough appreciation of the work they do.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *“Or recognition or anything that says hey you’ve done a good job good people but every time when there’s a problem in town, we have our own areas where we work, and we don’t complain.”*

Similar to no complaining when they get deployed, another research participant also voiced the lack of recognition as follows:

Research participant #9 stated as follows: *“When we were at TRT our primary role was to safeguard that bus road that was, we don’t look at our own route, but we’ve end up finding ourselves in that field, finding ourselves in Phelindaba and Mabopane because of the passion we had of doing the job. But there’s not even one of those people was or can give anything as a token of appreciation”.*

In addition to these issues, lack of resources, especially provision of vehicles, remuneration and management support were cited again by the participants, hence there was no further probing on this aspect. Pasha (2014) suggests that there is a need for the implementation of performance management methodologies to improve employees’ performance, however, what is important is ensuring that there is proper design of such systems.

5.4.2.5 Strategy-oriented mandate

On this sub-theme, the research participants were probed on whether they are following a strategy-oriented mandate when they execute their functions. The question was on the backdrop of SAPS’ established mandate of law enforcement service, policy, and strategic direction. Based on the responses, the sense is *“unawareness”* and *“non-involvement”* from the employees as far as the strategy-oriented mandate is concerned.

Research participant #1 stated as follows: *“LOL! You know what, I think that question is suitable for our managers, I think because they are the one who are strategizing and us, we just need to implement what they’ve strategised but so far to me eish, I don’t want to ...to but I’ll be honest with you, he knows me I am a very straight forward person they are not strategizing and I don’t think what even the meaning of strategizing is.... Yeah”*

Likewise, research participant #2 indicated that they are not involved in strategizing, however, that is the responsibility of the management. As metro traffic officers, they implement *“what has been strategised”*.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *“Yeah! I am not sure; I think they are strategizing maybe but there just something that they are not doing rights yes because you cannot have one dysfunctional thing of municipality for years and without consider it to be fixed there’s a problem there”*.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *“Yes! We come together.... we get to strategize first before the operational plan gets to the ground”*.

Research participant #10 indicated some level of uncertainty with regard to the strategy-oriented mandate of law enforcement officers. This proves the earlier inference of not lack of employee involvement in planning. However, this differs from the research participant’s 6 responses, who indicated that they do work together in strategizing. Therefore, there is inconsistency in terms of responses as to whether there is a strategy-oriented mandate when it comes to crime prevention mechanisms.

5.4.2.5.1 Short- and long-term strategies

Following up on the presence of a strategy-oriented mandate, the research participants were asked to share what type of short- and long-term strategies they are employing as part of crime prevention mechanisms. This was guided by Govender and Pillay’s (2022) observation of the National Crime Combating Strategy (NCCS), which directed law enforcement initiatives to high-density areas through search and seizure operations. Leggett (2004) goes further to argue in favour of the NCCS as the author cites the benefit of improving public confidence in law enforcement and combating crime.

The research participants’ responses when asked about the presence of strategies in their respective units suggest some element of presence although not comprehensively.

Therefore, there may be areas of concern as other participants indicated a lack of those strategies, especially long-term strategies.

Research participant #8 stated as follows: *“Yes, it all depends, like I’m saying strategic planning and visions, we have from top management yes, so in other units the very same top management will communicate their rules to the middle so that they tell us”*

Research participant #12 stated as follows: *Yes, some units hence I’ve said leadership, it’s all depending on who was managing that time. In other units you would observe strategic goals being there in other units would also be, made way of certain objectives, this is what is expected from us would have maybe meetings once or twice a month whereby we sit around the table and we brainstorm guys what is that the challenges that you are having, how can we improve then we would go for training.*

It’s understandable that some of the research participants would indicate the unavailability of strategies in their units, either short-term or long-term because they work at the operational level, which implies they may not be involved with the development strategies of their department. What is important is the degree of awareness and information sharing whereby the managers responsible for the strategic direction of their department should through feedback reporting make subordinates aware of the direction the department is taking and how they will reach there (short-term). This will form part of the information-sharing sessions that should be held with subordinates.

5.4.2.5.2 Specialised Units for combating crime

This is the second sub-theme, and its aim was to understand the presence of specialised crime-combating units within the metro as part of its strategy-oriented mandate. This is because crime evolves every time, and syndicates are always coming up with new ways of averting arrests. They usually receive advanced training and are staffed with the necessary tools and equipment to combat and prevent crime. Some examples of these units as identified by Prinsloo and Bradshaw (2010) in Cape Town include units dealing with taxi violence, illegal firearms, murder, and robbery, and those dealing with crimes against the state.

From the responses, the picture I got as the researcher and interviewer is that the research participants indicated somewhat a degree of awareness of the existence of the

specialised units. The units mentioned by the research participants range from asset protection unit, drug unit, by-laws, road policing unit and crime prevention unit amongst others. The responses were promising and indicate that at least the city is doing something about specialised crimes that are taking place such as the scourge of drug-related crimes and road infringements. The somewhat responses from other research participants gave the impression that there might be silos or a level of ignorance in some staff, hence they are unaware of what is happening in other departments or divisions.

One of the participants did indicate that although they are stationed in the Asset protection unit, there is a new unit on Road Policing being established, and she is involved heavily in its establishment. According to the participant, this new unit aims at addressing road crashes and related incidents and consequences through preventive mechanisms, which were also raised by a recent empirical study by Taumong et al. (2022). When asked if they are still able to perform their primary roles, they indicated emphatically with “yes! yes!” response.

Research participant #1 stated as follows: *“We do have specialised units under the Metro Police. Now I am at assets protection trying to build this new unit my road policing unit... Because if I were to arrest, I can arrest, I still have my uniform nothing has been taken from me even when I work, I still work with the same equipment I was issued with I still have my firearm, I still go for my firearm license renewal and courses and I’m still part of them it is just that I’m no longer 100 % active on site of law enforcement.”*

Research participant #3 stated as follows: *So, the Metro Police we’ve got two branches, Road Policing, the strategic there’s a strategic policing. The specialised OPS, the specialised operations. That’s where we’ve got different sections, we now have your bylaws, we have protection under that branch, the protection services, we’ve got you drug unit. Road Policing focuses on road infringements. But before they split other duties they were done at regions as well they you’d go to your region, and you’d find your lead invasion there. You’d find your bylaws unit in the same unit, so I think because when times went by, they realised some of the duties were not met so they split them the regions dealt with traffic infringements only and then whatever you want you’ll find it under this other ...specialised Police Section*

Research participant #7 stated as follows: *“Yes! when I was at the regions, regions dealt with road policing unit and by-laws together with crime prevention.”*

The other participant indicated that some of the existing specialised units work on call, which means they wait until they are needed, or a call has been logged. This from the researcher’s perspective suggest some degree of reactive approach and may need to be relooked into for effective and proactive crime preventing mechanisms.

Research participant #11 stated as follows: *“Because some of the specialised units we were working on call. So, if there’s no call you’ll just wandering around the yard.”*

The role played by these units is a crucial one considering that the officers deployed in those units should have been trained differently from the ordinary traffic and law enforcement officers of the city. In some other areas, there are units such as those dealing with cash-in-transit (CIT) heists, drugs were closed down and replaced with a single serious and violent crimes unit. In the City of Ekurhuleni, the EMPD targets the following specialised units for fighting crime: Dog Unit (K9), Equestrian Unit, Substance Abuse (Drug) Unit, Specialised Tactical Unit, VIP Protection Unit, Crowd Control Unit, Overload Unit, Speed law Enforcement, By-law Unit, OR Tambo Precinct (National Key Point). From the TMPD point of view, their specialised units are similar to those of EMPD, however, they have additional units that are reported to be in existence, namely VIP Protection Unit, Crowd Control Unit, Social Crime Prevention, Cable Theft Unit, Drunk Driving Support Unit, and Speed Law Enforcement Unit.

5.4.3 Research objective #3: To make recommendations to enhance asset protection mandate of TMPD.

The third research objective of the study sought to devise recommendations necessary to enhance the asset protection mandate of the TMPD. These recommendations are based on the critical analysis of the responses provided by the research participants when they were being interviewed. Under this objective, two themes, namely the asset protection improvement strategies and crime combating mechanisms as well as the community-led crime-fighting mandate. Four sub-themes emerged under the first theme as shown in the next sub-section which are discussed next.

5.4.3.1 Asset protection improvement strategies and crime combating mechanisms

This sub-theme was part of the researcher's effort to probe improvement strategies and crime-combating mechanisms in place to assist in executing asset protection functions by the metro traffic officers. Four sub-themes emerged from this theme as the responses from the participants and the discussion thereof follow in the next sub-sections.

5.4.3.1.1 Continuous professional development (CPD) and training

CPD is key to staff development. This is usually in the form of employer-sponsored training and development initiatives, to which employees are encouraged to attend. Based on the survey of the responses received on this topic, traffic officers were not impressed on the type and number of interventions supplied by the employer. For example, one research participant lamented and laughed off when asked about availability of continuous training and development (CTD) initiatives. The participant mentioned that they bring pastoral counselling as training intervention, and not necessarily law enforcement-gearred interventions relating to their daily functions or area of operation.

Research participant #2 stated as follows: *"Hahaha...! And then, one of the pastors' units here in our space I don't know what they call it, that one for counselling"*.

Still, on counselling, one participant also criticised the form in which these facilitators conduct their training as their presentation skills left much to be desired.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *"Yeah, these people are coming from universities or are universities graduates, look here my brother, I am going to dismantle it all. Even though to find a private company just to give Police Officers property training for counselling because that people know nothing about the work we do"*.

The other observation I made as the researcher is that these interventions when they are made available, they are not rolled out consistently.

Research participant #14 stated as follows: *"We would be doing short courses here and then in other units but in other units nothing was done. So, you would really end up not knowing what is it that I'm really doing that are we driving towards a certain goal or are we just here to push to the salary collectors."*

Research participant #9 stated as follows: *“Yes, there must be refresher courses like the firearm, when your firearm permit expires, they can’t just say, “come and take another permit” you must go to the shooting range again you must right that firearm Section 56, you must right the firearm Act again. So even righting this ARTO, ARTO 31 Eh Section 44 we will need a refresher course”*.

Research participant #12 stated as follows: *“Mmmmm, I think what we need neh, it’s refresher courses, refresher courses on at the college we did Section 56 we never used Section 56 we never issued Section 56 and we never used it, now for an example I can say ok today I am gonna use or issue Section 56, I personally I forgot to right Section 56 ...Because I lastly did Section 56 in the year 2013 at the college”*.

Research participant #10 stated as follows: *Eish there are a lot of things that we need in that regard because now with us we have a situation. Those refresher courses and stuff are so important, but they are not happening”*.

And when asked why they were not happening, the response of research participant #10 was as follows: *“I think it’s because of lack of funds, funds have been misused”*.

On the other hand, the response of research participant #12 corroborated what the tenth participant said: *“Yes, finance is the issue, right”*.

This response relates to budgetary constraints or mismanagement of resources. Section 5.4.2.1 discussed the issue of resources while the Sustainable funding model can address the issue of budget constraints, and this is discussed in section 5.4.3.1.4. From the responses, there is a dire need for relevant refresher courses by the participants to refresh their memories on their daily functions and more importantly to be effective at their execution. The issue of refresher courses was also dealt with in the first section where it was clear that some of the municipal police officers were uncertain on the legislative framework governing their functions and responsibilities.

5.4.3.1.2 Quality management system

QMS is premised on continuous improvement as part of service delivery. Communities in South Africa, and Tshwane by extension, complain about service delivery they receive from law enforcement officers. This may suggest lack of poor service delivery plan or

strategy and QMS could assist in improving citizens' experience. They were asked if the city has QMS in place and if it's applied.

The research participant #4 stated as follows: *"...and with Quality Management then they've got you know how need to follow to ensure that you do quality service. So, as TMPD we need to give residents quality service such as proper working surveillance cameras to assist us in identifying the culprits"*.

The other research participant indicated the sense of being unaware of the presence or usage of a quality management system and also put the blame on the lack of proper leadership. This in a way relates to the issue of poor management support, which needs serious attention.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *"Ai, the quality system that they must use I don't know, this thing neh, is the one that deems this leadership useless. If only if people that are in leadership are the people with the knowledge of what they do it was going to deem this effective. But because now, someone who's supposed to give lower rank an instruction then it's not effective enough because we need to add the skills and the knowledge of what we are talking and what you do yes, because that we've got the rank yes but if we've got the rank, we give them instruction is that knowledge."*

5.4.3.1.3 Technology-aided Interventions

There were interventions to assist metro traffic officers in combating crime, such as the Namola mobile app, tablets, and camera surveillance in the City's precincts. However, the officers could not account if these are operational and are being maintained on a regular basis. The responses also suggest more could be done to ensure the continued operation of these interventions. Likewise, the other research participant indicated that the Namola app has now been privatised and is no longer under the control of the municipality.

The concern with this move is that the app was introduced as a crime-fighting technological intervention and now through these transactions, the public will now be expected to pay to use the services. The other research participant called for the app to be revived since it is an integral part of the crime-fighting strategy.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *Not privatising it but like revive it because when it was launched, I think it was focused only on a community safety department hence it started with Metro Police and probably SAPS I am not sure.*

Besides these developments, the worrying situation is how these resources are allocated and distributed. For example, regarding resource allocation, there seems to be preferential treatment and unfairness in terms of the practice. This then defeats the purpose of crime prevention and law enforcement as undeserving staff gets allocated resources they do not need.

Accountability is another cause for concern raised by the participants when it comes to resources that are allocated. For example, some of the tablets that were allocated to staff could not be accounted for, and this has implications for efficient use of the resources.

Research participant #2 stated as follows: *“Tablet went stolen from the cars when the cars send to service come back from the services it comes without a tablet you don’t know what happened”.*

5.4.3.1.4 Sustainable Funding Model

The issue of the sustainable funding model was to understand if the MPD has a sustainable funding model or what measures can be put in place to ensure that this model is applied to enable funding of activities relating to the KPAs of the officers. The sustainability of the funding model is necessary for ensuring the continued existence of the municipality, its social contract, and the legitimacy of the public through uninterrupted service delivery towards a safe and clean city. The research participants were asked if there is a funding model and if they understand how they get their funding to enable them to execute their function. The follow-up question was on improvement initiatives to have a sustainable funding model.

Research participant #3 stated as follows: *“There is funding but not enough. They do have their budget, but it’s limited, hence security had to move out from our unit ...because their budget was very big to the extent that, Tshwane Metro police Department was not managed well I guess because there were 2 departments under the same umbrella”.*

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *“Yeah! We don’t know much about finances. The only thing not on our site is that we are working on the street.”*

Rauch *et al.* (2001) in a study documenting challenge faced by the municipal policing fraternity in South Africa point out financing of metro police services and the ability to meet public expectations as amongst key challenges these metros must battle with. With the financing aspect, the authors call for increased resources geared towards public safety independent of the direct National Fiscus budget. This talks more about the self-sustainable funding model to be initiated by municipalities. The question the authors ask towards the establishment of this model is the willingness of the taxpayers to foot the bill by paying more for their services to fund their municipality. Given the public sentiments about the role of municipalities, public service delivery protests, and the services the public receives from their respective municipalities, this strategy might prove to be futile (Masiya, 2019). Scheepers, (2015) do recommend a Municipal Institutional Capacity Model (MICM) to improve the institutional capacity of municipalities through long-term visions and planning; fiscal management; public participation; and human capacity development.

On meeting public expectations, municipalities should adopt a long-term focus and move beyond traffic enforcement, and amongst others invest in crime reduction mechanisms. Providing visible policing, irrespective of its impact on crime reduction remains a key challenge for the MPDs. For those who are living in fear and are worried about their safety, visible policing, and the professional conduct of metro police officers while they are on the street will influence public perceptions (Rauch *et al.*, 2001).

When asked how the issue of budgetary constraints has affected them, it seems to have affected their promotional opportunities, and as previously discussed in section 5.4.3.2; this affected their morale negatively. Rauch *et al.* (2001) cited the issue of “burden-sharing” which proves to be a thorny issue as some of the funds the metro police services are receiving seem to be linked to the re-allocation of a specific function from the SAPS.

Research participant #6 stated as follows: *“Yes, it affected us a great deal, because for now we have been appointed in 2015, by now we should be sergeant so now even 500 intake some we need to go to strike, need to go to lawyers so that they but the contract is written that after 3-4 years you automatically need to be a Sargent but, now we the last intake, the contract that we signed, because We didn’t know. We were surprised that ok you are a constable grade 3, a constable grade 2 constable grade 1 before you can*

become a Sergeant. But before now ok, 4 years, do you have a license, code A, EC you automatically become a Sergeant.”

When asked on the improvement initiatives, one of the research participants (Research Participant #11) responded as follows:

“I believe that they must just invest in their own people first, in the department more like if I want to buy a vehicle for example, that must be state funded through subsidies.”

Furthermore, the other research participant responded in affirmation of the subsidy suggestion as they will treat the vehicles like their own and this implies that the city will be able to save a lot of money spent on maintaining and repairing these vehicles.

Research Participant #8 stated as follows: “Yes, subsidy I think that’s going to be because like you’ll treat that vehicle as well as you treat because it’s yours eventually”.

5.4.3.2 Community-led crime-fighting mandate

This was the last sub-theme relating to improvement strategies for the asset-protection mandate of metro traffic officers. The research participants were probed on whether their law enforcement strategies when it comes to asset protection are informed by community-led intervention. Community-led interventions take the form of CPFs, which have proved to be effective in crime prevention (SAPS, 2014; Pelsler, 2000), more especially in white suburbs, owing to financial support through donations and residents’ desire to fight crime (Pelsler, 2000). Furthermore, the forums allow the community and law enforcement officers to work together toward fighting and preventing crime as they aid in strengthening the legitimacy of law enforcement.

The overwhelming responses imply that they are working with communities as part of their crime-fighting mandate. Further to this development, they found these community-led initiatives to be effective in dealing with crime and they seem to be appreciative of the CPFs and the role they play. This is also consistent with views from the literature. However, there is a slight

Research participant #1 stated as follows: “*Yeah! I do encourage it because the community helps us in terms of fighting crime and a lot because they are the people who see what’s going on, they are the ones who come and call us*”.

Research participant #4 stated as follows: *“Like I said that primarily because of the lack of resources, we would find ways to give back to the community or work closely with them”*.

Research participant #7 stated as follows: *“The community involvement that I know of from the TMPD is the CPFs. And there are other private organisations that are helping us to combat crime.”*

Research participant #8 stated as follows: *“...to catch the person, apprehend that particular person, and arrest them... we do have a community and they call us or look at TikTok and things like that make us aware, so things like that so we work together with them or the communities”*.

Research participant #9 stated as follows: *“I am asking myself; how best can we assist this person in a way that we’ll give it back to the community if this person continues this behavior this is what can we do to assist this person to be in line like the others”*.

The literature on CPF supports the establishment of these structures as effective crime-combating mechanisms. For example, Govender and Pillay (2022) indicate that CPFs have a constitutional backup, and they are legally recognised to be the core of policing and law enforcement in South Africa and represent the policing interests of the local community. On the other hand, Minnaar (2009) argue that they are intentional in exerting civilian oversight over the police, in particular at a local government level which is where traffic metro officers operate. Thus, the participation of the communities in local crime prevention is vital in the identification of crime hotspots. The success of this local safety approach is dependent on an integrated approach as suggested by Landman and Liebermann (2005).

The research participants’ responses paint a picture of some degree of collaboration, although that is scant. Therefore, there is room for improvement, especially from the resource allocation and policy perspectives. The resource capacity was too cited by one of the participants who regards it as a major constraint in enabling them to perform their work effectively.

Research participant 3 stated as follows: *“I’m gonna repeat this again and then give your officers resources so that they can enforce...”*.

Rauch *et al.* (2001) recommend that MPDs need to transform their culture from specialist “*traffic or planning enforcement*” and move towards a more “*generalist community policing approach*”. Therefore, they should be ready to “*face a steep learning curve in building effective community partnerships for safety*”. This implies the need for a new attitude toward the role CPFs play in crime prevention.

5.5 Summary

The chapter presented the findings from the collected and analysed data. Atlas.ti data analysis software version 23 was used for analysis and themes that emerged from analysis were presented through Figure and subsequently through appendix D. The findings were discussed in line with the evidence in the literature to back or contradicts findings where necessary. The key findings of the study were three-folds. Firstly, there was incoherence and loopholes as far as the legislative framework and the roles of the TMPD officers is concerned. Secondly, the TPMD officers are battling various challenges relating to execution of their mandate. Thirdly, the role of CPFs is underutilised and thus there is a need for more collaborative efforts and involvement of communities in strategies sessions and tactics to fight and prevent crime. The next chapter, which is the concluding one for the study, is aimed at discussing the conclusion and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the data analysis and interpretation of the research findings has been presented. In that chapter, the findings were interpreted and discussed against the evidence in the literature. The rest of the current chapter is structured as follows: Section 6.2 presents a summary of the study through reflection of what each chapter focused on. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations associated with this study in section 6.3. Then the recommendations for future research are built from these limitations and these are presented in section 6.4. These recommendations are structured into methodological, theoretical, and practical. Section 6.5 follows and presents reflections of the researcher's personal journey in undertaking this research. The last section for the chapter (section 6.6) presents final concluding remarks.

6.2 Summary of the study (chapters)

Chapter one focused on introduction and background to the study focusing on the role of TMPD and its crime prevention role in the protection of the assets of CTMM. The chapter also details the problem statement, research aims, objectives and questions. This chapter indicates the organisation of the study.

Chapter two presented contemporary and empirical review of literature on the topic of the study. The focus was on the review of scholarly articles, white papers, industry reports, legislative framework, and theses and dissertations on the role of MPS in protecting assets of their municipalities. This review of literature was guided by the objectives of the study, which were outlined in chapter one.

Chapter three provided an account of theoretical framework underpinning the study. The multiple theoretical approach to the review of the literature has been adopted in the study to identify the gaps, the relevancy and critic of each theoretical framework. The conceptual model was also presented in that chapter.

Chapter four focused on the research methodology employed to study the crime prevention role of the TMPD in the protection of the assets of CTMM. This was done through presentation of the chosen research philosophy, design, and approach used

in the study. This was followed by the discussion of the preferred sampling strategies and techniques that guided the data analysis process.

Following the methodological procedures that guided data collection and data analysis procedures, chapter five presented and discussed the research findings in relation to the other findings in the literature. This is where affirmations or contradictions with the current study's findings were presented.

The last chapter, the current one, presents the summary, conclusion, and recommendations of the study. The chapter identifies general limitations to the study as well as the areas for further study

6.3 Limitations of the research

It is important in research for researchers to acknowledge the limitations of their research. This is because both transparency and credibility are important principles relating to acknowledgement behaviour. Furthermore, it is an indication of ethical behaviour which demonstrate degree of awareness on inherent shortcomings associated scientific inquiry (Johnson et al., 2020; Ross & Bibler Zaidi, 2019). The same view is held by the researcher in the current study, hence the research limitations encountered in the execution of this study are acknowledged and discussed in the following section.

6.3.1 Small sample size

Small sample sizes are common in qualitative research than in quantitative research. Likewise, in the current study, 14 research participants were part of the study and were thus interviewed. However, the target was to interview 16 participants or higher in line with previous studies within the same research topic fraternity.

6.3.2 Limitation in generalisability of the findings

Owing to small size of the sample associated with qualitative research studies, it is inherently difficult to generalise the findings of the research to a wider population group. For example, in the current study, the focus was on traffic metro police officer within the jurisdiction of TMPD. That implies that these group of law enforcement officers may be posing unique traits, characteristics or experiences that pose a limit on the ability to generalize the findings of the study to the wider group of law enforcement officers in other metropolitans or jurisdictions.

6.3.3 Limitation in scope

This aspect relates directly to the previous limitation in generalizing the findings of the study. Since the study involves a specific group of traffic metro police officers from a specific area (Tshwane in this case), it may only provide a narrow perspective on the topic being studied, that is asset protection strategies of TMPD.

6.3.4 Potential for researcher's bias

This limitation is inherent in qualitative research owing to the researcher's own assumptions, preconceptions, beliefs on the subject or topic being studied. These views or bias may potentially influence the way in which the interviews are conducted and interpretation of the findings. When this happens, objectivity, validity and credibility of the study are potentially impacted. The researcher's prior knowledge and experience in the field of metro police work may influence the way in which questions are asked and analysed. Nonetheless, section 4.9 in Chapter 4 explained how bias for this study has been minimised to achieve validity and reliability of the findings.

6.3.5 Social desirability and research participants' bias

The social desirability is the kind of pressure emanating from the research participants to socially desirable responses during interviews, either not to be judged or to be affirmed by the interviewer. This form of bias characterizes itself when the research participants modify their responses to be in alignment with society's expectations or perceived professional standards. If not checked, this may have consequences on the accuracy or depth of the data being collected. The potential for the research participants' bias arises when they have their own biases, assumptions, or personal experiences influencing their responses during interviews. The researcher is aware that these individual beliefs do not necessarily represent the broader views or experiences of all traffic and law enforcement officers in the CTMM area.

6.3.6 Resource and time limitations

Due to lengthy process of interviews, observations or analysing the content, be it text, voice and so on, qualitative research can be time-constraint. Time factor may also originate from the research participants' side as they may not be available for the interviews on the date and time scheduled by the researcher. This also implies that this may require patience to meet research participants' diary, which may be against

researcher's timelines because the research project should be completed within specified time. Furthermore, considerable number of resources such as data collection and data analysis instruments may be needed, which may be outside the researcher's budget limit. With regards to time constraints, the researcher in this study had to cancel 2 scheduled interviews for data collection because the potential research participants were just not available. There were also financial constraints which had implications for procuring technology-aided data collection tool such as Livescribe pen, which can record and do live transcription of the meeting or interview notes.

6.3.7 Limitation on the data breadth and depth

Qualitative research studies are associated with rich and detailed data, owing to related research methods and techniques such as interviews and content analysis. This may consequently have limitations as far as depth and breadth of data being collected is concerned. Likewise, in this study, semi-structured interviews were the adopted data collection research method. Therefore, relying solely on interviews may potentially have restrictions on ability to explore certain aspects or perspectives on the research topic under study that could have been better studied through other research methods or complementary data sources such as analysing strategic policy documents and annual reports of these metropolitan departments.

6.3.8 Difficulties in analysing data

Given the potential to collect rich and detailed data, the concomitant data analysis and data interpretations are inherent skills required for this exercise. Additionally, this process may be time-consuming and may need significant effort for transcription and coding of the collected data. This, therefore, pose limitations on the amount of data that can be analysed if the skill to execute these research activities is limited. For the sake of this study, the researcher procured the services of the experienced consulting company to assist with data collection (interviews), transcription and data analysis. The researcher was briefed after each session as to how the interviews went. Challenges experienced and areas of improvement were discussed.

6.4 Recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the TMPD officers can be enhanced.

This study finds that traffic officers were not impressed on the type and number of interventions supplied by the employer. Therefore, the study recommendations for enhancing continuous professional development (CPD) and training on asset protection improvement strategies and crime-combating mechanisms within the Tshwane Municipality's metro police department are as follows:

- Determine skill shortages and training requirements and do an extensive need analysis;
- Create educational programs that are specifically suited to identified requirements.
- Establish a regular timetable for training modules to remain informed;
- Promote collaboration among of the appropriate agencies and multifunctional training;
- Incorporate the contemporary technology in training sessions;
- Develop scenario-based training sessions to replicate actual circumstances;
- Stress the importance of involvement in the community and training in community policing;
- Provide training in leadership to aspiring potential leaders;
- Create monitoring and feedback systems to promote ongoing development;
- Establish training and guidance initiatives to impart expertise;
- Award certification and recognition for expertise and advanced training;
- Set aside sufficient funds in the budget for high-quality educational initiatives; and
- Promote internal research and development.

Through efficient training and professional development activities, these recommendations of this study can assist the metro police department in improving its skills in safeguarding assets and combating crime.

6.5 Practical recommendations

The practical recommendation of this study is based on the three research objectives outlined in chapter 1 and the study findings on chapter 5.

6.5.1 Objective 1: To explore the role of TMPD officers in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM.

The study finds that the existence of the varied responses suggests that there is no shared understanding in terms of their legislative mandate. Practically, TMPD should implement standardised training programs to clarify their legislative mandate for protecting municipal assets. These programs should cover all relevant laws, regulations, and guidelines, and be updated regularly. Therefore, this approach reduces confusion and misinterpretation, leading to more effective asset protection strategies, increased legal compliance, and improved accountability.

6.5.2 To examine the challenges faced by the TMPD officers in their mandate of protecting municipal assets in CTMM.

The findings of this study indicate the overwhelming number of research participants mentioned a lack of adequate and proper resources as the main challenge they are facing in their work. Given the findings that a significant percentage of TMPD officers identify a lack of adequate resources as their main obstacle to carrying out their mandate to protect municipal assets within the CTMM, a practical recommendation is to proactively address this resource gap. A thorough resource management plan should be implemented by the municipality. In addition, comprehensive assessment of TMPD officers' resource needs, including equipment, personnel, training, and technology, is crucial for asset protection. A realistic budget, efficient procurement processes, and training programs can be implemented to ensure reliable resources, improved outcomes, increased officer morale, and increased transparency in resource management practices.

6.5.3 To make recommendations on how the asset protection mandate of the TMPD officers can be enhanced.

Under this objective, the recommendation from the study is that there need to be asset protection improvement strategies and crime combating mechanisms as well as the community-led crime-fighting mandate to enhance the TMPD on the asset protection mandate. Considering the above objective and finding to improve asset protection, TMPD should foster community engagement, establish policing initiatives, develop an intelligence unit, increase patrol visibility, integrate modern technology, provide specialised training for officers, collaborate with other law enforcement agencies, and implement public awareness campaigns. Regular evaluations and feedback mechanisms

will ensure continuous improvement in asset protection efforts, thereby safeguarding community assets and reducing crime.

6.6 Conclusion

South Africa is counted amongst the countries with the alarming crime rates, and there have been efforts by the country and the government towards crime prevention and reduction through enacting legislative framework and governance structures enabled and underpinned by the Constitution, in particular, section 206. The formation of the SAPS and the establishment of traffic and municipal law enforcement officers is the resultant of the Constitution and subsequent various pieces of legislation such as the SAPS Act (68 of 1995), the SAPS Amendment Act (83 of 1998) and the National Road Traffic Act (93 of 1996) amongst others. Notwithstanding this legislative background and development, the effectiveness and efficiency of MPDs has been debated in the academic literature, news media and parliamentary sessions, resulting in questioning and doubting their roles in the criminal justice system following massive vandalism of municipal properties and arson and alarming crime rates. The roles and responsibilities of MPDs in asset protection and crime prevention are not clearly articulated in the country's legislative frameworks. The main objective of this research was to evaluate the crime prevention role the TMPD assumes in protecting the assets of the city. This was achieved through subsequent three secondary research objectives stated as follows:

- Research objective #1: To assess the TMPD's role in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM.
- Research objective #2: To examine challenges faced by the TMPD in protection of municipal assets in CTMM.
- Research objective #3: To make recommendations to enhance asset protection mandate of the TMPD.

Through the review of both empirical and theoretical literature, existing gaps were identified as part of an attempt to address the research problem. The gaps identified in the literature informed the design of the interview guide and formulation of the research questions, which are stated as follows:

- Research question #1: What is the role of TMPD in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM?
- Research question #2: What are the challenges TMPD faces in protection of municipal assets in CTMM?
- Research objective #3: What can be done to enhance asset protection mandate of the TMPD?

The findings revealed the fragmented legislative framework, which was found to be limiting in some cases with regards to the role of traffic and law enforcement officers of the TMPD in their protection mandate of the City's assets. This fragmentation often led to duplication in the roles between the SAPS and MPDs. With the latter, their function was often limited, while SAPS assumed superiority. On the second research question, myriad challenges were reported by the research participants, namely:

- insufficient and inadequate allocation of resources;
- inadequate management support in the provision of resources;
- dissatisfaction with remuneration practices and promotion opportunities;
- lack of regular performance management and evaluation systems;
- ineffective and inefficient strategy-oriented mandate;
- lack of effective technology-aided crime prevention techniques and strategies;
- lack of adequate capacity development interventions; and
- inadequate collaboration with CPFs especially in townships.

Based on these findings, recommendations for further research have been provided in the current chapter so that comprehensive understanding on the role of traffic and law enforcement officers in crime prevention and protecting assets of the metropolitan municipalities can be enhanced.

APPENDIX A: BIBLIOGRAPHY

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APPENDIX B: ETHICS CERTIFICATE_UNISA



UNISA 2022 ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2023:02:01

ERC Reference No.: ST126-2022

Name: Mr Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

Dear Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

**Decision: Ethics Approval from
2023:02:01 to 2025:02:01**

Researcher: Mr Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

Supervisor: Prof Muzukhona Wilfred Buthelezi

An evaluation of the Tshwane Metro Police Department's crime prevention role in protecting the assets of the Tshwane metropolitan municipality, Gauteng, South Africa

Qualification: Master of Art (Criminal Justice)

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa 2022 Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for 3 years.

The medium risk application was reviewed by the CLAW Ethics Review Committee on 01 February 2023 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

- 1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.**
2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
3. Any undertaking arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the CLAW Committee.
4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.



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5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.
8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2025:02:01**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

The reference number ST126-2022 should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants and the Committee.

Yours sincerely,



Prof L Fitz
Chair of CLAW ERC
E-mail: fitzlg@unisa.ac.za
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Prof OJ Kole
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APPENDIX C : ETHICS CERTIFICATE_TMPD



City Strategy and Organizational Performance

Room AOE 010 | Ground Floor, West Wing, Block D | Tshwane House | 320 Madiba Street | Pretoria | 0002
PO Box 440 | Pretoria | 0001
Tel: 012 358 5198
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My ref: **Research Permission/Mdluli**
Contact person: **Pearl Maponya**
Section/Unit: **Knowledge Management**

Tel: 012 358 4559
Email: PearlMap3@tshwane.gov.za
Date 15 March 2023

Mr Jan Vusumusi Mdluli
68 Blackwood Street
The Hills Estate
0081

Dear Mr Jan Vusumusi Mdluli,

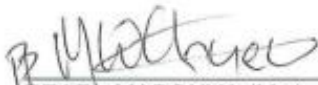
RE: AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME PREVENTION ROLE IN PROTECTING THE ASSETS OF THE TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA

Permission is hereby granted to Mr Jan Vusumusi Mdluli, Master of arts in Security Management Degree candidate at the University of South Africa (UNISA), to conduct research in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality.

It is noted that the aim of the research is to explore the role of TMPD in the protection of municipality assets, immovable properties, and buildings. The City of Tshwane further notes that all ethical aspects of the research will be covered within the provisions of UNISA Research Ethics Policy. You will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement with the City of Tshwane prior to conducting research.

Relevant information required for the purpose of the research project will be made available as per applicable laws and regulations. The City of Tshwane is not liable to cover the costs of the research. Upon completion of the research study, it would be appreciated that the findings in the form of a report and or presentation be shared with the City of Tshwane.

Yours faithfully,


PEARL MAPONYA (Ms.)
DIRECTOR: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

APPENDIX D: SYNOPSIS OF THE INTERVIEW GUIDE, EMERGENT THEMES AND SUB-THEMES

Research objective	Research questions	Emergent Themes
<p>#1: To assess the TMPD’s officers’ role in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM</p>	<p>#1 What is the role of TMPD in the protection of municipal assets of the CTMM?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the main mandate of TMPD? <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • How is the working relationship with other organs of state when it comes to asset protection? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legislative loopholes • Synergy inter-and intra-stakeholders • Blurrily of the lines of operations
<p>#2: To examine challenges faced by TMPD in protection of municipal assets in CTMM</p>	<p>#2 What are the challenges TMPD faces in protection of municipal assets in CTMM?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • List three main work-related challenges or difficulties associated with the work of MPDs. • What are long- and short-term strategies to deal with crime in the TMPD precinct? • Do you have strategic management sessions regarding performance targets? <p>What is the extent management support in terms of resource allocation?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Challenges with asset protection unit • Strategy-oriented mandate

<p>#3: To make recommendations to enhance asset protection mandate of TMPD</p>	<p>#3 What measures need to be put in place to enhance asset protection mandate of the TMPD?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Does TPMD have a quality management system? • To what extent is the use of technology to combat crime? • How can we have a sustainable crime fighting funding model? <p>Is the crime-fighting mandate of TMPD inspired by community-led partnerships?</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asset protection improvement strategies • Continuous Training and development initiatives • Technology-aided interventions • Sustainable Funding model
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APPENDIX E: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE



Contact number: 0839383265
Whatsapp: 0658888129
Email: rbrtncky@yahoo.com

*This serves to confirm that we've duly edited Master of Arts in the subject SECURITY MANAGEMENT
Dissertation titled:*

**AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME
PREVENTION ROLE IN PROTECTING THE ASSETS OF THE TSHWANE
METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA**

by

Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

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NB! All editing and technical formatting are executed with recommended Track Changes on the Microsoft Word processor, and we therefore have no control or influence over what the author accepts or rejects. Furthermore, we have no control over additional text done at a later stage.

Should there be any queries, please do not hesitate to contact us on the details provided above.

Yours sincerely

Dr RN Tjano

01/9/2023

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APPENDIX F: TURNITIN OUTPUT: DIGITAL RECEIPT

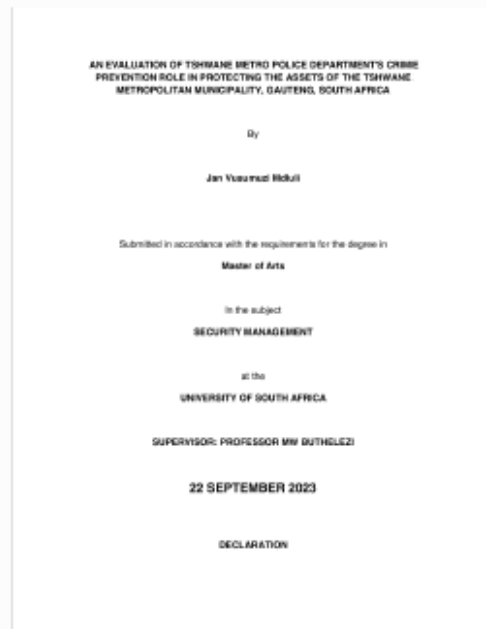


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J V MDLULI | AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME PREVENTION ROLE ...

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree in

Master of Arts

in the subject

SECURITY MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: PROFESSOR MW BUTHELEZI

FEBRUARY 2024

DECLARATION

Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli, with student number: 39680738 declared that this research project titled "AN EVALUATION OF TSHWANE METRO POLICE DEPARTMENT'S CRIME PREVENTION ROLE IN PROTECTING THE ASSETS OF THE TSHWANE METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITY, GAUTENG, SOUTH AFRICA" is my own work. All sources consulted or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged through complete references.

Jan Vusumuzi Mdluli

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